



SCOTTISH EXECUTIVE

A Gender Audit of Statistics: Comparing the Position of Women and Men in Scotland

Social Justice



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research

**A GENDER AUDIT OF STATISTICS:
COMPARING THE POSITION OF WOMEN AND MEN
IN SCOTLAND**

**Esther Breitenbach and Fran Wasoff
University of Edinburgh**

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2007**

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ABBREVIATIONS

AHC	After Housing Costs
ASHE	Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings
BHC	Before Housing Costs
BMI	Body Mass Index
CEC	Commission of the European Communities
COSLA	Convention of Scottish Local Authorities
CPAS	Commissioner for Public Appointments in Scotland
DDA	Disability Discrimination Act
DWP	Department of Work and Pensions
EOC	Equal Opportunities Commission
ESDS	Economic and Social Data Services
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
EU	European Union
FEC	Further Education College
FTE	Full Time Equivalent
FTET	Full Time Education and Training
FTSE	Financial Times and London Stock Exchange index
GB	Great Britain
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GFR	General Fertility Rate
GP	General Practitioner
GROS	General Register Office for Scotland
GUM	Genito-urinary medicine
HA	Housing Association
HB	Health Board
HBAI	Households Below Average Income
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
HIH	Highest Income Householder
HNC	Higher National Certificate
HND	Higher National Diploma
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ISD	Information Services Division
ITEC	Information Technology, Electronics and Communications
JSA	Jobseeker's Allowance
LA	Local Authority
LA/SH	Local Authority/Scottish Homes
LEC	Local Enterprise Company
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender
LPT	Low Pay Threshold
MEP	Member of the European Parliament
MP	Member of Parliament
MSP	Member of the Scottish Parliament
NDPB	Non-Departmental Public Body
NES	New Earnings Survey
NHS	National Health Service

ONS	Office for National Statistics
OSC	Out of School Care
PTI	Practice Team Information
SCQF	Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework
SCS	Scottish Crime Survey
SCVO	Scottish Council for Voluntary Organisations
SCVS	Scottish Crime and Victimisation Survey
SEED	Scottish Executive Education Department
SEELD	Scottish Executive Enterprise and Lifelong Learning Department
SEHD	Scottish Executive Health Department
SEJD	Scottish Executive Justice Department
SET	Science, Engineering and Technology
SFC	Scottish Funding Council
SFEFC	Scottish Further Education Funding Council
SHS	Scottish Household Survey
SNP	Scottish National Party
SNS	Scottish Neighbourhood Statistics
SOC	Standard Occupational Classification
SPS	Scottish Prison Service
SQA	Scottish Qualifications Authority
SSAS	Scottish Social Attitudes Survey
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
STUC	Scottish Trades Union Congress
SVQ	Scottish Vocational Qualification
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UK	United Kingdom
WEU	Women and Equality Unit

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. INTRODUCTION

Independent research was commissioned by the Scottish Executive to provide a review of statistics on gender differences and inequalities in Scotland across a range of key areas of social and economic life: demographic and population change; participation in political and public life; education and training; the labour market; income and wealth; care and caring; health; crime and justice; housing; and transport. The report comments on the extent and nature of differences and inequalities as indicated by statistical trends, and on changes over time. Overall, there is evidence both of growing gender equality in certain areas and of persisting gender inequalities in others.

2. POLICY CONTEXT

The discussion of statistical trends comparing the position of women and men in Scotland is set within the wider policy context relevant to the promotion of gender equality. However, the statistical trends discussed for the most part provide evidence of general social trends, and are not measures of the impact of specific policies as such. The policy context governing gender equality issues is complex, since legislation relevant to gender equality is promulgated at different levels: EU directives, UK legislation, and Scottish Parliamentary legislation. The policy context is also complex because of the cross-cutting nature of equality policies and the need to tackle inter-related factors which underpin persisting inequalities. These include different patterns of labour market participation, the sexual division of labour in childcare and other forms of care, and inequalities in access to income and resources such as housing.

The Scottish Executive aims to promote gender equality through its gender mainstreaming approach, co-ordinated by the Scottish Executive Equality Unit. All the Scottish Executive's general policy objectives, such as those which aim to develop the economy, improve access to education and educational attainment, prevent poverty, improve health, reduce crime, improve the quality of homes, and provide an efficient integrated transport system, have gender implications, given gender differences in experiences and behaviours and given persisting gender inequalities. In addition, the Scottish Executive has specific objectives which promote gender equality such as the reduction of the gender pay gap, encouragement of flexible working, tackling occupational segregation, and increased childcare provision.

3. THE GENDER EQUALITY DUTY

The Gender Equality Duty comes into force in April 2007, and this report aims to provide information and guidance about sources of data on gender issues in preparation for this new duty. The Gender Equality Duty, enacted in the UK Equality Act 2006, applies to the Scottish Executive and to a range of public bodies in Scotland, and stipulates that there will be both a general duty and specific gender duties imposed on public authorities. To comply with the general duty, bodies will need to ensure that they are in compliance with the Equal Pay and Sex Discrimination Acts. The general duty also requires bodies to prevent unlawful discrimination and harassment and promote equality of opportunity between women and men when carrying out their functions and activities. The specific duties apply to listed public bodies, and the types of bodies which will be subject to the specific duties on gender equality include: government departments, local authorities, health authorities and trusts, housing bodies, police forces, Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise, passenger transport executives and transport authorities, the higher education funding council, the sports council and a range of cultural bodies.

Public bodies to whom the specific duties will apply will be required to publish and implement gender equality schemes, review and report on schemes, consult employees, service users and others, and take into account information relevant to the impact of policies and practices on gender equality in the workplace and in the delivery of services. It is also expected that most public authorities will take action on equal pay under their gender equality scheme, and in order to do this, public authorities may need to develop and publish a policy on developing equal pay arrangements between women and men. Public authorities will also be required to conduct gender impact assessments (GIAs) of the policy underlying all proposed primary legislation and significant secondary legislation. A listed public authority must ensure that its gender equality scheme also sets out the actions it has taken or intends to take to assess the impact of its policies and practices, or their likely impact, on gender equality. For all these processes, evidence gathering is fundamental. This will include relevant statistical and research evidence at national and/or local level as appropriate, as well as evidence from qualitative research, and from consultations. Within this context, Scottish level data can help to establish benchmarks for gender equality goals, while local data can ensure that the goals of specific public bodies address the gender inequalities specific to their area.

4. SCOPE OF THE REVIEW OF STATISTICS

The report provides a review of gender disaggregated statistics providing information about the position of men and women and boys and girls in Scotland. It also includes some data of a different nature, such as that on childcare provision, or gender specific data, such as those on particular diseases or health programmes which affect one sex only, since these are seen to be significant to the promotion of gender equality or to equity in provision in meeting gender specific needs. The majority of data are presented at Scottish level, though some illustrative examples of data at local authority level have been provided.

It is recognised that there are a range of other characteristics that, in combination with gender, contribute to different experiences and status, and that, in particular, there are characteristics that may compound inequality or disadvantage experienced on the grounds of gender. These characteristics include ethnicity, disability, socio-economic status, age, urban/rural differences, sexual orientation, and religion. Limitations to existing data mean that it has not been possible to provide a systematic analysis of data combining gender with these other characteristics, though the report presents in particular statistics which provide an analysis of gender and ethnicity and gender and disability, where these are available. However, these examples are rare as there are often methodological difficulties in producing such disaggregations of statistical data (see Appendix II). For this reason, the report provides a summary of the key inequalities experienced by groups such as minority ethnic communities, disabled people, and people of different religions.

5. DATA SOURCES AND USES OF THE DATA

Since 1999 the provision of gender disaggregated statistics across a range of topics has greatly improved, a process which has been facilitated by developments in information technology. Gender disaggregated statistics are currently published in a wide range of Scottish Executive statistical publications, while further data may be available for secondary analysis to academic and other researchers. The report contains an extensive range of tables, utilising data from these sources. It also provides guidance to statistical publications, key data sources and data sets. Examples of how gender disaggregated data may be used in the development of gender equality schemes are provided within each chapter.

6. KEY FINDINGS

Chapter 1: Population, households and families

There are a number of key demographic trends in Scotland with significant gender dimensions, such as changes in family life, partnership formation and dissolution, and parenthood. With respect to patterns of family formation and family life trends include the following: more people are single; marriage is occurring later; fewer people are marrying; more people are cohabiting; there is more marriage and relationship breakdown; and there are more lone mothers. There are also more diverse household forms, and more frequent transitions between different forms of household, and there is greater visibility of same-sex couples and same-sex couple households. More births are occurring outside marriage, and parenthood is occurring at a later age. Currently the fertility rate in Scotland is low and below replacement level. There is an ageing population, with people enjoying greater longevity, while this also means that there are changing dependency ratios (i.e. the ratio of the non-working age population to the working age population).

Chapter 2: Participation in political and public life

Statistical evidence of the position of women and men in political and public life underlines the continuing gender imbalance in political institutions and in decision-making bodies in public life, with, for example, women making up 14% of Scottish MPs, 39% of MSPs, 22% of local authority councillors, and 34% of Scottish Executive sponsored public appointments. Though women continue to be under-represented changes are slowly taking place, and the numbers of women holding office or prominent positions in public life in Scotland is increasing. While there do not appear to be any significant differences between men and women in their propensity to vote, there are some differences in their degree of engagement with and trust in political institutions, with, for example, women being less likely than men to think that the government is good at listening to people, whether the UK government or the Scottish Executive. Levels of involvement in their community and in volunteering are similar for men and women, though there are some differences in the types of organisations that men and women volunteer for. This suggests that as citizens men and women are equally active, but that their patterns of activity differ in some respects.

Chapter 3: Education and Training

Statistical evidence of gender differences in educational participation and performance indicates that girls perform better than boys at school, tend to stay on longer at school, leave school with better qualifications, and that women now make up a majority of entrants to further and higher education. Boys are more likely than girls to be excluded from schools, and to have particular support needs for educational or behavioural reasons. While girls' performance has been better than boys' for some time, subject choices at secondary school, and in further and higher education, remain noticeably gendered, and tend to follow patterns of 'traditional' male and female career choices in certain areas, such as nursing for women and engineering for men. Women are more likely than men to benefit from work-related training, though there is little difference between women and men in the likelihood of undertaking some sort of learning as an adult, with the most significant factor differentiating people being the level of qualifications held. The gender balance of those taking part in government training programmes varies across programmes, with men being in the majority in most programmes. Women make up the majority of teachers at primary and secondary school level (75% of these taken together), but remain under-represented in senior positions. Women are a slight majority of academic staff in further education, but are under-represented in senior management positions. Men are the majority of academic staff in higher education

overall (61%), and make up higher proportions the more senior the level, with men making up 86% of all professors.

Chapter 4: The labour market

Statistical evidence of patterns of men's and women's participation in the labour market indicates that over time the gap between men's and women's rates of participation has narrowed considerably and that women now make up half of the labour force in Scotland. Despite such convergence in participation rates, there remain significant differences between women and men in patterns of labour market participation, in particular in the following respects: average working hours, and in particular mothers' and fathers' working hours; use of flexible forms of working; industrial distribution; occupational distribution; and patterns of self-employment. It has also been noted that minority ethnic groups and disabled people have lower rates of employment generally, and that this is true for women in particular. As elsewhere in the UK, there has been a period of significant change in the labour market in recent decades with women being particularly affected by this as opportunities have opened up to them. There remain barriers to gender equality, however, such as women's concentration in low paid part-time jobs, and occupational segregation.

Chapter 5: Income and wealth

Statistical evidence of gender differences in access to incomes from earnings, and from assets, savings and benefits, indicates that women's levels of incomes from earnings and other sources are persistently lower than men's, that women are more vulnerable to poverty and that specific groups of women are particularly vulnerable to poverty. While the gender pay gap has been decreasing, in 2005 there was a gender pay gap of 12% in the average hourly earnings of men and women and a gender pay gap of 19% in the average weekly earnings of men and women. Low pay remains a significant problem in Scotland and particularly for women, with 23% of all workers being low paid in 2005, and 31% of women workers being low paid. The gender gap in individual incomes is greater than the gender gap for earnings, with the gap between men's and women's average individual incomes in 2004/05 being 40%. Women make up the majority of those on benefits, with lone parents and lone pensioners being particularly vulnerable to poverty.

Chapter 6: Care and caring

The statistical data indicate that care remains a gendered sphere, with women taking the major share of responsibility for this whether as unpaid carers or as paid workers. In general childcare provision has increased, but the pattern of provision is both complex and varied across Scotland. Research has indicated that many parents have a preference for informal care, and that the desire to work is the most important factor in parents' deciding to use childcare. Research has also indicated problems of costs and lack of awareness of available provision, and makes clear that for some groups of parents there still exists an unmet need. Women are the majority of unpaid carers of adults, though the gender differences in the share of caring decrease with age. Care responsibilities often have an economic cost as they reduce the capacity of carers to participate in paid work. Women are also the majority of those being cared for, with the tendency for women to live longer than men being a key contributory factor to this. The childcare workforce is overwhelmingly made up of women, and women are also a large majority of the workforce in other care services.

Chapter 7:- Health

Statistical data indicate a number of differences in health for women and men. Women continue to have greater life expectancy than men, though over time the gap in the average

life expectancy of men and women has decreased. While cancer, coronary heart disease and stroke are the main causes of death for both men and women, there are differences in the patterns of mortality from these diseases for men and women. There are also gender specific cancers, such as cervical and breast cancer in the case of women, and prostate and other genital cancers in the case of men. There is little difference between men and women in self-reported levels of health, but there are differences in health behaviours and in mental health. Men are more likely than women to risk their health through smoking, high levels of alcohol consumption, and poor diet, and a higher proportion of men than of women are obese. However, men are more likely than women to be physically active. Men are also more likely than women to report high levels of psychological well-being, and women are more likely than men to suffer from anxiety and depression. Men, however, are more likely than women to commit suicide. With regard to reproductive and sexual health, the birth rate has been declining, and infant mortality rates have also decreased to a very low level over time. The rate of teenage conceptions has declined to some extent in recent years, while the abortion rate has remained fairly stable over the past decade. Sexually transmitted infections have been rising for both men and women. Women tend to use health service provision more than men, partly as a consequence of their reproductive role, and because there are gender specific services such as cervical and breast cancer screening programmes. Women also tend to visit their GPs more frequently than do men, and are more likely than men to be day patients and outpatients. Women make up a significant proportion of the NHS workforce, particularly of nursing staff, and now make up almost half of all GPs.

Chapter 8: Crime and justice

Statistical evidence of gender differences in patterns of offending and in penalties for offences indicates that the numbers of men who commit offences and the rate of offending of men as a proportion of the population are both much higher than for women. Men are more likely than women to commit serious offences and to commit violent offences, and women are less likely than men to receive custodial sentences. Correspondingly, there are far greater numbers of men than of women in prison, though the numbers of both men and women in prison in Scotland have continued to rise over the past decade, with the rate of increase for women being much faster than the rate of increase for men. With respect to victimisation, men are more likely to be victims of violent crime in general, with young men being twice as likely as young women to be victims of assault, while women are overwhelmingly the victims of domestic violence, and of crimes of indecency such as rape. Women are more likely than men to perceive crime as a problem and to be worried about crime. Within certain sectors of criminal justice workforces, women remain in the minority, and are particularly under-represented at senior levels, for example, in the judiciary and in police forces, while they make up the majority of those working with offenders in social work services and of children's panel members.

Chapter 9: Housing

Statistical evidence indicates that a substantial proportion of households are couple households, with men and women in such households having access to the same type and quality of housing. However, households where men are the highest income earners are likely to have access to better quality housing than households where women are the highest income earners, with men being more likely to be home owners and less likely to rent from a social landlord. Households headed by women, such as lone parent and lone pensioner households, tend to be most disadvantaged in the quality of housing to which they have access. In general, there is little difference between women and men in their ratings and perceptions of their neighbourhoods, though lone parent households seem to experience greater problems. The

groups most vulnerable to homelessness are single men, followed by lone parents and single women. For lone parents a high proportion of the disputes which led to their homelessness involved violence.

Chapter 10: Transport

Statistical evidence of gender differences in access to and usage of transport indicates that men are more likely than women to hold a driving licence and to have access to a car. 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 are more likely to feel unsafe using such services. Of those who use local bus services, the majority of men and women have a positive attitude towards these services. Men are more likely than women to use cars for travel to work and 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. Men are more likely than women to be involved in road accidents as drivers, and they are also more likely than women to be casualties in road accidents, and boys are more likely than girls to be casualties.

7. CONCLUSION

In general the data examined in the report indicate that despite some convergence in the position of women and men, such changes are slow, and that in some areas significant gender inequalities persist. In the main such inequalities disadvantage women, though in some instances the position of boys and men is disadvantaged compared to girls and women. These patterns, reflecting women's disadvantage economically and socially, are observable internationally, and exist throughout the UK as a whole.

The key trends in gender inequalities and differences outlined above indicate not only the persistence of gender inequalities, but that they affect many aspects of social and economic life. They are also in many ways inter-related. Patterns of family change both affect and are affected by employment patterns and levels of income. The gender division of labour in caring for children and other dependants influences labour market participation, with women often being in paid work only intermittently or in long term part-time work, with consequences for pay, promotion, and income in retirement. Women's restricted access to resources such as money, time and private cars, for example, also restrict their capacity to participate in political and public life.

While girls have overtaken boys in educational performance, this advantage has not yet carried through to the labour market, as gendered patterns of subject choice continue to structure gendered career patterns and occupational segregation. There are similarly gendered patterns in labour market participation for those boys and girls who leave school with few or no qualifications, with young women tending to work in low-paid, low skilled jobs offering little prospect of skills enhancement or training, while young men are more likely to suffer unemployment. Poor levels of educational attainment is one factor often associated with offending behaviour, as are health problems such as drug and alcohol abuse, and this is the case for both sexes, though rates of offending are much higher for males.

Women are overwhelmingly the victims of domestic abuse, which has impacts on the health of victims, and may lead to homelessness, factors which create barriers to taking up

education, training or employment opportunities. While there is not a large difference in the numbers of men and women living in poverty, some groups of women are particularly vulnerable to poverty and more likely to experience poverty on a long-term basis, for example, lone parents and lone pensioners. Availability of childcare provision is crucial to lone parents' ability to work, while many women pensioners are dependent on state benefits in retirement because of the impact of caring responsibilities on their working lives.

Socio-economic status, in interaction with gender, ethnicity, and disability, significantly influences access to employment and pay, patterns of health, access to housing, and to resources such as private cars. With the exception of health, women are disadvantaged compared with men in all these spheres. It is important to emphasise with respect to health however, that while women in lower socio-economic groups may experience on average better health than men in these groups, the gap between both men and women in lower socio-economic groups in terms of life expectancy and experience of ill-health and both men and women in higher socio-economic groups is significant.

In indicating ways in which aspects of gender differences and inequalities are inter-related, it becomes clear that many factors interact to reinforce patterns of gender inequality. There is not one simple cause of gender inequality, but rather disadvantage in one area often contributes to disadvantage in another area. It is important to stress, however, that while some gender inequalities, such as levels of pay and income or life expectancy, may be generally apparent across socio-economic groups, in terms of quality of life, levels of health, access to housing and other resources, and income levels, the differences between women in higher socio-economic groups and women in lower socio-economic groups are likely to be much greater than the differences between men and women in these groups respectively. Thus policy responses to inequalities need to address the experiences of different groups. Similarly, the ways in which ethnicity interacts with gender, and in which disability interacts with gender, means that there are different experiences for different minority ethnic groups and different groups of disabled people. And insofar as discrimination is a contributory factor, however hard it may be to uncover or to quantify, it should be actively challenged. The data and trends described in the report can at least be used to facilitate this process. The use of good quality gender disaggregated statistics in the production of equality schemes and in evaluating and monitoring of these should help to further clarify the extent and nature of gender inequalities and to assess the impacts of specific policies in bringing about positive changes.

INTRODUCTION

1. AIMS AND SCOPE OF THE REPORT

Since 1999, the Scottish Executive has been committed to the approach of mainstreaming equality throughout its policy making processes, and this includes equality with respect to gender, ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation, age and religion. Mainstreaming equality is defined as ‘the systematic integration of an equality perspective into the everyday work of government, involving policy makers across all government departments, as well as equality specialists and external partners’ (Scottish Executive, 2000). In line with this commitment, gender disaggregated data have been systematically improved, and a range of publications on gender and other equality data have been published. This report builds on and extends previous publications of gender disaggregated statistics such as *Women and Men in Scotland: a Statistical Profile* (Scottish Executive, 2001) and *Social Focus on Women and Men* (Scottish Executive, 2002), and complements the statistics on key trends on gender, ethnicity, disability, age and religion, which are included in *High Level Summary of Equality Statistics: Key Trends for Scotland* (Scottish Executive, 2006a). It contributes to the fulfilment of the commitment made by the Scottish Executive to improve data and research on women’s and gender issues in Scotland, outlined in the Executive’s response to the report of the Strategic Group on Women (Scottish Executive, 2003; Scottish Executive, 2006b). Last, but not least, it also provides a baseline for the evaluation of the impact of the Gender Equality Duty, which will come into force in April 2007.

The report provides a review of statistics on gender differences and inequalities in Scotland across a range of key areas of social and economic life: demographic and population change; participation in political and public life; education and training; the labour market; income and wealth; care and caring; health; crime and justice; housing; and transport. It comments on the extent and nature of differences and inequalities as indicated by statistical trends, and comments on changes over time. There is evidence both of growing gender equality in certain areas, and of persistence of gender differences and inequalities in others. Explanations for such patterns of inequality and difference are often complex, and statistical information alone cannot tell us why such patterns exist, though such data are crucial in monitoring change and the directions in which this is occurring. The commentary which interprets the statistical trends outlined in tables included in the report is complemented by references to recent research, which helps to provide more in-depth consideration of patterns of gender inequality and which may suggest explanatory factors for these. Such references to recent research are, however, selective and illustrative, as a comprehensive review of relevant research on gender issues in Scotland was beyond the scope of this project.

The discussion in this report of statistical trends in relation to women and men’s position in Scottish society and the Scottish economy is set within the context of policies which are significant for the well-being of women and men in general or which aim specifically to foster greater gender equality. Nonetheless, such statistical trends are not in themselves measures of the impacts of specific policies. For example, while data about the average gender pay gap are relevant to the overall policy objective of reducing the gender pay gap, data indicating the reduction of the gender pay gap over time do not in themselves indicate what have been the impacts of policies such as pay reviews or restructuring of pay systems, or to what extent general economic trends have contributed to this reduction. It is important then to emphasise that many of the statistics in this report indicate general social trends which it is expected would inform policy making and policy objectives, but which cannot in themselves give

direct measures of policy impacts. There are some exceptions to this, however, such as data on participation in government training programmes.

It is also important to emphasise that the policy context governing gender equality issues is very complex. This is because legislation relevant to gender equality is promulgated at different levels, from EU directives to Scottish Parliamentary legislation, and policy initiatives of both the UK government and the Scottish Executive are relevant to its promotion. It is also complex because of the cross-cutting nature of equality policies and the need to tackle inter-related factors which underpin persisting inequalities, such as different patterns of labour market participation, the sexual division of labour in childcare and other forms of care, and inequalities in access to income and resources such as housing. Furthermore, policy objectives relating to gender equality or having an impact on gender equality are implemented through a range of different measures, including legislation, service provision, specific programmes and target setting across a range of policy areas. This report, in setting the policy context, has confined itself to outlining only the main policy objectives most relevant to gender equality within each policy area considered in the report.

The aim of this report has been to examine statistical evidence of gender inequalities between men and women, and most of the data included in the report is provided in a gender disaggregated form, which allows comparisons to be made between boys and girls and men and women.¹ In certain cases data of a different nature, such as data on childcare provision, or gender specific data, such as those on particular diseases or health programmes which affect one sex only, have been included, since these have been deemed to be of significance to the promotion of gender equality, or to the development of equitable provision to meet gender specific needs. The vast majority of tables contained in this report present data at a Scottish level (unless stated otherwise all tables present data for Scotland as a whole). In some cases data disaggregated by local authority area have been included, to illustrate to what extent variation can occur across Scotland, for example, in relation to average wages and the gender pay gap, or in levels of childcare provision, but for reasons of space it has not been possible to include a greater volume of data for regional or local areas within Scotland. There is, however, a considerable volume of gender disaggregated data available for different geographies within Scotland, either in already published form or within datasets which could be further analysed for this purpose. This includes a range of data at local authority level, at health board level, or at local area level, such as that provided within the Scottish Neighbourhood Statistics dataset. Appendix I on key sources of gender disaggregated data provides guidance on key sources of data for different geographies within Scotland. Guidance on sources of gender disaggregated data at Scottish and local level for a range of policy areas is also included in *Gender Statistics: An Evaluation* (Breitenbach, 2006). This report has also aimed to include statistics disaggregated by gender and ethnicity, and gender and disability, wherever possible, and has also commented on age and gender, and gender and socio-economic breakdowns of statistics where appropriate and/or possible. It has not, however, been possible to provide systematically disaggregations of statistics combining such variables, as there are often methodological difficulties (i.e. difficulties arising in the application of research methods for gathering data, or in methods used for the analysis of data) in doing so, as discussed below in the section on multiple discrimination issues.

¹ Such data may be termed ‘sex disaggregated’ statistics, or ‘gender disaggregated’ statistics. Technically speaking ‘sex disaggregated’ is more accurate, since the data are distinguishing men and women by biological sex, rather than ‘gender’, which is defined as social differences between men and women that are learned, changeable over time and which may vary within and between cultures. However, the two terms have come to be used more or less interchangeably.

In the discussion in this report of gendered patterns of behaviour and disadvantage, that is general patterns of behaviour exhibited by men and women or systematic disadvantage for one group as compared to the other, what are being referred to are the behaviours arising from and consequences of socially constructed roles of men and women in general, though individual men and women may not conform to these. In the discussion of gender equality, what is being referred to is a convergence in behaviours and status of men and women in general, or a spectrum of behaviours which overlap without there being a strong divide between men and women as social groups, though there may be a considerable variation in individuals' behaviour. Gender inequalities then are inequalities that arise from the particular constructions of men's and women's social roles in any given society. They are not inequalities that are inherent in biological differences between the sexes themselves, though they have often been thought of as such. Gender is also a concept that is essentially relational i.e. that describes a set of social relationships between men and women. Notwithstanding this, 'gender' has often been used as a synonym for women. The reason for this is that many gender inequalities that currently exist disadvantage women rather than men, and therefore research investigating gender inequalities has tended to focus on the experience of women. This is beginning to change, with a growing body of work researching men's experience from a gender perspective, which seeks to understand how ideas of masculinity shape men's behaviour, for example, in relation to health. Given, however, that women tend to be disadvantaged in relation to men more often than the converse being the case, the presentation and interpretation of data in this report has reflected this general tendency. At the same time where boys and men experience disadvantage this has also been noted.

2. THE GENDER EQUALITY DUTY

In commissioning this report, the Scottish Executive has aimed to provide a detailed picture of patterns of gender difference and inequality in contemporary Scotland, and to provide information and guidance about sources of data on gender issues, in preparation for the Gender Equality Duty, which, at the time of writing, will come into force in April 2007. The Gender Equality Duty requires public authorities to promote gender equality and eliminate sex discrimination. The duty places a legal responsibility on public authorities to demonstrate that they treat men and women fairly, and will affect policy making, public services such as transport, and employment practices such as recruitment and flexible working.

The Equality Act 2006, stipulates that there will be both a general duty and specific gender duties imposed on public authorities. To comply with the general duty, bodies will need to ensure that they are in compliance with the Equal Pay and Sex Discrimination Acts. The general duty also requires bodies to prevent unlawful discrimination and harassment and promote equality of opportunity between women and men when carrying out their functions and activities. The specific duties apply to listed public bodies, and the types of bodies which will be subject to the specific duties on gender equality include: government departments, local authorities, health authorities and trusts, housing bodies, police forces, Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise, passenger transport executives and transport authorities, the higher education funding council, the sports council and a range of cultural bodies.

Public bodies to whom the specific duties will apply will be required to publish and implement gender equality schemes, review and report on schemes, consult employees, service users and others, and take into account information relevant to the impact of policies and practices on gender equality in the workplace and in the delivery of services. It is also

required that gender equality schemes be outcome-focused, and be designed to lead to positive outcomes. This requires the setting of gender equality goals and targets, which should be arrived at through consultation, and through the use of a range of sources of information including data from censuses and other sources of official statistics, employment data about the public body itself, and data from surveys conducted by public bodies. Data gathering and analysis will thus be integral to the implementation of the Gender Equality Duty.

It is also expected that most public authorities will take action on equal pay under their gender equality scheme, and in order to do this, public authorities may need to develop and publish a policy on developing equal pay arrangements between women and men. This implies the collation and publication of data which will indicate changes in the gender pay gap, and the gender balance in different areas of employment and in occupational grades.

Public authorities will also be required to conduct gender impact assessments (GIAs) of the policy underlying all proposed primary legislation and significant secondary legislation. A listed public authority must ensure that its gender equality scheme also sets out the actions it has taken or intends to take to assess the impact of its policies and practices, or their likely impact, on gender equality. In attempting to assess the impact of proposed policies on men and women, as well as conducting consultations, it will be necessary to use data from a range of sources to establish current baselines and to model possible impacts.

For all these processes, evidence gathering is fundamental. This will include relevant statistical and research evidence at national and/or local level as appropriate, as well as evidence from qualitative research, and from consultations. Within this context, Scottish level data can help to establish benchmarks for gender equality goals, while local data can ensure that the goals of specific public bodies address the gender inequalities specific to their area.

The Gender Equality Duty, legislated by the UK government, applies to the Scottish Executive and to a range of public bodies across Scotland. Furthermore, the Scottish Executive aims to promote gender equality through its gender mainstreaming approach, co-ordinated by the Scottish Executive Equality Unit, and policy objectives relevant to gender equality issues are discussed in each chapter of this report. In general, the Scottish Executive aims:

- To promote a better gender balance in public life and within the civil service;
- To improve educational attainment for all and equality of access to education;
- To reduce the gender pay gap, encourage flexible working, and tackle occupational segregation;
- To prevent individuals and families from falling into poverty and to promote routes out of poverty;
- To increase childcare provision, upgrade the skills of the childcare workforce, and provide support to carers;
- To improve health service provision and to improve health;
- To reduce crime and make communities safer places to live and work;
- To raise the quality of homes, build strong sustainable communities, and provide more affordable housing for lower income groups;
- To promote economic growth, social inclusion, health and protection of the environment through a safe, integrated, efficient and effective transport system.

All of these policy aims, whether they entail explicitly stated gender equality objectives or not, have gender implications, given gender differences in experiences and behaviours, and

given persisting gender inequalities. The achievement of all these policy aims also depends on a range of public bodies for their implementation, for example, local authorities, health boards, local enterprise companies, Community Planning Partnerships, and transport partnerships. The information in this report should provide a basis for ensuring that gender is more fully taken into account in future policy development and implementation, and should provide a basis for monitoring and evaluating change.

3. DATA ON MULTIPLE DISCRIMINATION ISSUES

As noted above, this report provides a range of statistical information about social trends affecting men and women and girls and boys in Scotland. It provides an interpretation of the statistical information presented, and summarises key differences between men and women, areas of inequality, and evidence of change. It is recognised that there are a range of other characteristics that, in combination with gender, contribute to different experiences and status, and that, in particular, there are characteristics that may compound inequality or disadvantage experienced on the grounds of gender. These characteristics include ethnicity, disability, socio-economic status, age, urban/rural differences, sexual orientation, and religion. There is, however, no systematic analysis of data combining gender with these other characteristics. In this report, we have aimed to present in particular statistics which provide an analysis of gender and ethnicity and gender and disability, and where these are available they have been included in the relevant chapters. However, these examples are rare as there are often methodological difficulties in producing such disaggregations of statistical data. The key problems with respect to data and key inequalities affecting different groups are briefly discussed below. A more detailed discussion of the methodological problems in providing such data is provided in Appendix II, together with a summary of the key inequalities experienced by minority ethnic groups, disabled people, and people of different religions.

In general, there are considerable methodological challenges to producing disaggregated data for minority ethnic groups in Scotland, because of the small numbers of each group in the population, which are magnified when conducting sample surveys, a problem which becomes more difficult when attempting to carry out a further disaggregation by gender. These challenges cannot be easily resolved, and for the foreseeable future the decennial census will provide the best source of data on minority ethnic groups. Analysis of the 2001 census suggested that minority ethnic groups tend to be disadvantaged in the labour market, experiencing higher levels of unemployment (Scottish Executive, 2004a). Within Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Other South Asian groups, there are high proportions of women who have never worked. There are variations between groups in levels of qualifications and types of employment. There also appears to be some health disadvantages for some minority ethnic groups in particular age groups.

There is a greater volume of data available for disabled people than for minority ethnic groups (see, for example, Scottish Executive, 2004b), but there are also methodological challenges to producing these, as a result of the use of different definitions of disability in different data sources, which means data are often not strictly comparable. In general, definitions of disability are based on an interpretation of the Disability Discrimination Act 1995 and these interpretations have differed historically. Definitions which link disability with long term limiting illness have also been challenged as an inappropriate way to define disability. In this report, given its focus on gender disaggregated statistics from official sources, statistics on gender and disability from official sources, such as those on limiting long term illness have been included, while acknowledging that such terms may be regarded as unsatisfactory. In

general disabled people are disadvantaged in the labour market, in relation to pay, in access to housing and transport, and in levels of income.

With respect to age, age breakdowns are sometimes provided together with gender, though not systematically, and again some examples of such analyses are included in relevant chapters. There can be significant differences between women and men according to age and stage of life course, and these are illustrated in particular with respect to labour market participation, income, and health. A previous analysis of Scottish Household Survey data from 1999 to 2002 indicated a number of gender differences among older people (Raab and MacDonald, 2004). Key findings were that: women living alone were the largest group of people aged 70+; there were differences in employment patterns of men and women over 50, with women being less likely than men to be self-employed and more likely than men to work part-time; women aged 50-64 were more likely to provide care than men in the same age group, while in the over 65 age group men were more likely than women to provide care; older women were less likely to exercise than older men; and that older men were more likely than older women to make journeys. These findings are in line with more recent data included in this report, and some of the patterns of older people's behaviour, such as gender differences in taking exercise or making journeys, are also in line with patterns of behaviour in younger age groups. There is thus scope within existing data sets for further analyses which combine gender and age.

There appear to be very few instances where urban/rural differences are combined with a gender analysis. As is the case with age, however, there is considerable scope for further analyses of existing data sets for this purpose, for example, the Scottish Household Survey and the Labour Force Survey. Furthermore, local profiles exist which include gender disaggregated data at local authority and/or health board level, and which could be combined to provide analyses of differences between urban and rural areas. Such local data include data on population, education, health, employment, earnings, childcare provision, housing and homelessness. Socio-economic status is similarly a category for which little gender disaggregated data is currently published, but which could be provided by further analysis of existing data sets.

Compared to the categories of age, urban/rural geography, or socio-economic status, sexual orientation is a category for which there are no or few sources of quantitative data. In particular there is no official source of quantitative data on sexual orientation, given the sensitivities surrounding survey questions on this topic. The Scottish Executive has, however, sought to investigate appropriate research methodologies on sexual orientation, and to investigate what research priorities are for the lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) community in Scotland (McManus, 2003; McLean and O'Connor, 2003). This research indicated that LGBT organisations had a range of specific concerns across a range of policy areas, including issues such as homophobic bullying at schools and in the workplace, the education of children on prejudice and discrimination, partnership rights, the need for public service provision to be responsive to LGBT needs, and the need for support for LGBT individuals and organisations.

With respect to religion a question on religion was asked for the first time in the 2001 Census, and data on religion is also collected in the Scottish Household Survey. In general, the analysis of 2001 Census data suggests that religious beliefs are likely to be associated with differences in gender roles, including the extent to which women participate in the labour market and the extent to which care for others is provided by family members (Scottish

Executive, 2005). In particular, a substantial proportion of Muslim women had never worked, and Hindu women, older Muslim women, and Sikh men and women were the most likely groups among the population as a whole to report poor health or a disability.

Key inequalities suggested by statistical data on a range of social groups have been briefly summarised above. Such inequalities may be due to a complex combination of factors, such as educational qualifications, access to opportunities for training and employment, quality of health, and socio-economic status. A contributory factor to the disadvantaged position of such social groups is also discrimination, though it may be hard to quantify this, and even to identify where it is occurring. A recent analysis of the Scottish Social Attitudes Survey sought to investigate the prevalence of prejudice and discriminatory attitudes in Scotland, though, as the authors note, this in itself does not provide any measure of the occurrence of acts of discrimination (Bromley and Curtice, 2003). A discriminatory attitude was defined as being:

one that directly or indirectly suggests that some social groups may not be entitled to engage in the full panoply of social, economic and political activities that are thought to be the norm for most citizens. In short, it is an attitude that openly or tacitly legitimates some form of social exclusion.
(Bromley and Curtice, 2003: 6).

In particular, the study analysed discriminatory attitudes towards minority ethnic groups, gay men and lesbians, disabled people, and towards women and gender stereotyping. It was found that people had varying attitudes towards equal opportunities for different groups. With respect to women, 41% of respondents said that equal opportunities had not gone far enough, 48% said they were about right, and 6% said they had gone too far. With respect to disabled people a higher proportion of respondents said equal opportunities had not gone far enough, 58%, while 41% said this of minority ethnic groups, but only 26% in respect of lesbians and gay men. Higher proportions of respondents said of the two latter groups that equal opportunities had gone too far, 18% with respect to minority ethnic groups and 19% with respect to gay men and lesbians. The pattern in relation to groups about whom prejudice was expressed suggested that people are most likely to express prejudice about gay men and lesbians, followed by minority ethnic groups. There was still some evidence of gender stereotyping of women's position in the labour market, but in general discriminatory attitudes in relation to women were much less prevalent, as was also the case with disabled people. As the authors point out this does not necessarily mean that people are less likely to hold discriminatory views about women or disabled people, but that such views are harder to uncover.

4. DATA SOURCES

Since 1999 the provision of gender disaggregated statistics across a range of topics has greatly improved, both for statistics about Scotland as a whole, and for different geographies within Scotland. This is in line with the commitment of Government Statistical Services throughout the UK, given in 1998, to aim 'always to collect and make available statistics disaggregated by gender, except where considerations of practicality or cost outweigh the identified need' (Allin, 2001). This process has been greatly assisted by developments in information technology, and the ease with which statistical data may be made available online. In reviewing gender statistics, these improvements have produced challenges. As gender disaggregated statistics are produced for a wide range of topics relevant to a range of policy areas, they are published in a correspondingly wide range of publications and websites. To identify the range of statistical data available is therefore a time consuming exercise. It is

hoped that by providing guidance to these sources of statistics, the task will be made much easier and quicker for users of gender disaggregated statistics.

A second challenge has been the selection of statistics from the wide range of statistical data potentially available, either already in published form, or capable of being produced from existing data sets. It is the aim of this report to provide an extensive, though not of course comprehensive, selection of gender disaggregated statistics in order both to inform readers about current trends in gender differences and inequalities, and to illustrate the range of data available. The tables included in this report have been produced in a number of ways: some have been reproduced from existing Scottish Executive statistical publications; some have been constructed from published data in Scottish Executive statistical publications, and edited, for example, in order to bring out gender comparisons; others have been provided on request from Scottish Executive statisticians. Where tables are reproduced, or constructed from Scottish Executive statistical publications, a reference to the relevant publication is provided beneath the table. Of data provided on request, some of these are contained in datasets that are available for secondary analysis by public authorities, and academic and other researchers e.g. data from the Labour Force Survey, Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, Census, Scottish Household Survey. In a small number of cases data were provided from administrative sources such as government departments, and are not routinely published or publicly accessible to researchers.

The provision of statistical information necessarily involves reference to technical information concerning survey methods, sample sizes, reliability of data, and so on, and statistics often require caveats as to how they may be interpreted. For example, a particular caveat to be made with gender comparisons, which have typically been represented as percentages of women and men in this report, is that in the case of small numbers of people, percentage comparisons are not meaningful as the percentages may vary enormously as a result of a change representing one or two people (where this is an issue, it is pointed out in the commentary). Within the main body of this report, notes to tables have been confined to key points. Full guidance on technical terms, methods, statistical significance, etc, can be found in the publications from which the statistical data have been derived, while this report contains an Appendix of key technical terms relating to statistical data e.g. economic activity rate, unemployment rate, etc, (Appendix III), and an appendix listing the key sources of data from which tables have been derived (Appendix I).

Each chapter contains a list of references of policy documents, and statistical and research publications relevant to the topic, with website addresses for these publications which are available online. In some cases statistics are available only in the form of online tables, and website addresses have also been provided for these. It should also be pointed out that a very wide range of health statistics are available in electronic form on the ISD website, and only a relatively small selection of these has been included in this report. In general, for each topic area there tend to be regular bulletins and reports published by the Scottish Executive containing gender disaggregated statistics, and also occasional publications, which collate a range of gender disaggregated statistics, or provide in-depth coverage of a particular topic, including a wider range of gender disaggregated statistics than may be published routinely. Users of gender disaggregated statistics will find it necessary to consult all types of publications to identify the range of available gender disaggregated statistics for each topic area. It should be noted that where data are regularly published e.g. annually, quarterly, etc, there may be more up to date statistics available than those published at the time of writing, though every attempt has been made to include the most recent statistics available.

5. USING THE DATA

It is anticipated that the statistical information and guidance on sources of data will be of interest to a range of users, including academic and other researchers, women's organisations, and, in particular, to the public bodies to whom the Gender Equality Duty applies. Guidance is offered in each chapter on key data sources for that topic area, and on possible uses of data in the development of gender equality schemes and monitoring of progress. These examples are only suggestive, and are not intended to be comprehensive. In offering the data and guidance in this report as a key resource for public bodies and others with an interest in the promotion of gender equality, there are a number of points which should be borne in mind:

- The policy context outlined in each chapter refers to the policy objectives of governments at various levels, though primarily of the Scottish Executive, which were current at the time of writing in early 2007. Policy objectives are likely to change over time, whether as a result of new policy development within any given administration, or changes in administrations following elections. However, the recently enacted Gender Equality Duty will remain in force and public bodies will remain responsible for ensuring that gender equality is integral to the fulfilment of policy objectives.
- It has been noted above that over time the statistics contained in this report will be updated in new publications or online data sources, and guidance has been provided on the sources of such data. In general, however, the statistics contained in this report will have a continuing relevance and usefulness for public bodies and other users. This is because the report has provided data indicating statistical trends, wherever possible, and has also provided an interpretative commentary on the trends and patterns indicated by the data. While there is evidence of some changes occurring in the comparative position of men and women in Scotland, these changes have been occurring at a slow pace, and it is unlikely that there will be rapid or radical change in the areas discussed in the report in the near future. The analysis offered by the report is thus likely to remain valid for some time.
- In the conclusion to this report the inter-relatedness of factors contributing to and/or reinforcing gender inequalities is stressed. To fully appreciate the gender equality implications of policies in particular areas, it will often be necessary to consider these in relation to other areas. Thus, reading the introduction and conclusion in conjunction with specific chapters will help identify these inter-relationships, and help identify whether equality schemes in particular areas need to also be informed by information on key trends in related areas.

6. STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

Following this introduction, the report consists of a chapter setting the wider context of demographic and population change, within which changes in gender relations, roles and inequalities should be understood. This is followed by nine chapters on specific topic areas: participation in political and public life; education and training; the labour market; income and wealth; care and caring; health; crime and justice; housing; and transport. Each chapter provides a brief summary of the policy context relevant to the topic area, lists key points outlining comparisons between women and men, outlines key data sources and possible uses of statistical data for the development of gender equality plans, provides a selection of statistical data with commentary, and concludes with a summary of key trends and a discussion of recent relevant research and data gaps. As noted, references to all statistical and other publications follow at the end of each chapter. The report concludes with a brief

summary of key trends, and a brief discussion of the inter-relatedness of factors contributing to gender inequalities. There are three appendices, providing information on key data sources, on methodological issues for analysis of multiple discrimination, and on technical terms.

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CHAPTER ONE POPULATION, HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

This chapter presents data about demographic and population change to set the wider context in which moves towards gender equality are taking place. Greater longevity and better health, an ageing population, and changing patterns of family and household formation, all have an impact on patterns of work, family size, and care giving and receiving within households and families. In turn all these factors crucially inter-relate in structuring patterns of gender difference and inequalities. In this chapter key statistical data on Scottish population and households are presented, disaggregated by gender, and identifying where these shed light on important features and trends in Scottish life. Areas where statistical information is not currently available are also outlined. The chapter includes information about the gender balance in the population structure and trends, and it reviews household structure and partnership formation, fertility, and trends in all of these, reflecting on key demographic trends in family life in Scotland such as ageing, low fertility and migration.

1.1 POLICY CONTEXT

There are a number of demographic issues of concern to policy makers, though these may not all be the object of government initiatives as such. In particular there is concern about an ageing population, low birth rates and migration. At UK level, concern about an ageing population has led to an ongoing debate about raising the age of retirement and reform of the pension system, an area of policy with important gender implications, given that traditionally women and men have retired at different ages, and in the light of women's disadvantage in relation to pension provision.

Concerns about fertility rates have not resulted in specific policies aimed at raising the birth rate, though it is recognised that policies which facilitate a better balance between work and family life are likely to support women and men in both raising children and participating in the labour market. Concerns about attracting the appropriate skills into the labour market are being addressed by the Scottish Executive through its Fresh Talent initiative, launched in 2004 with the aim of encouraging inward migration to improve economic performance and add to the diversity of the population (Scottish Executive, 2004).

Other key demographic trends such as changes in family life, partnership formation and dissolution, have also led to policy and legislative changes. Marriage, civil partnership, cohabitation and divorce have all been subject to law reform recently, most notably in the Civil Partnership Act 2004 and the Family Law (Scotland) Act 2006, both of which have provisions that address some of these structural changes in partnership and parenthood. In relation to marriage, the 2006 Act has removed marriage by cohabitation with habit and repute as a means of constituting a legal marriage. In recognition of increasing unmarried cohabitation rates, the 2006 Act provides for some financial provision on cohabitation breakdown. This Act also reformed divorce law through the reduction of the non-cohabitation periods from two years to one year with consent and from five year to two years, and abolished desertion as a means of demonstrating that a marriage had irretrievably broken down. In recognition of the high proportion of births to parents not married to each other, the 2006 Act gives automatic parental responsibilities and rights to unmarried fathers whose names appear on the child's birth certificate.

1.2 POPULATION, HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

Key points:

- There is a gender gap in the Scottish population, with women outnumbering men by about 7% in 2005. That gender gap is projected to increase slightly to nearly 9% by 2036.
- There are more men than women in all age groups up to age 29 and more women than men in all older age groups.
- There is a gender longevity gap; women's life expectancy at birth in 2003-05 (79.23 years) was 5 years longer than men's (74.24 years).
- Scotland's population is becoming older and is projected to become older still; the gender balance of older age groups is increasingly female.
- The proportion of births to unmarried parents has increased more than five-fold over the last 34 years, from 8% in 1971 to 47% in 2005.
- Just over half of babies born are boys: between 51% and 52% and about 48 to 49% are girls, with this being the case throughout the period 1971-2005.
- The total fertility rate for women in Scotland peaked in the mid 1960s (3.09 in 1964), followed by a sharp decline until the mid-1970s (1.70 in 1977) and slower decline since then to 1.48 in 2002, increasing slightly to 1.62 in 2005.
- The average ages at which women have children has increased, with the average age of mothers being 29.5 years in 2005, compared to 26.1 years in 1977.
- Men are more likely to be single than women, and women are more than three times as likely as men to be widowed, and slightly more likely to be married or divorced.
- The number of marriages has declined and an increasing proportion of marriages involves people who have been previously married and divorced. The proportions of men and women who marry who have been previously married are broadly similar (28% for men and 27% for women).
- In December 2005, the Civil Partnership Act 2004 came into force, creating the status of civil partnerships for same sex couples with the same legal consequences as marriage. Provisional data show that by the end of September 2006, 942 same sex couples (533 male and 409 female) had registered civil partnerships in Scotland.

- The majority of both husbands and wives raise divorce actions on separation grounds, for over 90% of husbands and 74% of wives. Wives are more likely than husbands to use behaviour ‘grounds’ when raising a divorce action (21% of wives compared to 6% of husbands).
- Of working age people, men are more likely than women to live alone, with men making up 56% of such households, while women are far more likely than men to live in single parent households, with women making up 90% of such households in 2005.
- For people above working age, women are more than twice as likely as men to live alone, with women making up 75% of single pensioner households in 2005.

1.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

1.3.1 Key sources of data

The key sources of data on population, households and families are the regular publications of the General Register Office for Scotland and the Scottish Household Survey. The General Register Office for Scotland is responsible for two data sources: vital statistics for Scotland (registering all births and adoptions, deaths, marriages and civil partnerships, divorces) and the Census, which is carried out every 10 years. These statistics are reported in General Register Office for Scotland annual reports, and in reports analysing census data. The Vital Events Reference Tables, accompanying the reports, are available online, and can be used for further statistical analysis. Tables from the Scottish Household Survey are published on an annual basis, including information on households and household structure. Civil judicial statistics also provide some data relevant to divorce. However, these are very limited with respect to gender disaggregated data, and are currently under review.

1.3.2 Possible uses of data

Data on population, households and families provide a key part of the context in which decisions are taken about planning and policies in relation to economic development, service provision, housing provision, transport, etc, and will therefore be relevant to a wide range of public bodies. For example, trends in population, households and families have implications for the size of the labour market and patterns of labour market participation, for pension provision and social care, and for housing provision. Therefore public bodies concerned with these areas of policy should take into account trends in demographic change and the gender implications of such changes. As the proportion of older people grows in relation to those of working age, it will be necessary to maximise the capacity of those of working age to participate in the labour market. Women still form an important source of such labour, both those currently not working, and those in part-time work. National and local economic development strategies should thus give consideration to how to facilitate women’s greater labour market participation. As the dependency ratio increases (the ratio of the retired population to the population of working age) the costs of providing pensions and social care for older people will also increase. In this context it is important to ensure that as many people as possible can build up adequate pension provision during their working lives, and also that there are options for those who wish to extend their working lives. Again facilitating greater participation by women in the labour market, and an increase in women’s full-time work, will contribute to this goal, since this will enable women to make better pension provision for themselves, to avoid poverty in old age, and in general to make a greater contribution to the

economy. With respect to the provision of care, the greater participation of women in the labour market and especially of older women is likely to reduce their capacity to provide informal care. This has implications for the levels of formal care provision that are likely to be needed in the future, as well as for the need to develop a greater range of support measures for informal carers, and for the encouragement of men to take on a greater share of responsibility for caring. Changes in household structure also have implications for housing policy, and in particular suggest the need to provide more accommodation for single people in a range of age groups, including older people and disabled people who are likely to require housing with specific types of adaptations that will enable them to live independently and/or remain in their own homes with care support.

1.4 POPULATION OF SCOTLAND

Since 1900, the population of Scotland has risen steadily from about 4.54 million in 1901-05 to a peak in 1974 of 5.24 million people. Since then it has decreased to 5.05 million in 2002 but has increased slightly in recent years to 5.095 million in 2005, as the data in Table 1.1 below show. Until now, the gender balance of the population as a whole has remained relatively stable over a long period, with women comprising just under 52% and men just over 48% of the population. Since 1971, there have been about 8% more women than men in the population generally.

Table 1.1 Population of Scotland by sex, selected years from 1971 to 2005

Year	Both Sexes (000s)	Males (000s)	Females (000s)	% Males	% Females	Excess % of women to men
1971	5,235.6	2,515.7	2,719.9	48	52	8
1974	5,240.8	2,519.3	2,721.5	48	52	8
1975	5,232.4	2,516.3	2,716.1	48	52	8
1980	5,193.9	2,500.9	2,693.0	48	52	8
1985	5,127.9	2,469.5	2,658.4	48	52	8
1990	5,081.3	2,443.9	2,637.4	48	52	8
1995	5,103.7	2,453.4	2,650.3	48	52	8
2000	5,062.9	2,431.9	2,631.0	48	52	8
2001	5,064.2	2,433.7	2,630.5	48	52	8
2002	5,054.8	2,431.8	2,623.0	48	52	8
2003	5,057.4	2,434.6	2,622.8	48	52	8
2004	5,078.4	2,446.2	2,632.2	48	52	8
2005	5,094.8	2,456.1	2,638.7	48	52	7

Source: derived from Table 1.1: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) Vital Events Reference Tables 2005, <http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>.

Table 1.2 below indicates that the population is projected to increase gradually to 5.125 million in 2022 and then decline slightly to 5.086 million in 2029. The population gender gap is projected to rise slightly, with the excess proportion of women to men projected to increase over the next 40 years to about 10%.

Table 1.2 Projected population by sex, selected years (millions): 2004-2044

	2004	2005	2010	2015	2020	2025	2029	2036	2041	2044
All	5,078	5,097	5,118	5,125	5,128	5,114	5,086	4,997	4,913	4,857
males	2,446	2,456	2,470	2,473	2,472	2,460	2,442	2,391	2,347	2,318
females	2,632	2,641	2,649	2,652	2,656	2,654	2,644	2,605	2,566	2,539
Excess % of women to men	8	8	7	7	7	8	8	9	9	10

Source: Commissioned analysis by General Register Office for Scotland, 2006

Table 1.3 below, derived from the Mid-2005 Population Estimates Scotland gives a statistical snapshot of the age/sex structure of the Scottish population in 2005. This population profile shows that there are more males than females in the younger age groups and more females than males in the older age groups. It shows that the ratio of men to women generally declines with age, with men outnumbering women up to the age of 29, and the reverse for those aged 30 or more. For those aged 75 or over, there are almost twice as many women as men.

Table 1.3 Gender balance of the estimated Scottish population by age groups, 2005

Adult population (2005)				
Age	Total persons	Male	Female	Sex ratio (M/F)
Under 16	928,994	475,538	453,456	1.05
16-29	893,634	451,768	441,866	1.02
30 to 44	1,124,321	541,622	582,699	0.93
45 to 59	1,041,834	510,824	531,010	0.96
60 to 74	729,620	339,246	390,374	0.87
75 plus	376,397	137,111	239,286	0.57
All	5,094,800	2,456,109	2,638,691	0.93

Source: derived from Table 1, General Register Office for Scotland (2006b) *Mid-2005 Population Estimates Scotland*. <http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/files/05mype-cahb-booklet.pdf>.

1.5 MIGRATION

While Scotland has historically experienced population loss from net outward migration, in recent years the migration pattern has reversed to one of net inward migration (ESRC, 2004). In the 2003 Annual Report, the Registrar General for Scotland included a particular focus on migration in Scotland (General Register Office for Scotland, 2004), which indicated that younger people, in their late teens and early to mid- twenties, are most likely to be migrants and that male and female patterns of migration by age are broadly similar, although there are more female than male inward and outward migrants. This peak in migration for both men and women in this age group is likely to be due to migration for higher education and for employment following graduation. A recent in-depth statistical analysis of migration based on 2001 census information (Fleming, 2005) did not contain migration statistics in gender disaggregated form, but the data would support a gender disaggregated analysis.

1.6 LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH FOR MEN AND WOMEN

There is a gender longevity gap; women's life expectancy at birth is 5 years longer than men's. According to the most recent statistics, for 2003 to 2005, female life expectancy at birth is 79.23 and male life expectancy is 74.24, as Table 1.4 below shows. However, the gap narrows as people age, so that women aged 65 can expect to live another 18.34 years, and men another 15.48 years.

Table 1.4 Life expectancy, by sex and age, Scotland 2003-05

Life expectancy at age	Males (years)	Females (years)
0	74.24	79.23
1	73.66	78.59
5	69.75	74.66
10	64.79	69.69
15	59.84	64.74
20	55.03	59.84
25	50.31	54.95
30	45.59	50.06
35	40.93	45.21
40	36.32	40.42
45	31.77	35.70
50	27.35	31.10
55	23.09	26.63
60	19.07	22.36
65	15.48	18.34
70	12.21	14.62
75	9.37	11.24
80	7.04	8.38
85	5.20	6.02

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006c) *Life Expectancy for Administrative Areas within Scotland, 2003-2005*, <http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/life-expectancy/le2003-05/index.html>

There have been significant increases in both men's and women's life expectancy at birth since 1861. Since 1980-82, it has increased by about 5 years for men and 4 years for women, as shown in Table 1.5 below.

Table 1.5 Life expectancy at birth, by sex, selected periods 1861-70 to 2003-05

Year	Males	Females
1861-70	40.3	43.9
1910-12	50.1	53.2
1942-44	59.8	64.6
1950-52	64.4	68.7
1960-62	66.2	72.0
1970-72	67.3	73.7
1980-82	69.1	75.3
1990-92	71.4	77.1
2000-2002	73.3	78.8
2001-2003	73.5	78.9
2002-2004	73.8	79.1
2003-2005	74.2	79.3

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006c) *Life Expectancy for Administrative Areas within Scotland, 2003-2005*, <http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/life-expectancy/le2003-05/>.

Scotland's population is becoming older and is projected to become older still. It is estimated that the number of people of pensionable age will increase by 35 per cent from 0.97 million in 2004 to 1.31 million in 2031. The population aged 65 and over is projected to increase

between 2004 and 2031 by just over 70 per cent for men, and by just under 50 percent for women. Their share of the total population will almost double over that period, from 16% to 29% of the total population. The dependency ratio (the ratio of the population below and above the population of working age) is projected to increase from 60% in 2004 to 71% in 2031 and to 75% in 2044. (General Register Office for Scotland, 2005a).

1.7 BIRTHS

One of the key demographic trends in Scotland has been the sharp decline in fertility since the baby boom of the mid 1960s.

Table 1.6 Number of live births in Scotland 1971-2003, by sex and percentage

Year	Total	Males	Females	Males per 1,000 females	% male births	% female births
1971	86,728	44,467	42,261	1,052	51.3	48.7
1972	78,550	40,280	38,270	1,053	51.3	48.7
1973	74,392	38,601	35,791	1,079	51.9	48.1
1974	70,093	35,824	34,269	1,045	51.1	48.9
1975	67,943	35,017	32,926	1,064	51.5	48.5
1976	64,895	33,501	31,394	1,067	51.6	48.4
1977	62,342	31,993	30,349	1,054	51.3	48.7
1978	64,295	33,059	31,236	1,058	51.4	48.6
1979	68,366	35,351	33,015	1,071	51.7	48.3
1980	68,892	35,395	33,497	1,057	51.4	48.6
1981	69,054	35,283	33,771	1,045	51.1	48.9
1982	66,196	33,911	32,285	1,050	51.2	48.8
1983	65,078	33,656	31,422	1,071	51.7	48.3
1984	65,106	33,144	31,962	1,037	50.9	49.1
1985	66,676	34,120	32,556	1,048	51.2	48.8
1986	65,812	33,874	31,938	1,061	51.5	48.5
1987	66,241	33,970	32,271	1,053	51.3	48.7
1988	66,212	34,060	32,152	1,059	51.4	48.6
1989	63,480	32,504	30,976	1,049	51.2	48.8
1990	65,973	33,898	32,075	1,057	51.4	48.6
1991	67,024	34,419	32,605	1,056	51.4	48.6
1992	65,789	33,610	32,179	1,044	51.1	48.9
1993	63,337	32,374	30,963	1,046	51.1	48.9
1994	61,656	31,399	30,257	1,038	50.9	49.1
1995	60,051	30,652	29,399	1,043	51.0	49.0
1996	59,296	30,523	28,773	1,061	51.5	48.5
1997	59,440	30,516	28,924	1,055	51.3	48.7
1998	57,319	29,496	27,823	1,060	51.5	48.5
1999	55,147	28,246	26,901	1,050	51.2	48.8
2000	53,076	27,196	25,880	1,051	51.2	48.8
2001	52,527	26,786	25,741	1,041	51.0	49.0
2002	51,270	26,218	25,052	1,047	51.1	48.9
2003	52,432	26,906	25,526	1,054	51.3	48.7
2004	53,957	27,769	26,188	1,060	51.5	48.5
2005	54,386	28,083	26,303	1,068	51.6	48.4

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*,

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>.

Table 1.6 above shows the numbers and percentages of male and female births. The number of births in Scotland has decreased from 86,728 in 1971 to 51,270 in 2002, a decline of almost 40% over that period and the lowest number since civil registration began in 1855, but the number has increased slightly since to 53,957 in 2004 and 54,386 in 2005 (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006a). The proportion of births to unmarried parents has also increased more than five-fold over the same period, from 8.1% in 1971 to 47.1% in 2005. As Table 1.6 above also indicates, there has been a relatively steady pattern of between 51% and 52% of births who are boys and about 48 to 49% who are girls. In common with the typical pattern for developed countries, there is a consistent pattern of more male to female births that has fluctuated between 3.7% and 7.1% over the reported period of 35 years.

1.8 FERTILITY RATES

Changing fertility patterns are amongst the key demographic changes of recent years, and these include more births outside marriage, later parenthood, fewer children and smaller families. Fertility rates have fluctuated, both up but mainly down and stand well below population replacement levels. In this section, data are presented about the following fertility rates and trends for women: fertility rates (age-specific) for women; trends in mothers' ages at first birth, and trends in average ages of mothers.

There are a variety of measurements of women's fertility rates. The simplest is the crude fertility rate, which is calculated as the number of live births per 1,000 of the total population. Since this measure is not sensitive to the age/gender structure of the population, demographers prefer other measures, such as the *general fertility rate* (GFR) which is based on the numbers of women of childbearing age and the *total fertility rate* (TFR) (General Register Office for Scotland, 2005b). The general fertility rate, i.e. the number of births per 1000 women aged 15-44 in Scotland, has declined since 1951, falling sharply from a peak of nearly 100 in 1962 until the mid-1970s, and more slowly since then to less than 50 in 2001, half the peak level, although it has increased slightly to 51.5 in 2005 (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006d). Not only has fertility declined, but the average age at which women have children has increased. Teenage fertility has been gradually declining since the 1970s, births to mothers in their twenties have more than halved since the early 1960s, and births to women in their thirties increased gradually since the mid 1970s. Consequently the average age of all mothers has increased: to 29.5 in 2005, compared with 27.4 in 1991, 26.1 in 1977, and 27.4 in 1964 (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006d).

A preferred measure of fertility used in demographic research is the *Total fertility rate (TFR)*, defined by the Registrar General as: 'a commonly used summary measure of fertility levels calculated by summing the age specific rates for a single year'. It gives the average number of children that a group of women would expect to have if they experienced the observed age-specific fertility rates in each of their childbearing years. For a population to replace itself, the TFR needs to be around 2.1. The TFR for women in Scotland since 1951 shows a period of rising fertility until the mid 1960s (3.09 in 1964), followed by a sharp decline until the mid-1970s (1.7 in 1977) and slower decline since then to 1.48 in 2002, increasing slightly to 1.62 in 2005 (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006d).

Finally, there is the average completed family size of different age cohorts, a measure that is better able to reflect than the TFR whether declining fertility is due to delayed childbearing. Vital statistical evidence shows that there has been a decline in average fertility for younger cohorts, e.g. those born in 1976 compared to those born in 1951. Younger cohorts have fewer

children by age 30 than their older counterparts, so that women born in 1971 have about 0.6 fewer children at age 30 than those born in 1951.

While fertility measures and analysis for women are ubiquitous in demographic research, the same cannot be said for measuring men's fertility, that is, measuring how many children they have fathered. Male fertility is not generally a topic for the systematic collection of vital statistics, such as the number of children men have fathered, with what spacing and at what ages, and therefore a gender comparison is not possible. Thus a rounded picture of the fertility behaviour of the Scottish population as a whole or a gender comparison of fertility behaviour cannot be given.

1.9 POPULATION BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

There are noticeable gender differences in the legal marital status profiles of men and women in Scotland. As Table 1.7 below shows, men are more likely than women to be single, and women are more than three times as likely as men to be widowed, which is a reflection of the higher proportion of women in the older age groups. Women are also slightly more likely than men to be married or divorced.

Table 1.7 Scottish population by sex and marital status, 2005

	Total	Single	Married	Widowed
Males	2,456,109	1,186,203	1,054,700	80,592
Females	2,638,691	1,103,226	1,073,209	276,375

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*.

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>

Table 1.8 below shows how the marital status of men and women compare at different stages of the lifecourse.

Table 1.8 Population by sex, age group and marital status, Scotland, 2005

Males					
	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced
All ages	2,456,109	1,186,203	1,054,700	80,592	134,614
16-29	451,768	418,037	29,934	111	3,686
30-44	541,622	191,098	295,671	1,678	53,175
45-64	641,888	75,781	483,683	15,687	66,737
65 and over	345,293	25,749	245,412	63,116	11,016
Females					
	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced
All ages	2,638,691	1,103,226	1,073,209	276,375	185,881
16-29	441,866	389,686	48,629	250	3,301
30-44	582,699	164,759	352,340	4,602	60,998
45-64	672,869	54,434	478,684	44,413	95,338
65 and over	487,801	40,891	193,556	227,110	26,244

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*.

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>

Table 1.9 below shows the marital status by sex of the adult population as percentages, showing that men are more likely than women to be married or cohabiting (66% compared to 57%) or single (23% compared to 19%), but women are more likely than men to be formerly married, either because they are widowed, separated or divorced (43% compared to 34%).

Table 1.9 Marital status by sex of adult population, 2005

	Male	Female	All
Column percentages			
Married	57	49	53
Cohabiting	9	8	9
Single/never married	23	19	21
Widowed	5	13	9
Divorced	4	7	5
Separated	2	4	3
All	100	100	100
Base	5,968	8,102	14,070

Source: Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

1.10 MARRIAGE, CIVIL PARTNERSHIP, DIVORCE AND COHABITATION

From the ages of 16 to 29, more women than men marry in each age group, but the pattern is reversed from age 30, where there are more men than women who marry in each age group, as Table 1.10 shows.

Table 1.10 Marriages, by sex and age group, Scotland, 2005

	All ages	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55+
Males	30,881	140	2,284	6,981	7,516	5,062	3,328	2,187	1,401	1,982
Females	30,881	392	4,104	8,339	7,016	4,315	2,768	1,780	1,082	1,085

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*
<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>

The number of marriages in Scotland has declined to 30,881 marriages in 2005, substantially fewer than the more than 42,000 marriages in 1971 (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006a). As Table 1.11 below shows, since 1971, an increasing proportion of marriages involve men and women who have been previously married and divorced, over one quarter in 2005. The proportions of men and women are broadly similar (29 % for men and 27% for women).

Table 1.11 Marriages, percentages by marital status of persons marrying, by sex Scotland, 1971 to 2005

Percentage of males marrying who were:			
Year	Bachelors	Widowers	Divorcees
1971-80	86	4	11
1981-90	79	3	18
1991-2000	72	3	25
1995	72	3	25
2000	70	2	28
2005	69	2	29
Percentage of females marrying who were:			
	Spinsters	Widows	Divorcees
1971-80	86	3	10
1981-90	80	3	17
1991-2000	73	2	24
1995	73	2	25
2000	71	2	27
2005	71	2	27

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>.

Same sex relationships have become increasingly visible and have become more socially acceptable than in the past. In 2001, the Census in Scotland reported that about 2% of the 163,434 cohabiting couple families, or about 3,300 couples were of the same sex (General Register Office for Scotland, 2003). It is not reported what proportions were male or female couples. This information was not recorded in earlier censuses. The Civil Partnership Act 2004 created from December 2005 the status of civil partnerships for same sex couples with the same legal consequences as marriage. Provisional data show that by the end of September 2006, 942 same sex couples (533 male and 409 female) had registered civil partnerships in Scotland.

The number of divorces in 2005 was 10,940. Since the peak level of divorces in 1985 of 13,373, the number of divorces has fluctuated at around 11,000 a year, as Table 1.12 below shows. Of course, divorce statistics do not give a complete picture of the rate of relationship breakdown, particularly in light of high levels of unmarried cohabitation. Statistical information about the rate of cohabitation breakdown is not available.

Table 1.12 Divorces in Scotland, 1971-2005

	Year								
	1971-1975	1976-1980	1981-1985	1986-1990	1991-1995	1996-2000	2003	2004	2005
Number of divorcees	6,604	9,067	11,942	12,067	12,609	11,984	10,928	11,227	10,940

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>.

Under the Divorce (Scotland) Act 1976, the irremediable breakdown of the marriage became the sole ground for divorce, and this can be proved in one of five ways: by non-cohabitation for two years with the consent of both parties, by non-cohabitation for five years, adultery, behaviour and desertion. The Family Law (Scotland) Act 2006, which came into force in May 2006, reduced the non-cohabitation periods from two years to one year with consent and from five years to two years, and abolished desertion as a means of demonstrating that a marriage

had irretrievably broken down. Table 1.13 below presents trends in the grounds for divorce and shows that the great majority of divorces now proceed on the basis of non-cohabitation, mainly on the basis of two years non-cohabitation.

Table 1.13 Grounds for divorce, under the Divorce (Scotland) Act 1976, selected years 1981 to 2005

Year	Total	Ground for divorce							All grounds for divorce	Nullity of marriage
		Adultery	Behaviour	Desertion	Non-cohabitation		Other grounds			
					2 years and consent	5 years				
1981	9,881	1,703	4,133	230	2,438	1,369	2	9,875	6	
1985	13,373	1,760	5,020	120	4,665	1,791	15	13,371	2	
1989	11,659	1,291	3,532	100	5,076	1,632	22	11,653	6	
1991	12,399	1,198	3,688	82	5,508	1,919	0	12,395	4	
1995	12,249	956	3,203	72	5,846	2,166	0	12,243	6	
1999	11,864	770	2,611	18	5,908	2,553	0	11,860	4	
2001	10,631	473	1,639	24	5,942	2,552	1	10,631	0	
2003	10,928	401	1,537	23	6,014	2,950	2	10,927	1	
2004	11,227	413	1,546	15	6,118	3,130	4	11,226	1	
2005	10,940	327	1,344	17	5,985	3,262	4	10,939	1	

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006a) *Vital Events Reference Tables 2005*

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>

Table 1.14 below, based on the most recently available statistics in 2002, shows the grounds upon which husbands and wives each raise divorce actions. The majority of both husbands and wives raise divorce actions on separation grounds, for over 90% of husbands and 74% of wives. This trend is consistent with the policy objective of encouraging ‘no fault’ means of proving marital breakdown since it is thought that this is less likely to generate further conflict and ill-feeling between the parties. So called ‘fault’ grounds constitute less than 20% of divorces, although wives are more likely than husbands to use behaviour ‘grounds’ when raising a divorce action (21% of wives compared to 6% of husbands).

Table 1.14 Sheriff court divorce actions grounds by sex of pursuer, 2002

Action brought by	Husband	Wife	Total
Column percentages			
Adultery	4	4	4
Behaviour	6	21	15
Desertion	0.2	1	0.3
2 year separation & consent	60	54	56
5 year separation	31	20	24
Other	0.2	0.1	0.2
Total	100	100	100
Base	3,972	6,718	10,690

Source: derived from Table 6.3, *Civil Judicial Statistics Scotland 2002*.

Cohabitation has become more commonplace and more socially acceptable than in the past. The proportion of cohabiting couples rose between 1991 and 2001 from 4% to 7% of couples (Harvie-Clark, 2005). In 2001, there were 163,434 ‘cohabiting couple’ family households in Scotland. Of these, 62,443 (38%) had one or more dependent children (General Register Office for Scotland, 2003). The Family Law (Scotland) Act 2006 extends some of the legal protection available on marriage breakdown to cohabitants by making provision for cohabitants

to claim financial provision in some circumstances on relationship breakdown and separation. (Harvie-Clark, 2005). The Scottish Social Attitudes Survey 2000 found that just under one quarter (22%) of married respondents had previously cohabited, suggesting that cohabitation is often a prelude to marriage (Barlow, 2002). This was even more likely to be so for younger (under 35) married people, over half of whom (51%) had previously cohabited, suggesting that cohabitation has become the normal first stage of partnership formation.

1.11 HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE

The type of households in which men and women live is summarised in Table 1.15 below. Of working age people, men are more likely than women to live alone or in a small adult household (of two adults and no children), and women are far more likely than men to live in single parent households. For those above working age, women are more than twice as likely as men to live alone.

Table 1.15 Household type ⁽¹⁾ by sex of adult population, 2005

	Male	Female	All
Column percentages			
Single adult	13	8	10
Small adult	20	17	19
Single parent	1	6	4
Small family	14	15	15
Large family	10	9	10
Large adult	17	14	15
Older smaller	19	16	17
Single pensioner	6	14	10
All	100	100	100
<i>Base</i>	<i>5,968</i>	<i>8,102</i>	<i>14,070</i>

Source: Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/140387/0034518.pdf>.

Note (1): The Scottish Household Survey uses eight household types defined as follows:

A **single adult** household contains one adult of non-pensionable age and no children.

A **single parent** household contains one adult of any age and one or more children.

A **single pensioner** household contains one adult of pensionable age and no children. Pensionable age is 60 for women and 65 for men.

A **small family** household contains two adults of any age and one or two children.

An **older smaller** household contains one adult of non-pensionable age and one of pensionable age and no children, or two adults of pensionable age and no children.

A **large adult** household contains three or more adults and no children.

A **small adult** household contains two adults of non-pensionable age and no children.

A **large family** household contains two adults of any age and three or more children, or three or more adults of any age and one or more children.

The Scottish Household Survey collects information about the gender of the highest income householder by household type, as shown in Table 1.16 below.

Table 1.16 Sex of highest income householder by household type, 2005

	Single adult	Small adult	Single parent	Small family	Large family	Large adult	Older smaller	Single pensioner	All
Column percentages									
Male	56	65	10	76	74	72	78	25	59
Female	44	35	90	24	26	28	22	75	41
All	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<i>Base</i>	2,460	2,630	888	2,085	1,071	1,412	2,341	2,508	15,395

Source: Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/140387/0034518.pdf>.

According to household projections carried out by the General Register Office for Scotland (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006e), the number of households is expected to increase over the next twenty years, mainly because of increases in the numbers of people living alone or in smaller households. Also projected is an increase in the number of households with older people aged 60 or more. It is predicted that the proportion of households in which people live alone will increase from 34% in 2004 to 42% in 2024, with an even greater increase in the number of men living alone. There will be a particular concentration of one person households in Scottish cities of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and Dundee, where such households are expected to comprise between 44% to 52% of all households (General Register Office for Scotland, 2006e). Lone parent households, of one adult (the great majority of whom are women) and dependent children are projected to increase from 150,000 to 200,000 over the same period.

1.12 SUMMARY

This chapter has broadly outlined the structure of the Scottish population on the one hand, and household and family structure on the other hand. They are closely interrelated, and as the statistical data presented show, gender is a key dimension for understanding them. The Scottish demographic profile structures patterns of gender difference and inequalities and provides the context for all of the gender equality themes considered in this report. However, recent population, household and family changes provide not only context but also present challenges themselves for social and family policies.

There are a number of key demographic trends in Scotland with significant gender dimensions, such as changes in family life, partnership formation and dissolution, and parenthood (Morrison et al, 2004; Wasoff and Morrison, 2005). These key trends include changes in family life, partnership formation and dissolution, and parenthood. With respect to patterns of family formation and family life trends include the following: more people are single; marriage is occurring later; fewer people are marrying; more people are cohabiting; there is more marriage and relationship breakdown; and there are more lone mothers. There are also more diverse household forms, and more frequent transitions between different forms of household, and there is greater visibility of same-sex couples and same-sex couple households. More births occur outside marriage, and parenthood occurs at a later age, if at all. In common with most EU countries, the fertility rate in Scotland is low and below replacement level. There is an ageing population, with people enjoying greater longevity, but which also means that dependency ratios (i.e. the ratio of the non-working age population to the working age population) will increase, with a smaller proportion of the population of working age. Three demographic issues in particular are prompting the concern and attention of policy makers in Scotland: an ageing population, low birth rates and migration (ESRC, 2004). These three themes formed the basis for a two-year research programme on Scottish

demographic trends, funded collaboratively by the Scottish Executive and the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC). While none of the funded projects had a specific focus on gender differences, all will produce gender disaggregated and gender relevant data.

While greater longevity and better health in later life are doubtless major social achievements, an ageing and possibly declining population can have profound social consequences and raise serious policy issues for pensions, employment policies, housing, social services, health and social care, the economy and for social solidarity across generations. A 'greying electorate', more likely to vote than younger age groups, is also likely to affect the political landscape. A major policy discussion across the UK is currently underway, in response to the Turner report on the UK pension system and the pension reforms needed to address the changing dependency ratio and to support the gains of greater longevity with sustainable pension arrangements (Pensions Commission, 2005). In relation to care needs in later life, the Sutherland Report (Royal Commission on Long-Term Care, 1999) prompted debate across the UK on the financing of long term care of the elderly. In Scotland, this resulted in the establishment of the Scottish Commission for the Regulation of Care and the policy of the new Scottish Parliament of financing personal care for the elderly from general taxation, an early example of policy divergence between Holyrood and Westminster.

Policymakers concerned about population decline are grappling with how public policy can or should influence inward migration and fertility trends. One key policy response since its formal launch in 2004 to encourage inward migration and decelerate or reverse population decline has been the Fresh Talent Initiative, although its explicit aims are stated as 'helping the country's economic performance and adding to the diversity of the population' (Scottish Executive, 2004). Developing pro-natalist policies that are compatible with gender equality in the public and private spheres combined with high levels of female labour market participation presents considerable challenges for policymakers. This is not helped by the fact that statistical information about male fertility is notably lacking, as is the research evidence about how *couples* make decisions about having children, or having more children, the perceived social risks associated with childbearing and how having children fits into the context of couples' wider family life, work commitments and aspirations, and social networks. Although there is evidence that fathers participate in family life more than in the past, and that gender inequalities in relation to childcare are not as great as previously, there remains a major gender childcare gap with considerable cross-national variation in the amount of childcare performed by men (Smith, 2007). This theme is developed in Chapter 6. In addition to other policy objectives (see Chapter 4), labour market policies, and work/life balance policies in particular, though not explicitly cast as pro-natalist policies, are thought by many to be linked to fertility decision-making and behaviour, (Castles, 2003; Sleebos, 2003; Dey, 2006; Simpson, 2006; Jamieson et al, 2005).

Some of the wide-reaching changes in partnership and parenting practices and patterns have been recognized by important reforms of family law in Scotland such as those in the Children (Scotland) Act 1995, the Civil Partnership Act 2004 and the Family Law (Scotland) Act 2006 (Wasoff and Martin, 2004; Griffiths and Edwards, 2006). The Children (Scotland) Act 1995 changed the previous legal concepts of custody and access to residence and contact, and makes clear that when parents divorce and a child lives primarily with a resident parent, the non-resident parent continues to have parental responsibilities and rights, including the responsibility to maintain contact where that would be in the child's best interests. The Civil Partnership Act 2004 creates the status of civil partnership for same sex couples, with the same legal consequences as marriage. The Family Law (Scotland) Act 2006 gives the courts

power to award financial provision on cohabitation breakdown in some instances. In recognition of the high proportion of births outwith marriage, this Act builds on the provisions of the 1995 Act to extend automatic parental responsibilities and rights to unmarried fathers whose names appear on the child's birth certificate.

However more statistical information and evidence is needed about the impact of these changes in partnership and parenthood both for the individuals directly concerned and the wider society. Research from other jurisdictions shows that divorce has different social and economic impacts on men and women (Kiernan and Mueller, 1998; Ermisch, 1989). But in Scotland, there are not any recent gender disaggregated statistics on men and women who divorce, and the outcomes for them and for their children. Nor is statistical information collected about the outcomes of court awards for financial provision, the division of matrimonial property, or residence and contact for children. There are possibilities for improvement on the horizon. A review of Civil Judicial Statistics for Scotland, last published in 2002, is currently underway, and it seems possible for this important administrative data source to be developed so that routine information about the operation of the family law system, and the three key statutes outlined above in particular, is regularly collected, published and made available to the wider research community, so that the system itself is better understood.

While gaps in the statistical and research evidence base exist, major improvements have already been made to the supply, scope and accessibility of both cross sectional and longitudinal sample surveys for Scotland, through which much more can be learned about the issues discussed in this chapter (Williamson, 2006). Researchers are now much better placed to look at issues of population, family and household structure, trends and transitions through secondary statistical analysis of datasets such as the Scottish Household Survey, the British Household Panel Survey with its boosted Scottish sample, the Scottish Longitudinal Study (Longitudinal Studies Centre Scotland 2007), and for men and women with young children, the Millennium Cohort Study, a UK longitudinal survey with a boosted Scottish sample, and Growing up in Scotland, the early years longitudinal survey. All of these data sources can support rich, gender disaggregated, analyses that can enlarge understanding of the gender dimensions of Scottish life. It is for the research and policy communities to take advantage of these possibilities.

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CHAPTER TWO PARTICIPATION IN POLITICAL AND PUBLIC LIFE

Women and men participate in political and public life in a number of ways, from holding office as political representatives to exercising citizenship rights such as voting and to taking part in community and voluntary organisations. While those holding political office and occupying leadership positions at different levels of government are most visible in decision-making processes which influence policy making, people in senior and management positions across a wide range of public, private and voluntary sector organisations also exercise power and influence in shaping society. This chapter therefore outlines differences in patterns of participation in political and public life between women and men. It also examines evidence concerning women's and men's perceptions of politics and government.

2.1 POLICY CONTEXT

2.1.1 Political representation

The aim of changing the gender balance of political representation by increasing women's representation in political institutions has gained support in recent years through the efforts of a number of political parties to introduce measures to do so. In 2002 the UK government passed the Sex Discrimination (Election Candidates) Act which enabled political parties to adopt positive measures to improve the gender balance of candidates. Any further change in this direction, however, remains a matter for political parties rather than for government action.

In legislating for change to the electoral system for local government in Scotland, through the Local Governance (Scotland) Act 2004, the Scottish Executive also took account of the need to widen access to political representation at council level. In the elections in 2007 a Single Transferable Vote system of proportional representation for local government will be in place, and it is expected that this will result in a greater diversity of representation in terms of which parties candidates will represent, though this unlikely to produce greater diversity in terms of gender or ethnicity, for example, without parties consciously adopting strategies to ensure diversity in selection of candidates. The Widening Access to Council Membership Progress Group has made recommendations on how council membership might attract a wider range of people, though it acknowledges that changes may be longer term. These recommendations include the need for lead bodies to consider issues of diversity, and for equalities to be mainstreamed into councillor's role descriptions (Scottish Executive, 2005a).

2.1.2 Public appointments

The Scottish Executive is committed to encouraging a more diverse range of people to apply to serve on the boards of Non-Departmental Public Bodies (NDPBs). As a result of the Public Appointments and Public Bodies etc (Scotland) Act 2003 a separate Commissioner for Public Appointments in Scotland (CPAS) has been established. The role and responsibilities of the Commissioner are to regulate and monitor the ways in which ministerial appointments are made to the boards of Scotland's public bodies, with one of the Commissioner's key functions being to promote diversity in public appointments. To achieve this the Commissioner and the Scottish Executive, the Scottish Parliament and other organisations are drawing up a diversity strategy.

2.1.3 Decision-making in public, private and voluntary sector organisations

In general these areas remain outside the scope of government action, with the exception of the judiciary. The Scottish Executive has made a commitment to putting the Judicial Appointments Board on a statutory basis, with consultation about this ongoing at the time of writing. The intention of this is to reaffirm commitment to an open and fair appointments process to replace the traditional practice of taking informal soundings. Similarly, the Scottish Executive has given a commitment that recruitment procedures for the lay justice role will be rigorous and transparent.

2.1.4 Participation in community and voluntary activity

The Scottish Executive recognises that while volunteering is essentially an individual activity, government has an important role to play in enabling a strong culture of volunteering to develop. In setting out its Volunteering Strategy (Scottish Executive, 2004) it particularly stressed the need for volunteering to include those from under-represented groups such as unemployed, disabled and poor people. In particular the strategy emphasised measures to facilitate the greater involvement of young people in volunteering.

2.1.5 Consultation with women's organisations

One of the key aims of the Scottish Executive Equality Unit is to facilitate consultation with disadvantaged and excluded groups, and a range of mechanisms have been created to facilitate consultation between government and women's organisations, ethnic minority organisations, disabled people's organisations, lesbian and gay organisations, and faith organisations. With respect to women's organisations consultations have taken place with, initially the Women in Scotland Consultative Forum set up in 1998, and subsequently with the Scottish Women's Convention, which was established in 2003.

2.2 WOMEN AND MEN IN POLITICAL AND PUBLIC LIFE

Key points:

- In 2006, 14% of MPs for Scottish constituencies in the UK Parliament were women and 86% were men.
- In 2006, 39% of MSPs in the Scottish Parliament were women and 61% were men.
- In 2006, 29% of MEPs from Scotland were women and 71% were men.
- In 2003, at the most recent council elections, 22% of those elected as councillors were women and 78% were men.
- At the beginning of 2007, 19% of local council leaders were women and 81% were men, while 13% of local authority Chief Executives were women and 87% were men.

- In 2006, 34% of appointments to Scottish Executive sponsored non-departmental public bodies were women and 17% of chairs of such bodies were women.
- In 2005, women and men participated in voluntary activities in very similar proportions, 21% of women and 19% of men.

2.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

2.3.1 Key sources of data

The key sources of data on the gender balance in political representation are the House of Commons, the Scottish Parliament, the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA) and the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC). Data on voting patterns and attitudes to politics are available from MORI surveys and the Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Data on volunteering are available from the Scottish Household Survey, although the questions have varied over time, and the data for different years are therefore not strictly comparable. In the past many of these data have not been routinely collated and published. For example, the 2003 COSLA survey of councillors was the first of its kind, providing a more detailed analysis of the background of councillors and of various aspects of their council work, including a gender breakdown of many of these factors. Data on public appointments are currently published only in very brief summary form, and more detailed statistics have been available only occasionally. Selected data from the Scottish Social Attitudes Survey and Scottish Household Survey have been published in gender disaggregated form, and there is more scope for gender analysis of such survey data. Some of the data in this chapter was specifically requested from the Scottish Executive for the report.

2.3.2 Possible uses of data

It is to be anticipated that the introduction of the Gender Duty will result in regular publication of data on the gender balance of political representation, and of senior decision makers in government departments, local government, the judiciary, key public sector workforces, and public appointments. Data on political representation can inform the strategies of political parties to change the gender balance of representation (though this remains outside the scope of government action), and also provides the wider context within which public bodies might seek to promote gender equality, and in particular how they might address gender imbalances in senior decision-making and managerial positions in, for example, the civil service, the judiciary, and local government. Responsibility for appointments to non-departmental public bodies (NDPBs) lies with government departments, who might further consider how to promote gender equality in public appointments given the disappointing lack of progress to date, while NDPBs themselves might use such data to inform their equality schemes both with respect to the gender composition of employees and with respect to responsiveness to service users. Thus, for example, bodies concerned with transport should seek to demonstrate their understanding of gender differences in access to and use of transport (as outlined in Chapter Ten) and in the way that they do their business, carry out consultations, etc, that the views of women transport users are represented equally with those of men. Furthermore, to the extent that public bodies (especially government departments and local government) can influence private and voluntary sector organisations and encourage them to also promote equal opportunities through such means as contract compliance, they can play a role in encouraging such bodies to improve data on gender balance and/or require this as a condition of funding.

2.4 POLITICAL REPRESENTATION

This section provides information on the gender balance of MPs in the UK Parliament, MSPs in the Scottish Parliament, MEPs in the European Parliament, and councillors in local authorities. Table 2.1. below indicates the current levels of women's and men's share of political representation in the UK, Scottish and European Parliaments. In all three legislatures women remain under-represented in proportion to population as a whole, though their share of representation is significantly greater in the Scottish Parliament.

Table 2.1 Political representation of men and women in the UK, Scottish and European Parliaments, 2007

	Women		Men	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Members of Parliament	8	14	51	86
Members of the Scottish Parliament	50	39	79	60
Members of the European Parliament	2	29	5	71

Source: Table derived from data published in, EOC (2007) *Sex and Power: Who runs Scotland?*.

http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/sexandpower_scot_2007.pdf

Since the partial enfranchisement of women in 1918 (all women aged 30 and over) and full enfranchisement on the same terms as men in 1928 (all women aged 21 and over²), women's level of representation in the UK parliament has consistently been at a low level, though there was a marked increase in 1997.

Table 2.2 Scotland and the UK: percentage of women MPs returned at general elections, 1964 - 2005

Year	Scotland	UK
Column percentages		
1964	7	5
1966	6	4
1970	3	4
1974 (February)	4	4
1974 (October)	6	4
1979	1	3
1983	3	4
1987	4	6
1992	7	9
1997	17	18
2001	15	18
2005	15	19

Source: Burness, C (2005) *Scottish Women in Formal Politics since 1918*. (Compiled from Craig, F W S, (1989), *British Electoral Facts, 1832-1987*; Times Guides to the House of Commons, and House of Commons Library, Research Paper 05/33, General Election 2005).

The gender balance of representation varies considerably by party, both within the UK Parliament and the Scottish Parliament, as Tables 2.3 and 2.4 show.

² The voting age was lowered to 18 in 1969.

Table 2.3 Scottish MPs in the UK Parliament by sex and party, 2006

Party	Women		Men	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Scottish Labour	7	17	32	83
Scottish National Party	0	0	6	100
Scottish Liberal Democrats	1	9	11	91
Scottish Conservative and Unionist Party	0	0	1	100
Speaker	0	0	1	100
Total	8	14	51	86

Source: Table derived from data published in , EOC (2006a) *Public Policy Scottish Statistics Desktop Research*

Table 2.4 Members of the Scottish Parliament by sex and party, 2006

Political party	Women		Men	
	Number of MSPs	% of party	Number of MSPs	% of party
Conservative and Unionist	3	18	14	82
Green Party	2	29	5	71
Labour	28	56	22	44
Liberal Democrats	2	12	15	88
SNP	9	36	16	64
Scottish Socialists	4	67	2	33
Others	2	29	5	71
All parties	50	39	79	61

Source: EOC (2006b) *Who Runs Scotland 2006*

http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/Who_runs_Scotland_report2006.pdf

Within formal political institutions the gender balance is best within the Scottish Parliament, with this level of women's representation in the Parliament being achieved after a long campaign for increased women's representation. This campaign entailed positive action in selection procedures, cross party agreements on women's representation, and a commitment to equality of opportunity by the Scottish Constitutional Convention. Equality of opportunity was subsequently endorsed as a core principle for the new Parliament (for an account of the campaign to increase women's representation, see Breitenbach and Mackay, 2001). Though the Parliament has achieved a high level of women's representation, there have as yet been no minority ethnic MSPs elected to it.

In the past the gender balance in political representation tended to be better at local government level than at Parliamentary level, though women remained under-represented. Since 1999, however, the Scottish Parliament has exhibited a much better gender balance than has local government in Scotland. Table 2.5 below indicates the percentages of women councillors from 1992 to 2003. Prior to local government reorganisation in 1996, women's representation was higher at District Council level than at Regional Council level. Since reorganisation of local government into unitary authorities, women's representation has maintained the level previously reached within District Councils, but this has not been increased in elections subsequent to 1995, when the new unitary authorities were first elected.

Though the overall gender balance of councillors in Scotland is 22% women and 78% men, the balance varies considerably across political parties and across local authorities. As table 2.5 below indicates the Liberal Democrat party has had the highest proportion of women councillors since 1994, with this reaching a third (33%) of all Liberal Democrat councillors in

2003. The SNP has increased its share of women councillors in the same period, while Labour's share of women councillors has declined since 1995. This is in contrast to the parties' performance in the Scottish Parliament, where Labour and the SNP are substantially ahead of the other main parties with 56% and 36% per cent respectively of their MSPs being women, while women make up only 12% of Liberal Democrat MSPs.

Table 2.5 Percentage of women councillors, Scotland, 1992-2003

	1992(1)	1994(2)	1995	1999	2003
	Column percentages				
Labour	21	16	24	22	19
SNP	29	18	20	24	25
Liberal Democrat	29	23	29	32	33
Conservative	16	23	27	23	23
Independent/other	19	16	13	16	15
Total	22	17	22	23	22

1. District Council election

2. Regional Council election

Source: COSLA and Scottish Executive (2003) *Scotland's Councillors*

<http://www.cosla.gov.uk/attachments/publications/cllrsurvey2003.pdf#search=%22Scotland's%20councillors%202003%22>

The gender balance of councillors ranges from 33% women, and 67% men in Aberdeen and East Dunbartonshire to 5% women and 95% men in Inverclyde, as table 2.6 below shows.

Table 2.6 Profile of Scotland's councillors by sex and Local Authority, 2003

Local Authority	Percentage		Total number of councillors
	Male	Female	
Aberdeen	67	33	43
Aberdeenshire	74	26	68
Angus	76	24	29
Argyll and Bute	86	14	36
Clackmannanshire	89	11	18
Dumfries and Galloway	79	21	47
Dundee	76	24	29
East Ayrshire	81	19	32
East Dunbartonshire	67	33	24
East Lothian	83	17	23
East Renfrewshire	85	15	20
Edinburgh	81	19	58
Eilean Siar	90	10	31
Falkirk	84	16	32
Fife	73	27	78
Glasgow	71	29	79
Highland	74	26	80
Inverclyde	95	5	20
Midlothian	83	17	18
Moray	85	15	26
North Ayrshire	70	30	30
North Lanarkshire	87	13	70
Orkney Islands	90	10	21
Perth and Kinross	76	24	41
Renfrewshire	75	25	40
Scottish Borders	74	26	34
Shetland Islands	86	14	22
South Ayrshire	80	20	30
South Lanarkshire	78	22	67
Stirling	82	18	22
West Dunbartonshire	73	27	22
West Lothian	84	16	32

Source: COSLA and Scottish Executive (2003) *Scotland's Councillors*

<http://www.cosla.gov.uk/attachments/publications/cllrsurvey2003.pdf#search=%22Scotland's%20councillors%202003%22>

The 2003 survey of councillors in Scotland carried out by COSLA (COSLA/Scottish Executive, 2003), also indicated a number of gender differences in the characteristics of councillors. While the majority of councillors (72%) had no care responsibilities, women were more likely than men to have such responsibilities (35 % compared to 26%). Women councillors were less likely than their male counterparts to be working full-time (19% compared to 24%) and more likely to be working part-time (17% compared to 8%). Women were somewhat more likely to be full-time councillors (29% compared to 25%), while male councillors were more likely than women councillors to be retired (20% compared to 15%).

Of those councillors in employment, in terms of their occupational background, male councillors were more likely than their female counterparts to be in managerial/executive occupations (31% compared to 27%) and in professional/technical occupations (31%

compared to 29%). Women councillors were significantly more likely than male councillors to be employed in education (16% compared to 10%), and in administrative and clerical positions (20% compared to 7%). Women councillors were also more likely than male councillors to be employed in the public sector (47% compared to 42%) and in the voluntary sector (17% compared to 7%). Male councillors were also likely to be on higher incomes than female councillors, with 43% of male councillors compared to 26% of women councillors having an annual income of £20,000 or above. Despite women councillors' lower occupational status and income levels, they tended to be better educated than their male counterparts, with 45% of women councillors having a degree compared to 33% of male councillors. Male councillors were more likely than women councillors to have no qualifications, 14% compared to 5%.

The COSLA survey also indicated that 9% of councillors reported having a disability or long-term illness, with male councillors slightly more likely than female councillors to report this – 9% compared to 7%. Of all councillors in Scotland, in 2003 only 14 were minority ethnic groups, representing just over 1% of all councillors. No gender breakdown was given for minority ethnic councillors.

As at other levels of government, any measures to increase women's representation at local government level remain the responsibility of political parties. It is believed that the new system of proportional representation to be introduced for local government elections in 2007 will facilitate the election of representatives with a more diverse range of backgrounds. Generally speaking, systems of proportional representation are regarded as creating a more favourable context for the election of women representatives, but do not in themselves guarantee this. Furthermore, different systems of proportional representation are more effective than others in facilitating this outcome. To what extent the new system for local government elections in Scotland will create an opportunity to change the gender balance in representation remains to be seen.

2.5 ATTITUDES TOWARDS AND PERCEPTIONS OF POLITICS

Gender differences in levels of representation in political institutions in Scotland have been outlined above. This section looks at evidence of voting behaviour and perceptions of and attitudes towards politics and government, and asks whether there are gender differences in these.

Table 2.7 below indicates that over time there has been a variation in the proportions of men and women supporting the main political parties. Polling data indicates that in Scotland, in the period 1974 to 1997, the Labour party has tended to attract the support of the largest groups of men and women. Between 1974 and 1989, more men than women supported the Labour party, while in 1992 more women than men did so, and in 1997 men and women were equally likely to support Labour. For the earlier part of this period more women than men supported the Conservative party, though the proportions of both men and women doing so have declined, with in 1997 14% of men and 14% of women supporting the Conservatives. Support for Liberals has grown over this period with women being more likely than men to support Liberals, apart from 1992. Support for the SNP has fluctuated considerably over this period with its highest point being in 1974, followed by 1992. In the earlier part of this period male support for the SNP was greater than female support, though more recently this gender gap appears to have been closing. For example, in 2003 women were more likely than men to vote for the SNP, with 18% of women doing so compared to 15% of men (though this gap is not statistically significant) (Bromley et al, 2006). Generally speaking, there were more

observable gender differences in party support in the 1970s, while more recent data suggests that there is very little difference between women and men in their support for political parties.

Table 2.7 Party support by sex, Scotland, 1974-97

Percentage supporting party		1974	1979	1984	1989	1992	1997
Conservative	Male	21	31	25	22	24	14
	Female	27	38	29	22	28	14
Labour	Male	38	40	52	50	35	52
	Female	36	36	46	43	39	52
Liberal etc*	Male	5	8	12	4	13	11
	Female	10	10	15	9	9	16
SNP	Male	33	18	10	22	26	21
	Female	22	13	10	25	21	17
<i>Sample size</i>							
	<i>Male</i>	550	306	373	464	377	322
	<i>Female</i>	488	332	456	457	439	376

Source: Scottish Election Surveys, MORI. Reproduced from Brown, A, McCrone, D and Paterson, L, (1998) *Politics and Society in Scotland*.

Note: * 'Liberal, etc' includes Liberal, Liberal/SDP Alliance, and Liberal Democrat

Table 2.8 Support for constitutional preferences, 1974-97

Percentage in favour of:*		1974	1979	1984	1989	1992	1997
Independence	Male	25	8	29	40	28	29
	Female	19	6	22	28	18	24
Home Rule	Male	47	55	41	45	46	51
	Female	42	53	47	53	53	51
<i>Sample size</i>							
	<i>Male</i>	554	350	422	509	445	352
	<i>Female</i>	621	375	540	545	512	346

Source: Scottish Election Surveys, MORI. Reproduced from Brown, A, McCrone, D and Paterson, L, (1998) *Politics and Society in Scotland*.

Note: * 'Independence' refers to options which mentioned that word or 'separation'. 'Home rule' refers to any other type of directly elected assembly or Parliament.

Table 2.8 above charts the changing levels of support for independence or for an assembly or Parliament among men and women. This indicates that support for independence has fluctuated, and was at its lowest level in 1979 and at its highest in 1989 for both women and men. Men have consistently been more likely than women to support independence. Attitudes towards an assembly or Parliament have also changed over time, with support being at its highest level in 1979 for both women and men. Though support declined after 1979 it has risen again, with 51% of both men and women supporting this in 1997. The proportions of men and women supporting 'Home Rule' options have in general been much closer than those supporting independence.

Despite men's apparently greater support for independence as indicated through survey evidence between 1974 and 1997, more recent evidence suggests that women are becoming more supportive of devolution and/or independence. As Table 2.9 below indicates, in 2003, more women than men said they would feel sorry if the Scottish Parliament was abolished, 56% of women compared with 44% of men, while more men than women said they would

feel sorry if Scotland become independent and left the UK, 53% of men compared with 45% of women.

Table 2.9 Attachment to the Scottish Parliament, 2003

Percentage who would feel sorry if...	...the Scottish Parliament was abolished	...Scotland became independent and left the UK	Sample size
Men	44	53	659
Women	56	45	849

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C, Curtice, J and Given, L, (2005) *Public attitudes to devolution: the first four years*.

<http://www.natcen.ac.uk/natcen/pages/publications/P7457PDF.pdf>

A shift in attitudes towards the powers of the Scottish Parliament and in the gender balance of these is also in evidence, as Table 2.10 below indicates. In 1999 and 2001 men and women were more or less equally likely to say that the Scottish Parliament should have more powers, with over two-thirds of both men and women saying this in 2001. By 2003, however, only 54% of men said this compared to 62% of women.

Table 2.10 Powers of the Scottish Parliament, 1999, 2001, 2003

Percentage who say the parliament should have more powers	1999	2001	2003
Men	57	69	54
Women	56	68	62

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C, Curtice, J and Given, L, (2005) *Public attitudes to devolution: the first four years*.

<http://www.natcen.ac.uk/natcen/pages/publications/P7457PDF.pdf>

Following the first election for the Scottish Parliament in 1999, the Scottish Household Survey found that the proportions of women and men reporting that they voted in the recent elections were very similar, as Table 2.11 below indicates.

Table 2.11 Whether reported voting in elections in May and June 1999 by sex

	Percentage that reported voting		
	Male	Female	Total
Adult population aged 18 or over			
Voted in local election	71	73	72
Voted in Scottish Parliament	71	73	72
Voted in European election	45	46	46
Base numbers	2,141	2,825	4,966

Source: Scottish Household Survey, July - October 1999. Scottish Executive (2001a) *Men and Women in Scotland: A Statistical Profile*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/mnw-00.asp>

Attitudes towards the importance of voting exhibit some gender differences, as Table 2.12 below indicates. Though around half of the population regarded it as 'very important' to vote in elections for the Scottish Parliament and for the House of Commons at Westminster, women were more likely to say this about the Scottish Parliament than about the House of Commons (49% compared to 47%), while for men the opposite was the case (44% compared to 52%). Correspondingly, more women than men thought it 'very important' to vote in Scottish Parliament elections (49% compared to 44%), while more men than women thought it 'very important' to vote in House of Commons elections (52% compared to 47%).

Table 2.12 Percentage saying it is 'very important' to vote in elections, 2004

	Scottish Parliament	House of Commons	Sample size
All	47	49	1,514
Men	44	52	624
Women	49	47	890

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C and Given, L (2005) *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/57346/0016846.pdf>

The tendency for women to stress the importance of voting for the Scottish Parliament does not appear to reflect a greater level of knowledge and interest in the Scottish Parliament. As Table 2.13 below suggests, both more men and women reported hearing a lot about the UK government than about the Scottish Executive. A significantly higher proportion of men than women reported hearing a lot about both the UK government and the Scottish Executive, 44% compared to 27% and 37% compared to 23% respectively.

Table 2.13 Percentage saying they heard 'a great deal' or 'quite a lot' about what Executive/UK Government did over last year: 2004

	Scottish Executive	UK government	Sample size
All	29	34	1,637
Men	37	44	687
Women	23	27	950

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C and Given, L (2005) *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/57346/0016846.pdf>

The gender difference in knowledge of the activities of government at UK and Scottish Executive level was paralleled by a gender difference in the attribution of levels of knowledge of devolution. A considerably higher proportion of women than men described themselves as having a low knowledge of devolution, 24% compared to 13%, as Table 2.14 below shows. Conversely a considerably higher proportion of men than women described themselves as having a high knowledge of devolution, 26% compared to 15%.

Table 2.14 Knowledge of devolution, 2004

	Level of knowledge of devolution - percentages		Sample size
	Low	High	
All	19	20	1,637
Men	13	26	687
Women	24	15	950

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C and Given, L (2005) *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/57346/0016846.pdf>

There was also a gender difference in perception of how good government was at listening to people, as indicated in Table 2.15 below. Women were less likely than men to think that government was good at listening to people, whether at UK (14% compared to 17%) or Scottish Executive level (30% compared to 35%). However, both women and men were twice as likely to perceive the Scottish Executive compared to the UK government as good at listening to people, with respectively 30% of women and 35% of men thinking this.

Table 2.15 Perceptions of how good the UK government/Scottish Executive are at listening to people, 2004

	Scottish Executive	UK government	Sample size
Column percentages			
All	32	15	1,637
Men	35	17	687
Women	30	14	950

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C and Given, L (2005) *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution*. <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/57346/0016846.pdf>

With respect to a number of key areas of policy there were gender differences in how these were evaluated, as Table 2.16 below illustrates. While both more men and women thought health standards had fallen rather than increased, women were more likely than men to think this (52% compared to 39%). By contrast more people thought that standards of public transport had increased than thought they had fallen. Men's assessment of the increase in standards was more positive than women's, with 27% of men thinking this compared to 23% of women. Men were also more likely than women to think there had been an improvement in the general standard of living, 37% compared to 27%. Similarly, men were more likely than women to think that the economy had got stronger, with 34% of men saying this compared to 22% of women. While substantial proportions of both men and women also evaluated standards as having stayed the same, in general men tended to give a more positive evaluation of policies than did women.

Table 2.16 Evaluations of policies, 2004

% who say health service standards have	increased	stayed the same	fallen	net balance (increased-fallen)	Sample size
Column percentages					
All	18	31	46	-28	1,637
Men	23	32	39	-16	687
Women	14	30	52	-38	950
% who say standards of public transport have	increased	stayed the same	fallen	net balance (increased-fallen)	Sample size
All	25	41	21	4	1,637
Men	27	40	19	8	687
Women	23	41	22	1	950
% who say the general standard of living has	increased	stayed the same	fallen	net balance (increased-fallen)	Sample size
All	31	40	24	7	1,637
Men	37	40	20	17	687
Women	27	40	27	0	950
% who say the economy got	stronger	stayed the same	weaker	Net balance (stronger-weaker)	Sample size
All	27	29	27	0	1,637
Men	34	29	29	5	687
Women	22	30	25	-3	950

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C and Given, L (2005) *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution*. <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/57346/0016846.pdf>

Despite the gender differences in evaluations of policies, there was very little difference between men and women in their views on what should be the priorities for the Scottish Executive. Table 2.17 below indicates that similar proportions of men and women chose health, crime reduction, and education as the highest priorities. The biggest difference

between men and women was in their view on the economy as the highest priority (18% compared to 14%), though this difference was not great.

Table 2.17 Priorities for the Scottish Executive, 2004

% who say the Executive's highest priority should be	improve health	cut crime	education	economy	housing	transport and environment	sample size
All	27	22	17	16	12	5	1,637
Men	26	22	16	18	10	6	687
Women	28	22	17	14	13	4	950

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey. Bromley, C and Given, L (2005) *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution*. <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/57346/0016846.pdf>

As illustrated in the tables above, analysis of Scottish Social Attitudes Survey data indicates that there are some gender differences in knowledge about and attitudes to political institutions at Scottish and UK level. Given that the approach adopted to analyses of SSAS data is to establish where there are statistically significant differences and to present these in reporting,³ it can be assumed that there are no significant gender differences with respect to attitudes towards other questions asked in the survey.

2.6 PUBLIC APPOINTMENTS

Public appointments are those appointments made by Ministers to Non-Departmental Public Bodies (NDPBs), which oversee, direct or regulate implementation of legislation and policy across a range of areas. NDPBs include executive agencies, advisory bodies, health boards and other health bodies, nationalised industries and public corporations. Such bodies are subject to the new Gender Duty on public bodies, and will be required to produce equality schemes.

The composition of public bodies both in terms of gender balance, and in terms of diversity in general, has been a concern of government both at Scottish and UK levels, and various initiatives have been undertaken in recent years in order to promote a better gender balance and greater diversity in public appointments. This has included the creation of a Commissioner for Public Appointments for Scotland. As yet, however, there has been no significant change in the composition of membership of public bodies or in chairing of such bodies. Table 2.18 below illustrates the composition of public bodies for March 2006, where overall women held approximately one third of all public appointments in Scotland. The gender balance of public appointments varies considerably by category of appointment, with women's representation being highest on the Parole Board, health related bodies and Justice of the Peace Advisory Committees, and being lowest in nationalised industries and public corporations (of which there is only one, Scottish Water). Figures for the representation of minority ethnic people and disabled people are also included in the table, though no gender disaggregation of these is available. Minority ethnic people and disabled people make up 3% and 2% of public appointees respectively.

³ For example, the approach taken for the analysis presented in *Public Perceptions of Scotland after Devolution* was to carry out multivariate logistic regression analysis modelling (see Appendix III for a description of this technique) to establish which factors were significant, and to present only these. Tables tend to only include significant bivariate relationships, and therefore gender, and many other analysis variables, are only presented when relevant.

Table 2.18 Public appointments, by category of NDPB, Scotland, March 2006

	Number of chairs		Number of members		Total of chairs and members	% women	Minority ethnic appointees	Disabled appointees
	Male	Female	Male	Female				
Executive NDPBs	26	5	193	98	322	32	8	6
Advisory NDPBs (excluding JP Cttees)	11	1	83	30	125	25	5	6
Justice of the Peace Advisory Committees	25	6	10	13	54	35	1	0
Nationalised Industries	2	0	7	2	11	18	0	0
Public Corporations [Scottish Water]	1	0	5	1	7	14	0	0
NHS Bodies (excluding NHS Boards)	6	3	44	34	87	43	6	2
NHS Boards	12	2	58	46	118	41	2	3
Parole Board for Scotland	1	0	9	14	24	58	0	1
Total	84	17	409	238	748	34	22	18

Source: Table compiled from data provided by the Public Appointments Unit, Scottish Executive

In 2001, there were approximately 1,200 public appointments sponsored by Scottish Executive Ministers, of which women made up 32%, as Table 2.19 below indicates. Since 2001, there has been a reduction in the number of public appointments, which now stand at a total of approximately 750. As this reduction in the number of public appointments has been taking place, the overall gender balance in public appointments has remained relatively stable.

Table 2.19 Proportion of women holding public appointments, Scotland, 2001-2006

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total number – chairs and members	1,238	966	903	846	956	748
Women as % of total	32	34	35	34	34	34

Source: Table compiled from data provided by the Public Appointments Unit, Scottish Executive

Over the same period, however, there has been a decline in the proportion of chairs held by women, as Table 2.20 below indicates. Women currently hold 17% of such posts, compared to having held almost a quarter (23%) in 2003. There has also been some fluctuation in the gender balance of public bodies in different categories, particularly health related bodies.

While the Scottish Executive has continued to affirm its commitment to encouraging people from under-represented groups, including women, to apply to serve on boards of public bodies in Scotland, such encouragement is not yet reflected in any change in the overall gender balance of public appointments.

Table 2.20 Women as % of chairs and members, NDPBs, Scotland, 2002-2006

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Column percentages					
Executive NDPBs					
Chairs	22	24	24	24	16
Members	35	36	34	35	34
Advisory NDPBs (excluding JP Cttees)					
Chairs	15	15	17	7	8
Members	31	28	26	25	28
Justice of the Peace Advisory Cttees					
Chairs	16	19	19	19	20
Members	43	46	47	52	55
Nationalised industries					
Chairs	0	0	0	0	0
Members	10	10	10	11	25
Public Corporations					
Chairs	0	0	0	0	0
Members	17	14	14	14	17
NHS Bodies (excluding NHS Boards)					
Chairs	32	31	33	33	33
Members	50	47	50	41	45
NHS Boards					
Chairs	27	27	13.3	13.3	13
Members	29	36	33.8	37.8	49
Parole Board for Scotland(1)					
Chairs	-	-	-	-	0
Members	-	-	-	-	61
Total					
Chairs	22.7	23	20.2	18.7	17
Members	36	37	35.4	35.7	37

1. Between 2002 and 2005 the Parole Board was classified as an Executive NDPB, and is included in this figure. From 2006 it has been reclassified as a tribunal.

Source: Table compiled from data provided by the Public Appointments Unit, Scottish Executive.

2.7 DECISION-MAKING IN PUBLIC, PRIVATE AND VOLUNTARY SECTOR ORGANISATIONS

As noted above, with the exception of the judiciary, the gender balance of decision-makers across public, private and voluntary sector organisations remains outside the scope of government action as such. However, public bodies bound by the Gender Duty will be expected to address gender inequalities in their decision-making bodies and at chief executive and senior management levels and to adopt strategies to increase women's representation where appropriate. With respect to the private sector, there are a range of policy measures in place which aim to facilitate women's greater participation in paid employment and to reduce the impact of interruptions to employment for childbirth and childcare or care for other dependants on women's pay and promotion prospects. These include provision for maternity and paternity leave and pay, flexible working arrangements, and childcare provision. Good practice by employers in the provision of equal opportunities and flexible working arrangements have been widely encouraged by government, and it might be expected that this would have an impact across all sectors, public, private, and voluntary. The extent to which women participate in decision-making bodies and at senior levels in all these sectors is an important marker of the degree of gender equality in decision-making, policy making and implementation within key areas of Scottish society. Currently data across these areas are

patchy, and for effective monitoring to take place new data need to be consistently collected and published. In this section, we outline the current gender balance in the judiciary, and within a range of public sector professions.

The Judicial Appointments Board for Scotland was established in 2002 to provide a new, more open and inclusive means to appoint new members to the judiciary. The creation of an independent appointments board for the judiciary is intended to ensure both transparency in the appointments process and greater diversity in the composition of the judiciary. In March 2006, women made up 6% of Senators of the College of Justice, and 14% of Sheriffs (for a detailed breakdown of the gender balance in the judiciary, see Chapter Eight on Crime and Justice). In recent years women have been increasing their share of judicial positions, but this remains low, despite the increasing proportion of members of the legal profession who are women.

This pattern of women's under-representation in senior positions is reflected also across key areas of decision-making including the civil service, local government, police forces, education, and the health service. In 2003, women made up 48.9% of all civil service staff in the Scottish Executive, and 31% of Senior Civil Service Staff. In 2006, only one Head of Department post within the Scottish Executive was held by a woman, while the other 8 posts were held by men. Table 2.21 below shows that in 2006 women were the majority of staff within most government departments and agencies in Scotland. Of Scottish Executive staff, women made up 51% and men made up 49%. At Senior Civil Service level within the Scottish Executive, women made up 35% of staff and men made up 65%.

Table 2.21 Civil service staff in post, 2006

	All staff				Senior Civil Service Level			
	Total	M	F	% F	Total	M	F	% F
Scottish Executive (excl agencies)	4,309	2,129	2,180	51	177	115	62	35
Communities Scotland	442	165	277	63	5	1	4	80
Fisheries Research Services	316	192	124	39	2	2	0	0
HM Inspectorate of Education	203	71	132	65	6	5	1	17
Office of Accountant in Bankruptcy	111	41	70	63	0	0	0	-
Scottish Agricultural Science Agency	153	70	83	54	1	1	0	0
Scottish Fisheries Protection Agency	319	259	60	19	1	1	0	0
Scottish Public Pensions Agency	208	99	109	52	1	1	0	0
Student Awards Agency for Scotland	150	73	77	51	1	1	0	-
Office of the Scottish Charities Regulator	24	12	12	50	0	0	0	-
Social Work Services Inspectorate	69	23	46	67	2	1	1	50
Scottish Building Standards Agency	28	18	10	36	1	1	0	0
Mental Health Tribunal Scotland	52	20	32	62	0	0	0	-
Transport Scotland	206	140	66	32	5	4	1	20
Courts Group	41	18	23	56	2	2	0	0
General Register Office - Scotland	251	114	137	55	1	1	0	0
National Archive for Scotland	158	87	71	45	1	1	0	0
Scotland Office	51	22	29	57	6	5	1	17

Source: Scottish Executive

Within many areas of public sector employment, women make up the majority of employees, but remain under-represented at senior level. They are also under-represented at senior levels within male dominated areas of employment such as the police and higher education.

Table 2.22 below provides a summary of the gender composition of senior staff in key areas of the public sector. It should be noted, however, that some of the percentages in this table represent very small numbers, and thus percentages can change significantly with even a single appointment. The gender composition of key public sector workforces is discussed in more detail in Chapter Four on the Labour Market and in the relevant topic chapters.

Table 2.22 Women and men in senior positions in selected sectors, Scotland, 2007

	Numbers		Percentages	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Local authority council leaders	6	26	19	81
Local authority chief executives	4	28	13	87
Senior police officers	5	38	12	88
Judiciary (high court judge and above)	4	30	12	88
Head teachers in secondary schools	76	286	21	79
University vice-chancellors	3	10	23	77
Health service chief executives	5	16	24	76

Source: EOC (2007) *Sex and Power: Who runs Scotland 2007?*
http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/sexandpower_scot_2007.pdf

The position at the beginning of 2007 illustrated by Table 2.22 above represents an improved share of such positions compared with several years ago. For example, in 1996 women made up 7% of Head Teachers in secondary schools; only one council had a woman leader, and there were no female council chief executives; women made up 4% of senior police officers; and there was one woman principal of a higher education institution (see Engender, 1997).

Data on the position of women in decision-making within business in Scotland are particularly limited, with there being no regular reporting of the gender balance of directorships in top companies, unlike that carried out for the UK FTSE 100 companies by academic researchers (see e.g. Singh and Vinnicombe, 2003). In 2005, women's share of executive and non-executive directorships in the FTSE 100 companies was 11% (EOC, 2006b). In 1997 it was reported that there were 3 women on the boards of the top 20 Scottish companies, while around 7% of the Scottish membership of the Scottish Institute of Directors were women.

Data on trade union membership and leadership is similarly patchy. In the mid 1990s women made up around 38% of all trade union members in Scotland, and women held about a third of all seats on the STUC General Council (Engender, 1995, 1997). In 2000, 35% of male employees and 36% of female employees in Scotland were members of trade unions⁴. By 2005 this had changed to 31% and 37% respectively, suggesting that in the interim period women were more likely to join trade unions than were men.

Statistics on the voluntary sector workforce produced by the Scottish Council for Voluntary Organisations (SCVO) for 2005 indicated that women made up 75% of the paid workforce in the voluntary sector, and men made up 25%. Previous research into the voluntary sector workforce in 1996 found that women were under-represented at managerial level, and that men were more likely to be employed by large well-funded voluntary organisations than were women and likely to be better paid (see Engender, 1997), but this research does not appear to have been updated. Figures from Volunteer Development Scotland indicate that in 2003, 68%

⁴ Data from the Labour Force Survey provided by the Scottish Executive.

of volunteer managers were women and 32% were men (EOC Scotland, 2006a), and this suggests that women are still under-represented to some extent at managerial level.

2.8 PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY AND VOLUNTARY ACTIVITY

Data from the Scottish Household Survey carried out in 1999 and early 2000 suggests that there is very little difference in the propensity of men and women to be involved in their community or in volunteering. The same proportions of men and women (71%) indicated that they were involved in their local community in some way, and there were no significant differences in the levels of involvement indicated by men and women, as Table 2.23 below indicates.

Table 2.23 Level of involvement in local community by sex, Scotland, 2000

	Adult population		
	Percentages		
	Male	Female	Total
A great deal	5	6	5
A fair amount	19	22	21
Not very much	46	43	45
Not at all	29	29	29
<i>Base</i>	2,950	3,839	6,789

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2001b) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5.*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

A much lower proportion of people indicated that they acted as volunteers, 19% of all adults in 1999/2000, and 20% of all adults in 2005, with the overall gender difference being very small, as illustrated in Tables 2.24a and 2.24b below. The greatest gender difference in volunteering was exhibited by the 35-44 age group in 1999/2000 and by the 25-34 age group in 2005, with women being more likely to be volunteers than men. This could reflect the fact that many people in these age groups are likely to be at the stage of family formation and may have young children, which would be likely to have an impact both on men and women's work patterns and working hours, and women's involvement in organisations concerned with childcare or school children, but it would require further research to establish whether this was the case. While the overall levels of volunteering are very similar for both 1999/2000 and 2005, there appears to have been a decline in volunteering by people in the 45-59 age group, and an increase in volunteering by older age groups.

Table 2.24a Proportion of adults who volunteer by age and sex, Scotland, 1999/2000

		Column percentages						
		Adult population						
		16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 59	60 to 74	75 plus	Total
Male	Yes - volunteer	16	15	20	22	18	11	18
	<i>Base</i>	492	1,028	1,130	1,479	1,308	494	5,931
Female	Yes - volunteer	18	16	25	25	19	10	20
	<i>Base</i>	631	1,402	1,381	1,664	1,731	1,040	7,849
All adults	Yes - volunteer	17	16	23	23	19	10	19
	<i>Base</i>	1,123	2,430	2,510	3,144	3,039	1,534	13,780

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first 6 months of 2000). Scottish Executive (2001b) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5.*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

Table 2.24b Proportion of adults who volunteer by age and sex, Scotland, 2005

		Column percentages						
		Adult population						
		16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 59	60 to 74	75 plus	Total
Male	Yes - volunteer	15	13	22	20	21	13	19
	Base							4,214
Female	Yes - volunteer	18	18	26	20	24	13	21
	Base							5,842
All adults	Yes - volunteer	17	16	25	20	22	13	20
	Base							10,156

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

Among adults who volunteer, there are some gender differences in the types of organisation for which they volunteer. Data from the 2003/04 Scottish Household Survey indicated that men were more likely to volunteer in sporting organisations (28% of males compared to 9% of females), while women were more likely to volunteer in health organisations (13% of females compared to 8% of males), or children's organisations (10% of females compared to 4% of males) (Scottish Executive, 2005b).

Table 2.25 Types of organisations adults volunteered for in last 12 months, 2005

	Column percentages	Male	Female	All
Voluntary organisation, charity or community group		26	31	29
Church, Religious or Faith Based Group		19	24	22
Sports Club		25	8	15
Youth Group (e.g. Scouts, Guides, youth clubs, etc)		11	11	11
Caring organisation e.g. helping older people, people with disabilities		8	12	10
Public service (e.g. school, hospital, police or local government service)		7	9	8
Children's Group (e.g. playgroup, mothers and toddlers groups)		5	10	8
School Board or Parent Teachers Association		3	8	6
Arts or Cultural Group		5	4	4
Professional Society or Organisation		5	3	4
Community Council, Social Inclusion Partnership or Community Planning Partnership		5	2	3
Social Club		4	3	3
Groups involved in education, e.g. adult literacy		3	3	3
Heritage group, e.g. local history group, amenity society, etc		3	2	3
International development/overseas aid e.g. Oxfam, Christian Aid		3	3	3
Tenants group, housing association or residents association		2	3	3
Environmental group		3	2	2
Campaigning organisation e.g. pressure group		3	1	2
Neighbourhood watch scheme		3	2	2
Political party		2	1	2
Animal welfare groups		1	1	2
Trade union		2	1	1
Black or minority ethnic group		1	1	1
Credit union		1	0	0
Don't know		1	0	1
Base		790	1,224	2,014

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

Note: Columns add to more than 100% since multiple responses allowed.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

Table 2.25 above, showing data from the 2005 survey (questions on volunteering were changed for the 2005 survey and responses are not strictly comparable with the previous year's data) indicates a similar pattern of gender difference, with men being much more likely than women to volunteer for sports organisations and women being more likely than men to be involved in caring organisations and children's organisations, as well as religious or faith based groups.

There were also differences between women and men in the type of voluntary work carried out for the organisations for which they volunteered, as Table 2.26 below shows. Women were more likely than men to be involved in fund-raising activities – 29% of female volunteers compared to 24% of male volunteers, while men were more likely to be on committees – 29% of male volunteers compared to 23% of female volunteers, or to be involved in education, training or coaching – 17% of male volunteers compared to 10% of female volunteers.

Table 2.26 Types of activities carried out while volunteering by sex, 2005

	Percentages		
	Male	Female	All
Raising money	24	29	27
Committee work	29	23	26
Generally helping out	24	26	26
Helping to organise or run events or activities	24	24	24
Doing whatever is required	21	22	22
Providing advice or assistance to others	16	14	15
Office work or administration	13	12	13
Education, training or coaching	17	10	13
Providing direct services (e.g. meals on wheels, doing odd jobs)	8	9	9
Visiting, buddying or befriending people	5	9	7
Providing transport or driving	6	5	5
Campaigning	4	3	4
Counselling	3	4	4
Representing others	5	2	3
IT support	4	1	2
Advocacy	2	2	2
Other	10	7	8
None	3	3	3
<i>Base</i>	785	1,215	2,000

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

Columns add to more than 100% since multiple responses allowed.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

In 2005 the majority of volunteers of both sexes spent relatively short amounts of time volunteering on a monthly basis, less than an hour or up to 5 hours for 45% of male volunteers and 47% of female volunteers (Scottish Executive, 2006). A further 16% of male volunteers and 20% of female volunteers spent from 6 to 10 hours a month on volunteering. The gender difference between those spending upwards of 10 hours a month on voluntary work were not significant, though overall men tended to spend more time on average than did women.

Though there is little difference in the overall proportions of women and men who say they are involved in their local community, or who are involved in voluntary work of some kind, there appears to be a gender difference in charitable giving. Data from the Scottish Household Survey for 1999/2000, indicated that 75% of women made donations of various types to charities compared to 67% of men, as illustrated in Table 2.27 below.

Table 2.27 Charitable donations by sex, 2000

Type of charitable donation	Percentages		
	Male	Female	Total
No Donations	33	25	29
Immediate donations (door to door/ street collections/ TV appeals/ shop counters)	51	55	53
Donation through purchase (charity shop/ raffle tickets/ subscription or membership)	28	35	32
Planned donation (payroll deduction/ standing order)	12	13	13
Donation in any kind (clothes to a charity shop)	23	35	29
<i>Base numbers</i>	2,948	3,839	6,787

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first 6 months of 2000). Scottish Executive (2001b) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin*, No 5.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

The data detailed above suggest that there is little difference in the overall proportions of women and men in the population who contribute their time and skills to community and voluntary work. Age and socio-economic status, however, have an impact on the likelihood of people being involved in voluntary work, with young people, and people on low incomes, being less likely to get involved (Scottish Executive, 2004). Where gender differences occur these appear to reflect gender differences that occur more widely in society, such as the division of labour between men and women in childcare and other forms of caring, and the differences in participation in sport, for example. It is not possible as yet to track in detail changes in patterns of involvement in community and voluntary activities, since the Scottish Household Survey data currently available relates to only a short period, and changes to questions in the survey mean that data from different sweeps of the survey are not fully comparable. Nevertheless, the available data suggests that gender differences in participation in community and voluntary activities would merit further investigation, and in particular the question of whether there is a link between the types of organisations and organisational roles that women and men typically engage in and routes into public appointments and/or political activity which might lead to candidacy for election.

A further factor which may influence the capacity of individuals to participate in political and public life and to inform themselves about public issues, is their access to the internet. Men are more likely than women to have access to the internet, and to spend more time using it. In 2006, 55% of men had access to the internet compared to 48% of women (for further discussion of access to and use of the internet see Chapter Five on Income and Wealth, where internet access is considered under the heading of other assets to which individuals may have access).

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter has looked at statistical data on gender differences in levels of political representation, in attitudes towards and perceptions of politics, at the gender balance within decision-making bodies and in senior management positions across a range of areas, and at evidence of participation at community level and in volunteering. The statistical evidence

underlines the continuing gender imbalance in political institutions and in decision-making bodies in public life. Though women continue to be under-represented changes are slowly taking place, and the numbers of women holding office or prominent positions in public life in Scotland is increasing. While there do not appear to be any significant differences between men and women in their propensity to vote, there are some differences in their degree of engagement with and trust in political institutions. Levels of involvement in their community and in volunteering are similar for men and women, though there are some differences in the types of organisations that men and women volunteer for. This suggests that as citizens men and women are equally active, but that their patterns of activity differ in some respects.

Of these areas, few have been the focus of in-depth research in Scotland, with the exception of barriers to women's political representation. More recently research has been carried out on the impact of increased levels of women's representation in the Scottish Parliament on politics and policy-making, as part of the Economic and Social Research Council's research programme on Devolution and Constitutional Change (see Mackay et al, 2003; Mackay, 2006). Findings to date present a complex picture. However, the combination of new institutions and the presence of substantial proportions of female MSPs and ministers has contributed to more open and inclusive decision-making and the reprioritisation of traditionally-defined women's issues such as child care. Women's organisations report increased access and opportunities to participate, as compared to pre-devolution. Action against domestic abuse presents the most obvious example of the concrete impact of women politicians and women's organisations on policy outcomes. Work on gender budgeting provides another example (McKay et al, 2002; Mackay et al, 2005).

The issue of the low level of women's political representation in elected bodies generated a considerable volume of academic research in Scotland, the UK and in many other countries in the 1990s, and such research has indicated that a number of factors are responsible for the low level of women's representation. It has been argued that both supply and demand factors have influenced levels of women's representation, including barriers such as the responsibilities of family life, the tendency of women to wait to be asked to stand for office rather than to put themselves forward, discrimination by selection panels, and political culture (Brown, 1996; Brown et al, 1998; Mackay, 2001). In general, research has concluded that policies to improve the motivations and resources of marginalised groups, including women, would improve their opportunities of being selected to stand for office, but also that demand side factors are important, such as rules and procedures governing selection and political culture (see Brown et al, 1999). There is thus a complex interplay between different factors, and these may operate to inhibit people from coming forward long before selection processes take place. Furthermore, it has been argued that in order to counteract the male bias in selection procedures, positive action measures are needed to ensure that more women candidates are selected for winnable seats. Such arguments have led to arrangements such as women only shortlists, twinning, and zipping being debated and used by several political parties in Scotland and the UK, though this has often proved controversial (see Mackay, 2003). The notable increases in women's representation in the 1997 general election and in the 1999 Scottish Parliament election provide evidence that such measures have an impact. The passage of the Sex Discrimination (Election Candidates) Act by the UK Parliament in 2002, which enabled positive action measures to be taken by political parties without fear of contravention of sex discrimination legislation, represented an endorsement of the need for such measures, though any initiatives to increase women's representation remain a matter for individual political parties to decide. Mackay's analysis of party recruitment strategies in the

run up to the 2003 election suggests that current levels of women's representation in the Scottish parliament may be vulnerable in the future (Mackay, 2003).

With respect to the gender balance in decision-making bodies more generally, findings from a review of research on women and decision-making in Scotland (Myers, 1999) noted the lack of research and routine monitoring of the position of women in decision-making bodies across a range of areas, and expressed the hope that the establishment of the Scottish Parliament might have a significant impact both on women's access to decision-making bodies and on data gathering and research. It remains the case, however, that while there has been some improvement in the public availability of relevant data, most notably in the gender breakdown of senior positions in public sector professions, this data is still not routinely collated and published. In certain areas such as business, trade unions, and the voluntary sector, there appears to have been neither an improvement to data collection nor new research. Research on the position of women in the professions (Kay, 2001) also noted that there were considerable difficulties in gathering data which were patchy across professions, and that existing data indicated that women were consistently under-represented in senior positions.

With respect to public appointments specifically, research was commissioned by the Scottish Executive to look at ways of improving diversity in public appointments in Scotland (Reid-Howie Associates, 2003). Among other things this research was prompted by the recognition that there was a continuing gender imbalance in public appointments, and that there was a lack of applications from under-represented groups. Consequently the research focussed on the process for making public appointments and provided guidance on good practice. Within the case studies of public appointments, it was found that half of those interviewed thought there were no major barriers for women in the public appointments process, or that those barriers had been addressed, though, as the authors note, this was not borne out by statistics. The research also found that there was support among equalities organisations for target-setting with respect to public appointments, for publicised targets and for monitoring of these, though it was acknowledged that it was not Scottish Executive policy to set 'quotas'. The evidence presented in this gender audit report suggests that there has been no further change in the gender balance of public appointments since the research report was published.

In general, then, research into gender differences in participation and political life in Scotland has been relatively limited, and has tended to concentrate on political representation and the impact of women's representation. In many areas of decision-making in public life data remain patchy, and are not routinely published in any detailed form, though this is in principle possible in certain areas, for example, data on civil service staff, the judiciary, and public appointments. It is apparent from the data included in this chapter that the Scottish Household Survey and the Scottish Social Attitudes Survey both provide valuable sources of gender disaggregated data relevant to participation in public and political life and to attitudes towards this, and that there is potential for further analysis of these data. Further analysis of these datasets would therefore enhance understanding of differences and similarities in men's and women's attitudes to politics and in their behaviour as citizens. In addition to this, new research would be required in order to investigate the gender balance in decision-making in key spheres such as business and trade unions. For public bodies who must comply with the Gender Equality Duty, it will be essential that they gather and publicise data on the gender balance of decision-making in governing bodies and on their workforces, including the gender balance in senior positions.

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CHAPTER THREE EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Within this chapter statistical evidence of gender differences with respect to educational attainment and subject choice in education are examined, as are data on participation in training programmes and in adult learning. A large volume of gender disaggregated data on educational topics is published on a regular basis, especially on schools education and performance, and only a selection of such statistics is included in this chapter.

3.1 POLICY CONTEXT

Responsibility for education and training is devolved to the Scottish Parliament and Executive. While some training programmes for unemployed people, such as the New Deal for Young People, are run on a UK wide basis, the majority of training programmes in Scotland are directed by Scottish Enterprise. Schools education is the responsibility of the Scottish Executive Education Department, while training, adult learning, further and higher education are the responsibility of the Scottish Executive Enterprise and Lifelong Learning Department.

The National Priorities in Education are:

- **Achievement and Attainment:** To raise standards of educational attainment for all in schools, especially in the core skills of literacy and numeracy, and to achieve better levels in national measures of achievement including examination results.
- **Framework for Learning:** To support and develop the skills of teachers, the self discipline of pupils and to enhance school environments so that they are conducive to teaching and learning.
- **Inclusion and Equality:** To promote equality and help every pupil benefit from education, with particular regard to pupils with disabilities and special educational needs, and to Gaelic and other lesser used languages.
- **Values and Citizenship:** To work with parents to teach pupils respect for self and one another and their interdependence with other members of their neighbourhood and society, and to teach them the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in a democratic society.
- **Learning for Life:** To equip pupils with the foundation skills, attitudes and expectations necessary to prosper in a changing society, and to encourage creativity and ambition.

In the Scottish Executive Partnership Agreement (2003) the Executive's general aims with respect to education were set out. With respect to schools education the aim is to create excellent schools, and to modernise comprehensive education to secure the highest standards for every child. Commitments were given to a school building programme, to increasing teacher numbers, and to provide more flexible learning and development opportunities for pupils. The Executive set out its detailed agenda for modernisation of education in *Ambitious, Excellent Schools* (Scottish Executive, 2004a).

High level commitments on training, further and higher education were also set out in the Partnership Agreement. These were to significantly increase the skills base of Scotland, including an increase in apprenticeship places, and to increase funding to improve the quality and effectiveness of further and higher education in Scotland. The commitment to increase skills was also accompanied by a commitment to provide childcare support in areas of high unemployment to help those in work, training or education. With respect to further and higher education the budget was increased, and the Higher and Further Education Funding Councils

have been merged into one body, the Scottish Funding Council. The Executive also made clear that it would not support the introduction of top-up fees for higher education.

3.2 PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING

KEY POINTS:

- Girls are more likely than boys to stay on at secondary school after the compulsory school leaving age.
- Boys are more likely than girls to be excluded from school, with boys making up 76% of those excluded from secondary schools in 2004/05.
- Girls are more likely to leave school with higher qualifications than boys.
- The subject choices of girls and boys at secondary school are distributed differently, with girls being more likely than boys to study subjects such as Biology, Arts and Languages, and boys being more likely than girls to study Computing Studies and Physics.
- Girls are more likely than boys to go on to Further Education and Higher Education on leaving school, while boys are more likely than girls to enter employment after leaving school.
- In 2004/05 women were 57% of students in Further Education Colleges, and men were 43%.
- In 2004/05 women were 57% of students in Higher Education Institutions, and men were 43%.
- In 2005, a higher proportion of female (33%) than male (28%) employees received work-related training.
- In 2005, women were 93% of primary school teachers and men were 7%. Women were 81% of primary school head teachers and men were 19%.
- In 2005, women were 59% of secondary school teachers and men were 41%. Women were 21% of head teachers, and men were 79%.
- In 2004/05, taking full-time and part-time academic staff together, women were 51% of Further Education College academic staff, and men were 49%.
- In 2003/04, men were 60% of academic staff in Higher Education Institutions and women were 40%. Men were 86% of Professors and women were 14%.

3.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

3.3.1 Key sources of data

The majority of data on education and training are derived from administrative sources, while data on participation in training schemes, work related training and on adult learning are available from the Labour Force Survey (LFS). The Scottish Executive Education Department collates and publishes data on education at all levels and on training drawn from a range of sources including local authority returns, the annual survey of pupils, the independent schools census, the annual staff census, the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA), Careers Scotland, the Student Awards Agency Scotland, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), the Scottish Funding Council, the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA), and Enterprise Networks. A wide range of gender disaggregated statistics are regularly published in Scottish Executive Statistical bulletins on education topics. However, not all data included in this chapter are routinely collated and published, for example, gender disaggregated data on work-related training, adult learning, participation in training schemes, and academic staff in FE and HE. Detailed gender disaggregated data on staff in HEIs in particular have been published only occasionally in Scottish Funding Council publications, but otherwise have to be purchased from HESA.

3.3.2 Possible uses of data

Relevant public bodies i.e. local education authorities, schools, further education colleges, and higher education institutions, might use gender disaggregated statistics on education in a variety of ways. In line with the Gender Equality Duty such bodies will have to produce focussed gender equality schemes, which would be expected to address differences in educational attainment, gendered subject choices, and staying on rates, for example, at secondary school level. Further Education Colleges and Higher Education Institutions might also use such data to inform the ways in which they recruit students, for example, to challenge gender stereotyping in subject choices, while careers services for secondary pupils, FE and HE students, might also use such data in challenging gender stereotyping in presenting career options and guidance. The data might also be used to address gender imbalances in education workforces, especially at senior levels, and to monitor change. One implication of this is the need for regular publication of certain types of data that have previously been published only occasionally e.g. data on FE and HE staff. Similarly, data on adult learning and on training might inform strategies to encourage participation in various forms of learning and training, and to challenge gender stereotyping in government training schemes, which has been acknowledged to be a problem.

3.4 PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

Given that primary school education is compulsory for all children, the gender distribution of pupils in primary schools mirrors that for the population in the relevant age groups. Boys make up a slight majority of primary school age pupils at around 51% from 1996 to 2005, as shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Schools and pupils in publicly funded primary schools, 1998-2005

	Schools	Female	Girls as % of total	Male	Boys as % of total	Total
1998 ⁽¹⁾	2,291	213,276	49	222,430	51	436,979
1999	2,293	211,168	49	220,246	51	431,414
2000	2,278	208,066	49	217,155	51	425,221
2001	2,271	205,642	49	214,879	51	420,521
2002 ⁽¹⁾	2,258	202,432	49	211,279	51	413,713
2003	2,248	198,725	49	207,290	51	406,015
2004	2,217	195,038	49	203,062	51	398,100
2005	2,194	191,099	49	199,161	51	390,260

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Pupils in Scotland, 2005*

Notes: 1. There were 1,273 pupils in 1998 and 2 pupils in 2002 for whom gender was not recorded.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/28083932/99>

Boys are more likely than girls to encounter difficulties at primary school, whether learning difficulties or behavioural difficulties, and therefore are more likely to require specialist forms of support, as indicated by the gender distribution of primary school pupils with a Record of Needs and/or Individualised Educational Programme. As indicated in Table 3.2 below, in 2005 boys made up 71% of such pupils compared to girls making up 29%. Boys were almost twice as likely as girls to require such support, at a rate of 55.2 per 1,000 male pupils compared to 23.7 per 1,000 female pupils.

Table 3.2 Primary pupils with a Record of Needs and/or an Individualised Educational Programme, 2005

	female	girls as % of total	male	boys as % of total	total	Rate per 1,000 pupils		
						female	male	total
Total	4,532	29	10,989	71	15,521	23.7	55.2	39.8

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Pupils in Scotland, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/28083932/99>

Boys were also much more likely than girls to be excluded from primary school. Table 3.3 below shows that of all primary school exclusions from school in 2004/05 boys made up 91% compared to girls making up 9%. It should be noted, however, that the numbers of exclusions are not necessarily the same as the numbers of pupils being excluded, since a pupil may be excluded more than once. Primary school exclusions increased with age for both boys and girls.

Table 3.3 Exclusions, by stage, primary schools, 2004/05

	Total	%	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
total	5,319	100	130	245	402	717	938	1,284	1,603
boys	4,845	91	115	225	352	650	842	1,189	1,472
girls	474	9	15	20	50	67	96	95	131

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Exclusions from Schools, 2004/05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/01/30144545/27>

3.5 SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

At secondary school the gender balance between boys and girls is slightly more equal than at primary school, and is more or less evenly split between the sexes, as Table 3.4 below shows. It should be noted, however, that boys are in the majority in the teenage age groups in the

population as a whole, and that girls tend to have higher staying on rates at secondary school. Thus, after the age of compulsory schooling the pattern is not identical for boys and girls.

Table 3.4 Schools and pupils in publicly funded secondary schools, 1996-2005

	Schools	Female	Male	Total
1996 ⁽¹⁾	403	157,820	157,916	316,594
1997 ⁽¹⁾	401	157,040	157,014	314,889
1998 ⁽¹⁾	392	156,043	156,118	313,204
1999	389	157,166	158,190	315,356
2000	389	158,075	159,629	317,704
2001	387	157,134	159,225	316,359
2002	386	157,469	159,434	316,903
2003	386	158,407	160,020	318,427
2004	386	158,540	159,360	317,900
2005	385	157,425	158,415	315,840

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Pupils in Scotland, 2005*.

Notes: 1. There were 858 pupils in 1996, 835 pupils in 1997 and 1,043 pupils in 1998 for whom gender was not recorded.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/28083932/99>

As indicated above girls have higher staying-on rates at secondary school after the age of compulsory schooling. Table 3.5 below indicates the rates of staying on for male and female secondary pupils, leaving after the fifth year, leaving at Christmas in the fifth year, and leaving after the sixth year, between 1998 and 2005. Comparing those who stayed on till the fifth year, in 1998 80% of girls did so, compared to 73% of boys, with the pattern being the same in 2005. Comparing those who stayed on till the sixth year, in 1999 47% of girls did so compared to 40% of boys, while in 2005 48% of girls stayed on compared to 39% of boys. In the period covered, both staying on rates and the gap in staying on rates for girls and boys remained fairly stable.

Table 3.5 Staying-on rates of secondary pupils, 1996 - 2005 ⁽¹⁾

	Female			Male			All pupils			
	Column percentages									
	S3-S5	S3-S5 Christmas	S3-S6	S3-S5	S3-S5 Christmas	S3-S6	S3-S5	S3-S5 Christmas	S3-S6	
1996	77	67	42	
1997	77	67	42	
1998	80	72	..	73	63	..	76	68	42	
1999	81	73	47	74	64	40	78	68	43	
2000	81	72	49	75	64	41	78	68	45	
2001	80	71	47	75	64	41	77	68	44	
2002	79	71	48	72	63	42	76	67	45	
2003	80	72	48	72	63	41	76	67	44	
2004	80	72	48	72	63	39	76	67	44	
2005	80	71	48	73	63	39	76	67	44	

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Pupils in Scotland, 2005*.

Notes: The S5 stage staying-on rates are based on S3 pupils 2 years earlier, and S6 rates on S3 pupils 3 years earlier.

Post Christmas staying-on rates are calculated as a percentage of the post Christmas S5 roll divided by the S3 roll 2 years earlier. The post Christmas role in S5 is calculated by subtracting the number of first term leavers in S5 from the September S5 roll. 1996-98 stage roll data used to calculate staying-on rates excludes pupils in special units. 1999-05 stage roll data used to calculate staying-on rates includes pupils in special units.

‘..’ no data available.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/28083932/99>

At secondary school level, boys continue to be more likely than girls to be excluded from school, though the gender gap is not as great as at primary school level, as Table 3.6 below indicates. In 2004/05 of all exclusions from secondary school, boys made up 76% and girls made up 24%. The numbers of exclusions for both sexes increased up to Secondary 3 level, and then declined for older age groups.

Table 3.6 Exclusions, by stage, secondary schools: 2004/05

Secondary schools								
	total	%	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
total	35,513	100	5,413	9,708	11,809	7,558	890	135
boys	27,109	76	4,543	7,299	8,780	5,700	685	102
girls	8,404	24	870	2,409	3,029	1,858	205	33

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Exclusions from Schools, 2004/05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/01/30144545/27>

Statistics on attainment levels achieved by boys and girls at the end of Secondary 4, Secondary 5, and Secondary 6, in the academic years 2002/03-2004/05 indicate that at all levels girls performed better than boys (Scottish Executive, 2005a). In 2004/05, at S4 level 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 the same year, at S5 level 11% of female pupils achieved 5+ Awards at SCQF level 6 or better compared to 8% of male pupils. Also in the same year, as shown in Table 3.7 below, 22% of female pupils achieved 5+ Awards at SCQF level 6 or better compared to 16% of male pupils.

Table 3.7 Attainment levels in publicly funded secondary schools, at end of S6, 2002/03-2004/05

	2002/03		2003/04		2004/05	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Relevant S4 roll	30,559	29,579	30,600	29,398	31,035	29,970
% achieving English and Maths at SCQF level 3 or better	92	93	91	93	91	93
% achieving 5+ Awards at SCQF level 3 or better	90	92	90	92	90	92
% achieving 5+ Awards at SCQF level 4 or better	76	82	75	82	75	82
% achieving 5+ Awards at SCQF level 5 or better	42	52	42	52	42	53
% achieving 1+ Awards at SCQF level 6 or better	39	48	39	48	38	48
% achieving 3+ Awards at SCQF level 6 or better	27	35	27	35	26	34
% achieving 5+ Awards at SCQF level 6 or better	17	23	17	23	16	22
% achieving 1+ Awards at SCQF level 7 or better	10	13	11	14	10	13

Source: Scottish Executive, (2005a) *SQA Examination Results in Scottish Schools:2004/05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/09/2393330/33314>

Table 3.8 below indicates the gender distribution of pupils according to the highest qualification achieved. This shows that boys are more likely than girls to leave school with no qualifications at SCQF level 3 or above, though the overall proportions of such pupils are small, at 5% of boys compared to 4% of girls in 2004/05. More girls than boys are likely to leave school with higher levels of qualifications. Taking together all those qualifications

attained at SCQF levels 6 and 7, 48% of girls achieved qualifications at this level in 2004/05 compared to 38% of boys.

Table 3.8 Highest qualifications attained by leavers: 2002/03 - 2004/05

	2002/03			2003/04			2004/05		
	Total leavers	Male	Female	Total leavers	Male	Female	Total leavers	Male	Female
Total Leavers	57,108	29,237	27,871	58,699	30,215	28,484	57,268	28,877	28,391
	Column Percentages								
No NQ at level 3 or better	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	4
1-2 at SCQF Level 3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
3-4 at SCQF Level 3	0.5	1	0.4	0.5	1	0.4	0.5	1	0.3
5+ at SCQF Level 3	0.5	1	0.3	0.4	1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3
1-2 at SCQF Level 4	7	7	6	7	7	6	6	7	5
3-4 at SCQF Level 4	7	8	6	7	8	6	7	8	6
5+ at SCQF Level 4	9	10	9	9	9	8	9	9	8
1-2 at SCQF Level 5	15	16	14	15	17	14	15	17	14
3-4 at SCQF Level 5	7	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	7
5+ at SCQF Level 5	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	7
1-2 at SCQF Level 6	13	12	13	13	12	13	13	12	14
3-4 at SCQF Level 6	10	9	11	10	9	11	10	9	11
5+ at SCQF Level 6	9	7	10	9	7	10	9	7	10
1-2 at SCQF Level 7	11	9	12	11	9	13	11	9	12
3+ at SCQF Level 7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *SQA Attainment and School Leaver Qualifications in Scotland: 2004/05*.

Note: Pupils may also gain National Qualifications units or other qualifications, but these are not included in this table.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/09080409/26>

The educational performance of boys and girls varies not only with respect to levels of qualifications achieved, but also differs with respect to the subject areas in which these qualifications are obtained. Tables 3.9, 3.10 and 3.11 below indicate the subjects in which pupils obtain level 3 to 5, level 6, and level 7 qualifications. For pupils leaving school at an earlier stage, the majority of pupils, the gender differences in subjects in which qualifications are obtained are pronounced, as Table 3.9 below indicates. Girls make up the majority of those obtaining qualifications in, for example, Biology, Art and Design, Administration, Home Economics, Psychology, and Care, while boys make up the majority of those obtaining qualifications in Computing Studies, Physics, Craft and Design, Woodworking Skills, and Economics.

Table 3.9 Total qualifications attained by leavers at SCQF levels 3 to 5, by subject: 2004/05

	SCQF Level 5	SCQF Level 4	SCQF Level 3	SCQF levels 3 to 5	
	% girls	% girls	% girls	% girls	% all leavers
English	59	44	31	50	93
Mathematics	51	50	48	50	92
French	65	49	34	53	59
Biology	73	69	68	71	40
Chemistry	52	49	48	51	37
History	57	51	50	53	35
Art and Design	72	57	40	64	35
Computing Studies	38	36	32	36	33

Cont'd...

	SCQF Level 5	SCQF Level 4	SCQF Level 3	SCQF levels 3 to 5	
	% girls	% girls	% girls	% girls	% all leavers
Geography	45	38	40	42	32
Physics	32	21	24	28	30
Physical Education	26	31	45	30	29
Administration	80	73	6	75	25
Modern Studies	63	60	51	59	24
Craft & Design	29	21	20	24	23
German	63	45	33	51	19
Music	63	56	42	60	18
Graphic Communication	36	29	22	32	16
Home Economics	90	79	58	80	16
Science	45	45	47	46	11
Business Management	56	50	50	54	10
Drama	75	62	44	67	9
Hospitality: Practical Cookery	75	64	-	71	7
Spanish	73	60	34	62	6
Accounting & Finance	54	55	53	54	5
Woodworking Skills	14	13	-	14	5
Social & Vocational Skills	66	46	31	53	4
Technological Studies	8	6	8	7	4
Religious Studies	75	67	46	65	4
Information Systems	38	-	-	38	3
Italian	74	54	32	62	1
Travel and Tourism	70	73	-	71	1
Media Studies	67	57	32	62	1
Latin	63	59	28	61	1
Gaelic (Learners)	57	38	14	50	1
Economics	38	43	30	39	0.5
Social Subjects	-	-	39	39	0.5
Classical Studies	68	44	60	58	0.4
Psychology	82	58	-	79	0.4
Product Design	14	-	-	14	0.4
Care	96	99	-	97	0.3
Gaidhlig	62	42	-	56	0.3
Creative Cake Production	87	-	-	87	0.3
Contemporary Social Studies	-	43	42	42	0.3
Urdu	57	34	46	50	0.3
Scottish Group Award	67	61	-	64	0.2
Philosophy	61	-	-	61	0.2
Personal and Social Education	75	35	44	51	0.1
Arts	64	-	-	64	0.1
Geology	50	57	-	56	0.1
Other*	54	34	46	47	0.3

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *SQA Attainment and School Leaver Qualifications in Scotland: 2004/05*.

Notes: Subjects ordered according to total number of qualifications gained

Percentages based on small numbers may be misleading

A dash indicates a value of zero

'Other' category may include more than one qualification per leaver

The 'Other' category comprises subjects with fewer than 50 course passes at SCQF level 3.5. These are: Managing Environmental Resources, Sociology, Electrical Installation Fundamentals, Hospitality, Technology, Selling Overseas Tourist Destinations, Fitness and Exercise, Leading Sports Activities, Social Sciences, Fabrication and Welding, Sport and Leisure, Construction Industry Practice, Russian and Classical Greek.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/09080409/26>

Table 3.10 Total qualifications attained by leavers at SCQF level 6, by subject grade: 2004/05

	Total number - A-C grades	Girls as % of total	% of all leavers - A-C grades
English	14,981	60	26
Mathematics	10,233	51	18
Chemistry	5,368	52	9
Physics	5,219	30	9
History	5,107	59	9
Biology	5,012	72	9
Art and Design	4,892	74	9
Modern Studies	4,853	64	9
Geography	4,571	49	8
Business Management	3,371	61	6
Music	3,113	60	5
Computing Studies	2,971	24	5
French	2,947	79	5
Physical Education	2,856	28	5
Administration	2,519	81	4
Graphic Communication	2,254	30	4
Human Biology	1,623	74	3
Information Systems	1,551	38	3
Drama	1,338	76	2
Accounting & Finance	1,220	53	2
Psychology	1,113	79	2
Religious Studies	1,056	75	2
German	1,035	72	2
Home Economics	722	93	1
Product Design	652	36	1
Spanish	646	80	1
Craft & Design	619	42	1
Technological Studies	482	6	1
Philosophy	398	57	1
Media Studies	362	64	1
Economics	241	43	0.4
Classical Studies	192	69	0.3
Italian	163	78	0.3
Sociology	130	78	0.2
Latin	102	73	0.2
Gaidhlig	89	71	0.2
Photography for the Media	88	72	0.2
Gaelic (Learners)	75	72	0.1
Personal and Social Education	74	85	0.1
Other*	386	63	0.7

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *SQA Attainment and School Leaver Qualifications in Scotland: 2004/05*.

Notes: Subjects ordered according to total number of qualifications gained

Percentages based on small numbers may be misleading

'Other' category may include more than one qualification per leaver

* The 'Other' category comprises subjects with fewer than 50 course passes at SCQF level 6. These are: Arts, Scottish Group Award, Science, Managing Environmental Resources, Politics, Early Years Care and Education, Dance Practice, Care, Geology, Technology, Tourism, Mechatronics, Russian, Classical Greek, Construction, Visual Arts, Civil Engineering, Electronics, Sports Coaching Studies, Building and Architectural Technology, Fitness and Exercise and Mental Health Care

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/09080409/26>

Table 3.10 above shows that at SCQF level 6, girls make up a large majority of those obtaining qualifications in Biology, Art and Design, languages, Human Biology, Psychology, Home Economics and Sociology, while boys make up a large majority of those obtaining qualifications in Computing Studies, Physical Education, Graphic Communication, Information Systems, Product Design, Technological Studies, and Physics. In subjects such as English, Mathematics, Chemistry and History, the gender balance is more even.

While the overall proportion of leavers obtaining qualifications at SCQF level 7 is small, the distribution of qualifications by gender continues to reflect gendered subject choice, with the majority of those obtaining qualifications in English, Biology and languages being girls, and the majority of those obtaining qualifications in Mathematics, Physics, Computing Studies and Information Systems, being boys, as Table 3.11 below indicates.

Table 3.11 Total qualifications attained by leavers at SCQF level 7, by subject grade: 2004/05

	Total number - A-C grades	Girls as % of total	% of all leavers - A-C grades
Mathematics	1,366	41	2
Chemistry	1,042	52	2
Biology	902	73	2
English	902	69	2
Physics	836	22	2
Art and Design	782	79	1
Music	691	58	1
Geography	603	53	1
History	541	57	1
Modern Studies	419	68	1
Graphic Communication	397	30	1
Computing Studies	343	14	1
French	295	77	0.5
Drama	140	74	0.2
Business Management	119	61	0.2
German	110	82	0.2
Spanish	88	82	0.2
Technological Studies	83	5	0.1
Accounting & Finance	80	45	0.1
Religious Studies	59	66	0.1
Information Systems	56	21	0.1
Other*	163	61	0.3

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *SQA Attainment and School Leaver Qualifications in Scotland: 2004/05*.

Notes: Subjects ordered according to total number of qualifications gained

Percentages based on small numbers may be misleading

'Other' category may include more than one qualification per leaver

* The 'Other' category comprises subjects with fewer than 50 course passes at SCQF level 7. These are: Gaidhlig, Product Design, Home Economics, Physical Education, Classical Studies, Philosophy, Administration, Italian, Latin, Gaelic (Learners), Sociology, Economics, Psychology, Russian, Scottish Group Award, Classical Greek, Media Studies and Managing Environmental Resources

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/09080409/26>

There are also differences in the destinations of girls and boys leaving school, as Table 3.12 below indicates for the academic years 2002/03 to 2004/05. Girls are more likely than boys to continue on to full-time further or higher education, which is consistent with their overall

better educational performance at secondary school. In 2004/05 35% of female school leavers went into Higher Education and 24% into Further Education, compared to 27% and 18% respectively of male school leavers. Conversely boys were more likely than girls to enter employment, with 31% of male school leavers in 2004/05 entering employment compared to 22% of female school leavers. Boys were also more likely than girls to be unemployed and seeking employment or training with 12% of male school leavers in this category in 2004/05 compared to 8% of girls.

Table 3.12 Percentage of school leavers from publicly funded schools in Scotland by destination category; 2002/03 to 2004/05

Year	Number of leavers	Full time higher education	Full time further education	Training	Employment	Unemployed, seeking employment or training	Unemployed, not seeking employment or training	Destination unknown
2002/03								
male	29,380	27	18	6	27	15	4	4
female	27,886	35	23	4	19	10	4	4
2003/04								
male	29,221	26	18	5	29	16	3	4
female	27,316	33	23	4	21	10	3	4
2004/05								
male	28,170	27	18	6	31	12	3	3
female	27,782	35	24	4	22	8	3	3
2005/06								
Male	28,845	27	20	6	31	13	2	2
female	27,774	34	27	4	22	9	3	2

Source: Scottish Executive (2005b) *Destinations of Leavers from Scottish Schools: 2004/05*; Scottish Executive (2006d) *Destinations of Leavers from Scottish Schools: 2005/06*

Note: percentages may not total 100% due to rounding

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/12/06133725/37257>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/12/05115936/0>

3.6 FURTHER EDUCATION

As indicated above female school leavers are more likely than male school leavers to go on to further study, and this is reflected in the gender balance of students in Further Education Colleges. Table 3.13 below provides a count of the total numbers of students in Further Education Colleges, whereas the majority of tables below give numbers of enrolments.

Table 3.13 Headcounts of students in Scottish Further Education Colleges 1999-00 to 2004-05.

Year	Total			HE			FE		
	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total
1999-00	150,660	186,215	55	30,700	33,155	52	119,955	153,055	56
2000-01	159,860	202,985	56	30,590	34,775	53	129,275	168,210	57
2001-02	167,275	217,285	57	27,050	30,575	53	140,225	186,710	57
2002-03	159,135	210,110	57	25,330	28,690	53	133,805	181,420	58
2003-04	152,695	205,145	57	24,170	26,650	52	128,530	178,495	58
2004-05	148,920	200,930	57	22,435	25,855	54	126,485	175,075	58

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC).

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

Note: Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality

Table 3.13 above indicates that in 2004/05 women were 57% of all students at FE colleges, and were the majority of both those entering FE colleges to study for HE qualifications and for FE qualifications, at 53% and 58% respectively. In the period since 1999/00 there has been a gradual upward trend in the proportion of students who were women, from 55% in 1999 to 57% in 2004/05.

Though women make up the majority of FE students overall, the gender balance of students varies with age, as Table 3.14 below indicates. For most age groups under 20, male students are a slight majority of both FE and HE students at FE colleges, while for most age groups of 21 and over women are a majority of both FE and HE students at FE colleges. In particular women make up the largest proportions of students in the 40-44 and 45-49 age groups.

Table 3.14 Headcounts of students in Scottish Further Education Colleges by age 2004-05

	HE			FE		
	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total
Total	22,435	25,855	54	126,485	175,075	58
Unknown	0	0		0	0	
16 & Under	155	150	48	27,065	26,275	49
17	1,190	1,095	48	10,100	10,160	50
18	2,860	2,780	49	7,660	6,120	44
19	2,905	2,515	46	5,225	4,075	44
20	2,030	1,430	41	3,590	3,280	48
21-24	3,680	3,635	50	9,180	12,505	58
25-29	2,485	3,035	55	8,785	13,960	61
30-34	2,010	2,685	57	8,855	15,130	63
35-39	1,770	2,915	62	9,450	17,350	65
40-44	1,370	2,560	65	9,225	17,750	66
45-49	935	1,745	65	7,570	14,540	66
50-54	520	845	62	6,325	11,570	65
55-59	315	320	51	5,105	8,715	63
60+	210	145	41	8,345	13,650	62

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

Note: This data represents headcounts of students enrolled on courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of student headcounts is significantly lower than the number of enrolments.

Subject choice in Further Education exhibits a gendered pattern, with in 2004/05, as Table 3.15 below indicates, men being the majority of enrolled vocational students in Engineering and Technology, and Architecture. However, women made up the majority of enrolled vocational students in Mathematical Science, Physical Sciences, and Information Technology, subjects regarded as more male choices traditionally, as well as being a majority in more typically female subjects such as subjects Allied to Medicine, Social Studies, Languages, and Creative Arts. Table 3.15 also indicates that there have been some shifts in the gender balance of student vocational enrolments in Further Education in the period from 1995/96 to 2004/05. For example, the proportion of female enrolments in subjects Allied to Medicine in this period declined from 79% to 65%, while the proportion of female enrolments in Agriculture had increased from 30% to 51% in the same period.

Table 3.15 Vocational students enrolments* in Scottish Further Education Colleges by subject group - 1995-96; 2001-02 to 2004-05

	1995-1996		2001-2002		2002-2003		2003-2004		2004-2005	
	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total
Total	282,500	52	453,935	57	434,275	57	407,900	57	393,875	57
Medicine & Dentistry	30	17	10	0	5	0	90	83	75	73
Allied to Medicine	21,470	79	17,750	60	21,120	59	23,365	63	21,355	65
Biological Sciences	2,210	55	5,125	43	4,945	50	4,795	46	4,885	43
Veterinary Science	315	89	1,005	88	925	88	855	85	1,090	85
Agriculture	6,530	30	13,690	50	13,815	53	14,235	51	16,020	51
Physical Sciences	970	42	1,445	51	950	55	1,095	56	1,160	58
Mathematical Science	1,990	45	3,250	58	2,560	57	2,810	56	2,260	61
Information Technology	27,865	51	97,375	60	85,400	60	71,900	59	62,075	59
Engineering and Technology	31,000	15	34,230	16	33,805	13	30,150	10	32,790	12
Architecture	11,925	15	15,760	14	18,850	13	17,925	7	19,315	6
Social Studies	16,415	74	44,065	81	45,335	80	46,835	80	49,305	79
Law	400	73	900	73	925	73	1,030	68	980	67
Business & Admin	75,005	60	70,000	62	65,840	62	63,825	62	58,705	61
Mass Communication	6,930	59	11,165	60	10,165	62	9,265	63	7,685	61
Languages	12,925	62	22,980	59	22,080	60	15,735	62	16,515	63
Humanities	395	61	1,225	59	1,710	63	1,780	67	2,705	67
Creative Arts	14,620	61	38,670	72	40,770	72	40,045	72	39,725	73
Education and Leisure	24,085	56	25,590	55	25,260	53	24,615	55	22,295	60
Combined Studies	27,425	47	49,700	56	39,810	56	37,545	57	34,935	56

Source : Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

* This data represents enrolments on individual courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of enrolments is significantly higher than the number of students.

Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality

Values may not sum to total due to rounding

Percentages have been calculated on unrounded numbers

Table 3.16 below illustrates the gender balance in vocational student enrolments in FE colleges, according to those enrolled for FE or HE courses in 2004/05. While women make up a majority in both groups, the proportions of male and female enrolments for HE courses tend to reflect more traditional gender subject choices than do those for FE courses. Thus, for example, women make up 31% of those enrolled for HE qualifications in Agriculture, compared to 51% at FE course level, and they make up 73% of those enrolled in Languages at HE course level compared to 63% at FE course level.

Table 3.16 Vocational students enrolments* in Scottish Further Education Colleges by subject group - 2004-05

	HE			FE		
	Male	Female	Women as % of total	Male	Female	Women as % of total
Total	24,395	27,920	53	146,440	195,120	57
Medicine & Dentistry	20	55	73	0	0	0
Allied to Medicine	385	1,965	84	7,165	11,840	62
Biological Sciences	125	205	62	2,640	1,910	42
Veterinary Science	45	225	83	115	705	86
Agriculture	325	150	32	7,565	7,980	51
Physical Sciences	70	50	42	415	630	60
Mathematical Science	75	50	39	815	1,315	62
Information Technology	3,525	1,225	26	21,690	35,635	62
Engineering and Technology	6,150	590	9	22,745	3,300	13
Architecture	1,520	320	17	16,665	810	5
Social Studies	1,395	5,360	79	9,050	33,500	79
Law	225	450	67	95	210	69
Business & Admin	5,545	9,585	63	17,500	26,080	60
Mass Communication	590	565	49	2,420	4,110	63
Languages	145	385	73	5,895	10,090	63
Humanities	0	0	0	885	1,820	67
Creative Arts	2,350	4,865	67	8,270	24,240	75
Education and Leisure	625	1,105	64	8,305	12,255	60
Combined Studies	1,270	775	38	14,210	18,685	57

Source : Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

* This data represents enrolments on individual courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of enrolments is significantly higher than the number of students.

Table 3.17 Student enrolments* in Scottish Further Education Colleges by mode of study, and level of study- 2004-05

	Male			Female			Female as % of full-time	Female as % of part-time
	Total	Full-time	Part-time	Total	Full-time	Part-time		
Total	190,055	35,435	154,620	260,385	37,835	222,545	52	59
Total Vocational	170,835	35,230	135,605	223,040	37,635	185,400	52	58
Total HE	24,395	12,340	12,055	27,920	13,285	14,635	52	55
Postgraduate	60	10	50	110	15	95	60	66
First Degree	225	120	105	285	125	160	51	60
Sub-Degree	24,110	12,210	11,900	27,530	13,145	14,380	52	55
Total FE	165,660	23,095	142,565	232,465	24,550	207,910	52	59
Vocational	146,440	22,890	123,550	195,120	24,350	170,765	52	58
Non-Vocational	19,215	205	19,015	37,345	200	37,145	49	66

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

*This data represents enrolments on individual courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of enrolments is significantly higher than the number of students.

While women make up the overall majority of students at FE colleges, they represent an even higher proportion of part-time than of full-time students, as Table 3.17 above indicates. In 2004/05, women were 52% of all full-time students and 59% of all part-time students. Women's share of part-time students was particularly pronounced for postgraduate students and for non-vocational students at 66% in both cases. Table 3.18 below shows the gender balance for students of different ethnic origin. In 2004/05 women were the majority of all UK domiciled students at 57%, and men were the majority of overseas domiciled students at 61%. Of students from different ethnic groups, women made up the largest proportion of UK domiciled Chinese students at 63%, followed by Black African students at 59%, and Pakistani students at 58%. This compared with women making up 57% of UK domiciled White students. Of overseas domiciled students only in the White ethnic group did women make up a majority at 54%, followed by Chinese students, 44% of whom were women.

Table 3.18 Vocational student enrolments* in Scottish Further Education Colleges by ethnic group and domicile - 2004-05

	Total	UK domicile			Overseas domicile		
		Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female
Total	393,875	167,645	221,035	57	3,190	2,005	39
Refused/not known	28,190	13,035	14,910	53	140	105	43
White	346,955	147,550	196,335	57	1,420	1,645	54
Other	6,845	2,795	3,715	57	215	120	36
Indian	2,295	605	700	54	980	15	2
Pakistani	3,520	1,440	2,025	58	45	5	10
Bangladeshi	285	120	160	57	5	0	0
Chinese	2,335	795	1,370	63	95	75	44
Black Caribbean	175	85	85	50	5	0	0
Black African	2,865	1,065	1,545	59	220	30	12
Black Other	415	150	190	56	65	10	13

Source : Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

*This data represents enrolments on individual courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of enrolments is significantly higher than the number of students.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

Table 3.19 Student enrolments* to Scottish Further Education Colleges by ethnicity 2004-05

	Total	Ethnic group as % of total	Total male	Total female	% female by ethnic group
Total	450,435	100	190,050	260,385	58
White	397,365	88	165,645	231,720	58
Other	7,810	2	3,410	4,400	56
Indian	2,445	0.5	1,635	815	33
Pakistani	4,015	1	1,630	2,380	59
Bangladeshi	325	0.1	145	175	54
Chinese	2,555	1	955	1,595	62
Black Caribbean	190	0.04	95	95	50
Black African	3,115	1	1,375	1,735	56
Black Other	435	0.1	225	210	48
Refused/not known	32,185	7	14,920	17,260	54

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

*This data represents enrolments on individual courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of enrolments is significantly higher than the number of students.

Table 3.19 above indicates that of all student enrolments to Further Education Colleges in 2004/05, 88 % were White, and 5% were from other ethnic groups (though it must be borne in mind that the ethnic origin of 7% of students is not known). The proportion of minority ethnic students in Further Education is therefore greater than their proportion in the population as a whole. The gender balance of students varied with different ethnic groups. While the proportion of women students in the White ethnic group was proportionate to the women's share of the student population as a whole, in the case of Indian students, for example, these were more likely to be men, while Chinese students were more likely to be women.

Table 3.20 below indicates that of all student enrolments to Further Education Colleges in 2004/05, 10% were by disabled students (while there was no information about 15% of students). The proportion of women students who had no known disability was more or less proportionate to their share of the student population as a whole, with a slightly lower likelihood of being disabled. Among disabled students there was a variation between men and women in the types of disability. For example, women were more likely than men to be deaf or have a hearing impairment, while men were more likely to have dyslexia or be blind or partially sighted.

Table 3.20 Student enrolments* to Scottish Further Education Colleges by disability 2004-05

	Total	Disability status as % of total	Total Male	Total female	Women as % of disabled group
Total	450,435	100	190,050	260,385	58
No known disability	344,290	76	141,125	203,165	59
Dyslexia	6,115	1	3,415	2,700	44
Blind/partially sighted	1,200	0.3	670	535	45
Deaf/hearing impairment	2,245	0.5	895	1,350	60
Wheelchair user/mobility difficulties	2,700	0.2	1,105	1,590	59
Personal care support	430	0.1	205	225	52
Mental health difficulties	3,745	1	1,715	2,025	54
Unseen disability e.g. diabetes/epilepsy	8,360	2	3,375	4,985	60
Multiple disabilities	3,480	1	1,760	1,720	49
A disability not listed above	11,805	3	5,930	5,875	50
Information unknown	66,075	15	29,855	36,220	55

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

*This data represents enrolments on individual courses at FE Colleges. As individuals commonly enrol on more than one course in an academic year, the number of enrolments is significantly higher than the number of students.

Table 3.21 below indicates that of all Higher Education graduates from Further Education Colleges (i.e. those students obtaining higher education qualifications including HNC and HND awards) in 2004/05, 93% were White, while 5% were of other ethnic origins. The proportion of White women graduates was similar to the proportion of women graduates as a whole, while there were considerable variations for other ethnic groups. Indian and Black African graduates were more likely to be male, while Chinese and Bangladeshi graduates were more likely to be female (though in the latter case numbers were very small).

Table 3.21 HE Graduates from Scottish Further Education Colleges by ethnicity 2004-05

	Total	Ethnic group as % of total	Total Male	Total female	Female as % of total
Total	20,160	100	8,590	11,570	57
Refused/not known	320	2	140	180	56
White	18,820	93	7,835	10,985	58
Other	200	1	100	95	48
Indian	265	1	225	40	15
Pakistani	200	1	90	110	55
Bangladeshi	5	0.02	0.0	5	100
Chinese	115	1	45	70	61
Black Caribbean	15	0.1	10	5	33
Black African	155	1	95	60	39
Black Other	65	0.3	50	15	23

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

Table 3.22 below indicates that of all Higher Education graduates from Further Education Colleges in 2004/05, 4% were disabled (no information was available about 13%). As in the case of enrolments there were gender differences in types of disability among graduates, and these exhibited a similar pattern.

Table 3.22 HE Graduates from Scottish Further Education Colleges by disability 2004-05

	Total	Disabled as % of total	Total Male	Total Female	Female as % of total
Total	20,160	100	8,590	11,570	57
No known disability	16,710	83	7,200	9,510	57
Dyslexia	265	1	135	130	49
Blind/partially sighted	35	0.2	15	15	43
Deaf/hearing impairment	45	0.2	20	30	67
Wheelchair user/mobility difficulties	45	0.2	20	20	44
Personal care support	0	0	0	0	0
Mental health difficulties	55	0.3	25	30	55
Unseen disability e.g. diabetes/epilepsy	255	1.3	75	175	69
Multiple disabilities	25	0.1	10	15	60
A disability not listed above	110	0.5	50	60	55
Information unknown	2,615	13	1,040	1,580	60

Source: Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)
 Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality
 Values may not sum to total due to rounding
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

3.7 HIGHER EDUCATION

There has been an increase in the numbers of people who participate in Higher Education in Scotland, and at the same time a change in the gender balance of those participating over time. Higher education in Scotland is delivered both through Higher Education Institutions (i.e. universities) and in Colleges (in the tables below those headed ‘Scottish Institutions’ include colleges, but those headed ‘Higher Education Institutions’ do not). The Age

Participation Index provides a measure of the proportion of young people who participate (effectively estimating the share of 17 year olds in the population who can be expected to enter HE for the first time before their 21st birthday). As Table 3.23 below shows, in 1983-84 19% of the relevant age group participated in HE, 20% of males and 18% of females. By 2004/05 this had increased to 46% of the relevant age group participating in HE, 41% of males and 52% of females.

Table 3.23 Age Participation Index for Scotland: 1983-84 to 2004-05

	Total	Male	Female
	Column percentages		
1983-84	19	20	18
1984-85	19	20	19
1985-86	20	20	19
1986-87	20	20	20
1987-88	21	21	21
1988-89	21	22	21
1989-90	26	25	26
1990-91	28	27	29
1991-92	32	31	32
1992-93	36	35	36
1993-94	41	40	41
1994-95 ¹	42	41	44
1995-96	42	39	45
1996-97	44	39	49
1997-98	47	43	51
1998-99	48	43	53
1999-00	49	44	54
2000-01	52	46	57
2001-02	52	46	57
2002-03	49	43	55
2003-04	49	44	54
2004-05	46	41	52

Source: Scottish Executive (2006e) *The Age Participation Index for Scotland 2003-04*.

Notes: 1. Estimates for the period before 1994/95 are based on surveys which were significantly revised in 1994/95

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/09/12152808/28090>

Table 3.24 HE students at Scottish institutions, by mode: 1995-96 to 2004-05

	Total		Full-time			Part-time		
	Total	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total
1995-96	214,260	50	72,685	72,945	50	35,320	33,310	49
1996-97	238,095	52	74,425	82,570	53	39,415	41,680	51
1997-98	247,655	53	75,910	86,420	53	40,610	44,715	52
1998-99	255,965	54	75,115	87,855	54	42,945	50,050	54
1999-00	259,390	54	73,965	87,980	54	44,415	53,035	54
2000-01	262,915	55	74,680	90,940	55	43,230	54,070	56
2001-02	272,625	56	76,320	94,000	55	45,095	57,210	56
2002-03	267,025	56	77,085	95,045	55	41,610	53,280	56
2003-04	271,865	56	78,945	97,060	55	41,320	54,540	57
2004-05	276,705	57	78,765	98,545	56	41,330	58,070	58

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) & Scottish Funding Council (SFC)

In this table 0, 1, 2 are rounded to 0. All other numbers are rounded up or down to the nearest 5. Numbers may not sum to totals exactly due to rounding.

Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality

Values may not sum to total due to rounding

Percentages have been calculated on unrounded numbers

Women have made up the majority of students in HE institutions in Scotland since 1996/97, when they were 52% of all students, as Table 3.24 above shows. This had increased to 57% of all students by 2004/05. While women now make up a majority of both full-time and part-time students, they form a proportionately greater share of part-time students, 58% in 2004/05 compared to 56% of full-time students.

The subjects which male and female students choose to study at HE level exhibit different patterns, reflecting previous subject choices at secondary school level.

Table 3.25 Entrants to HE at Scottish institutions, by subject:1995-96; 2000-01 to 2004-05

	1995-96		2000-01		2001-02		2002-03		2003-04		2004-05	
	All levels											
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Column percentages												
Total	50	50	44	56	44	56	43	57	43	57	43	57
Medicine and Dentistry	45	55	46	54	43	57	38	62	36	64	38	62
Allied Medicine	22	78	17	83	15	85	15	85	16	84	15	85
Biological Sciences	40	60	38	62	34	66	35	65	37	63	37	63
Veterinary Studies	48	52	24	76	24	76	30	69	22	78	25	75
Agriculture	66	34	59	40	58	42	58	42	58	42	61	39
Physical Sciences	65	35	60	40	61	39	58	42	59	41	59	41
Maths	66	34	54	46	57	43	58	42	63	38	56	44
Information Technology	72	28	68	32	71	29	70	30	76	24	76	24
Engineering & Technology	88	12	87	13	86	14	88	12	90	10	90	10
Architecture	80	20	76	24	76	24	78	22	75	25	75	25
Social Studies	32	68	23	77	24	76	25	75	26	74	27	73
Law	45	55	42	58	40	60	40	60	41	59	42	58
Business Administration	44	56	39	61	42	58	41	59	42	58	42	58
Education	33	67	30	70	29	71	29	71	27	73	29	71
Mass Communication	42	58	42	58	41	59	40	60	42	58	42	58
Languages	32	68	35	65	34	66	34	66	33	67	31	69
Humanities	49	51	48	52	46	54	47	53	49	51	49	51
Creative Arts	36	64	33	67	32	68	34	66	34	66	34	66
Combined	45	55	42	58	42	58	42	58	42	58	39	61

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) & Scottish Funding Council (SFC)

Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality

Values may not sum to total due to rounding

Percentages have been calculated on unrounded numbers

For example, as Table 3.25 above shows, in 2004/05 women were 85% of those students studying subjects Allied to Medicine, 71% of those studying Education, and 69% of those studying Languages. By contrast, men were the majority of those studying Physical Sciences at 59%, and were 76% of those studying Information Technology, and 90% of those studying Engineering and Technology. There has been a shift in the gender balance of students within some subject areas over time. For example, women made up 62% of students of Medicine and Dentistry in 2004/05 compared to 55% in 1995/96, and 75% of students of Veterinary Science in 2004/05 compared to 52% in 1995/96. Over the same period the proportion of male students in Information Technology has increased from 72% to 76%, and in Engineering and Technology from 88% to 90%.

Table 3.26 below indicates that women now make up a majority of entrants to HE at Scottish institutions for all levels, sub-degree, first degree and postgraduate, at 59%, 56% and 53% respectively in 2004/05. There is not a straightforward progression, however, from one level to another, with for example, the gender balance shifting within different subject areas between first degree and postgraduate level. Thus, for example, while men are 84% of first degree students in Information Technology, they are 75% at postgraduate level, and while women are 81% of first degree students in Education, they are 72% at postgraduate level.

Table 3.26 Entrants to HE at Scottish institutions, by level and subject: 2004-05

	Postgraduate			First degree			Sub degree		
	No.	Percentage		No.	Percentage		No.	Percentage	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	27,330	47	53	42,530	44	56	68,780	41	59
Medicine and Dentistry	420	31	69	1,280	40	60	140	33	67
Allied Medicine	2,070	27	73	5,320	15	85	8,095	12	88
Biological Sciences	1,185	40	60	3,795	35	65	495	44	56
Veterinary Studies	140	42	58	285	22	78	210	17	83
Agriculture	250	61	39	180	58	42	620	62	38
Physical Sciences	960	57	43	1,690	61	39	165	54	46
Maths	420	58	42	700	56	44	215	55	45
Information Technology	1,520	75	25	2,380	84	16	4,595	71	29
Engineering & Technology	1,915	86	14	3,360	90	10	6,050	91	9
Architecture	990	63	37	1,580	70	30	1,720	86	14
Social Studies	1,625	43	57	2,720	36	64	7,520	20	80
Law	1,645	47	53	1,425	38	62	690	40	60
Business Administration	5,395	54	46	6,445	43	57	14,065	37	63
Education	5,805	28	72	1,595	19	81	2,360	36	64
Mass Communication	510	32	68	830	40	60	1,085	49	51
Languages	770	31	69	1,385	27	73	1,575	35	65
Humanities	685	53	47	1,120	49	51	250	42	58
Creative Arts	525	40	60	2,080	36	64	5,925	32	68
Combined	500	52	48	4,360	42	58	13,010	38	62

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) & Scottish Funding Council (SFC). Scottish Executive (2006f) *Students in Higher Education in Scotland, 2004-05*.

In this table 0, 1, 2 are rounded to 0. All other numbers are rounded up or down to the nearest 5. Numbers may not sum to totals exactly due to rounding

Percentages have been calculated on unrounded numbers

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/04/28100117/20>

Table 3.27 below indicates that of all entrants to Higher Education Institutions in 2004/05, 76% were of White ethnic origin, 8% were of other ethnic origins, while the ethnic origin of

17% was unknown. The proportion of White students who were women was more or less proportionate to the share of women in the student population as a whole, while for other ethnic groups there was some variation in the gender balance. Chinese students also had a gender balance comparable to the student population as a whole, but in all other ethnic groups students were more likely than White students to be male. This was particularly pronounced among Indian students, where 70% of student entrants were male.

Table 3.27 Entrants to Scottish Higher Education Institutions by ethnicity - 2004-05

	Total	Ethnic group as % of total	Total female	Total male	Female as % of ethnic group
Total	96,015	100	55,875	40,135	58
White	72,710	76	44,315	28,395	61
Black Caribbean	75	0.1	40	35	53
Black African	670	1	245	420	37
Black Other	310	0.3	135	180	44
Indian	1,225	1	370	860	30
Pakistani	775	1	355	420	46
Bangladeshi	75	0.1	30	45	40
Chinese	1,990	2	1,135	860	57
Other Asian	825	1	405	425	49
Other	1,190	1	590	600	50
Refused/not known	16,155	17	8,260	7,890	51

Source Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

Note: Figures for ethnic origin of students includes students from other countries, as well as Scottish domiciled students from minority ethnic backgrounds.

Table 3.28 Entrants to Scottish Higher Education Institutions by disability - 2004-05

	Total	Disabled as % of total	total female	total male	Female as % of disabled
Total	96,015	100	55,875	40,135	58
No known disability	87,300	91	51,055	36,245	59
Dyslexia	1,805	2	905	895	50
Blind/partially sighted	120	0.1	60	60	50
Deaf/hearing impairment	290	0.3	190	100	66
Wheelchair user/mobility difficulties	235	0.2	130	100	55
Personal care support	5	0.01	0	5	0
Mental health difficulties	320	0.3	165	155	52
Unseen disability e.g. diabetes/epilepsy	1,080	1	675	405	63
Multiple disabilities	175	0.2	95	75	54
A disability not listed above	645	1	375	265	58
Autistic Spectrum Disorder	40	0.04	10	30	25
Information unknown	4,000	4	2,205	1,790	55

Source Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

Table 3.28 above indicates that in 2004/05, of all entrants to Higher Education Institutions, 5% were disabled (with there being no information available for 4% of entrants). As in the case of Further Education students, there were some gender differences in types of disability. Women students were proportionately more likely to be deaf or have a hearing impairment, or to have an unseen disability such as diabetes or epilepsy, while male students were

proportionately more likely to be dyslexic, blind or partially sighted, or have Autistic Spectrum Disorder.

Just as women are now the majority of entrants to Higher Education courses at all levels, they make up the majority of graduates at all levels of qualification. As Table 3.29 below shows, in 2003/04 women were 58% of graduates at sub-degree level, 58% of first degree graduates, and 52% of those graduating with postgraduate qualifications. The shift in gender balance towards women making up a majority of graduates at sub-degree and first degree level occurred in the mid 1990s, with the shift in balance with respect to postgraduates occurring a few years later around 2000.

Table 3.29 Graduates from higher education courses in Scotland by qualification achieved: 1994-95 to 2003-2004

Year	Total		Postgraduate		First Degree		Sub Degree	
	Total	Women as % of total	Total	Women as % of total	Total	Women as % of total	Total	Women as % of total
1994-95	52,420	50	8,660	46	22,925	51	20,835	50
1995-96	56,940	51	9,935	48	24,555	51	22,450	53
1996-97	60,235	52	10,485	47	23,970	53	25,775	54
1997-98	62,835	54	11,935	47	25,580	54	25,325	56
1998-99 ¹	61,040	55	10,670	48	25,315	56	25,060	56
1999-00 ¹	68,385	55	13,110	51	26,015	56	29,260	55
2000-01 ¹	65,065	56	12,255	52	26,320	57	26,485	57
2001-02 ¹	63,430	57	12,760	53	26,375	57	24,295	59
2002-03 ¹	63,670	58	13,665	52	26,045	58	23,955	61
2003-04 ¹	65,720	57	13,640	52	27,370	58	24,710	58

Source: HESA, Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC).

In this table, all numbers are rounded up or down to the nearest 5. Numbers may not sum to totals exactly due to rounding.

1. The method of collection of data from Scotland's colleges has changed during the period shown in the table. For details see footnote 2 to Table 1

Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality

Table 3.30 Graduates from higher education courses in Scotland by qualification achieved and age group: 2003-04

Age group	Postgraduate			First Degree			Sub Degree		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
Total	13,640	6,490	7,150	27,370	11,605	15,765	24,710	10,365	14,350
Column percentages									
16-20	0	0	0	5	4	5	28	33	24
21-24	21	17	24	71	74	70	20	23	18
25-29	32	32	32	10	11	9	12	12	12
30-39	29	33	26	8	7	9	21	17	24
40-49	14	14	14	5	3	7	14	10	18
50 +	4	4	4	1	1	1	5	4	5

Source: HESA, SFC. Scottish Executive (2005c) *Higher Education Graduates and Graduate Destinations, 2003/04*.

In this table, all numbers other than percentages are rounded up or down to the nearest 5. Numbers may not sum to totals exactly due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/12/06121551/15518>

Table 3.30 above indicates that the gender balance in patterns of qualification achieved vary with age group. While for all categories of qualification overall there were higher numbers of women than men graduates, the proportions of male and female graduates in each group varied. In 2003/04, of all postgraduates, a higher proportion of women than men were in the 21-24 age group, 24% compared to 17%, while a higher proportion of men than women were in the 30-39 age group, 33% compared to 26%, with equal proportions of men and women with postgraduate qualifications in the 25-29 age group. Of those graduating with first degrees, 74% of men and 70% of women were in the 21-24 age group, while 7% of women and 3% of men were in the 40-49 age group.

Table 3.31 below indicates that of all graduates from Higher Education Institutions in 2003/04, 78% were of White ethnic origin, 8% were of minority ethnic origin, while the ethnic origin of 14% was not known. The proportion of White graduates and of Chinese graduates who were women was more or less comparable to the proportion of graduates who were women overall, while for other ethnic groups there was some variation in the gender balance. Black Caribbean graduates were even more likely to be women, than were White or Chinese graduates (though overall numbers of Black Caribbean graduates were small), while Black African and Indian graduates were most likely to be men.

Table 3.31 Graduates from Scottish Higher Education Institutions by ethnicity - 2003-04

	Total	Ethnic group as % of total	Total Female	Total male	Female as % of ethnic group
Total	45,565	100	25,695	19,870	56
Refused/not known	6,535	14	3,185	3,350	49
White	35,485	78	20,875	14,610	59
Black Caribbean	35	0.1	25	15	71
Black African	395	1	145	250	37
Black Other	70	0.2	35	30	50
Indian	595	1	195	400	33
Pakistani	370	1	165	210	45
Bangladeshi	45	0.1	20	20	44
Chinese	1,035	2	580	455	56
Other Asian	475	1	220	255	46
Other	520	1	250	265	48

Source Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

Note: Figures for ethnic origin of students includes students from other countries, as well as Scottish domiciled students from minority ethnic backgrounds.

Table 3.32 below shows that of those students graduating from Higher Education Institutions in 2003/04, 5% were disabled (while the disability status of 5% of students was not known). Again the patterns of disability vary by gender, and the disabilities of graduates follow a similar pattern to those of entrants on the whole, with men being proportionately more likely to be dyslexic, blind or partially sighted or have multiple disabilities, while women are proportionately more likely to be deaf or have a hearing impairment or an unseen disability. It is notable that a higher proportion of women graduates in 2003/04 than entrants in 2004/05 had mental health difficulties.

Table 3.32 Graduates from Scottish Higher Education Institutions by disability - 2003-04

	Total	Disabled as % of total	total female	total male	Female as % of disabled
Total	45,565	100	25,695	19,870	56
No known disability.	41,270	91	23,540	17,735	57
Dyslexia.	1,060	2	535	530	51
Blind/are partially sighted.	55	0.1	20	30	36
Deaf/have a hearing impairment.	100	0.2	60	40	60
Wheelchair user/have mobility difficulties.	60	0.1	35	25	58
Personal care support.	5	0.01	0	5	0
Mental health difficulties.	90	0.2	55	35	61
An unseen disability, e.g. diabetes, epilepsy, asthma.	540	1	320	220	59
Multiple disabilities.	65	0.1	35	20	54
A disability not listed above.	265	1	155	105	59
Autistic Spectrum Disorder	5	0.01	0	0	0
Not known.	2,050	5	940	1,105	46

Source Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Lifelong-learning/DataFE>

There are some gender differences in the first destinations of graduates, though these are not great, and have tended to remain fairly stable over time. As Table 3.33 below shows male graduates have been slightly more likely than female graduates to go on to further study or training over the period from 1994/95 to 2003/04, while female graduates have been more likely than male graduates to enter permanent UK employment over the same period. Female graduates have also been more likely than male graduates to enter temporary UK employment, while the proportions of both doing so have increased over the period.

Table 3.33 First destination of graduates from higher education (all levels of qualification obtained): 1994-95 to 2003-04 (percentages)

	Study/ Training	Permanent UK employment	Temporary UK employment	Overseas employment	Believed unemployed	Other
1994-95						
Total	32	38	10	3	8	9
Male	32	37	8	3	9	8
Female	31	40	11	3	7	9
1995-96						
Total	29	42	9	3	7	9
Male	30	40	8	4	8	10
Female	28	43	11	3	6	9
1996-97						
Total	29	41	9	4	5	12
Male	29	39	8	5	5	14
Female	29	43	11	3	4	10
1997-98						
Total	29	43	9	5	4	11
Male	30	40	7	6	5	12
Female	28	45	10	4	4	9
1998-99						
Total	30	43	10	4	4	9
Male	32	39	8	5	5	11
Female	29	46	11	3	4	8
1999-2000						
Total	32	44	11	3	4	6
Male	34	41	10	4	5	6
Female	30	46	12	3	4	6
2000-01						
Total	30	45	11	3	6	6
Male	33	41	9	3	7	7
Female	28	47	12	3	5	6
2001-02						
Total	27	42	17	3	5	7
Male	30	39	13	3	7	8
Female	25	43	19	2	4	7
2002-03						
Total	25	42	16	3	7	6
Male	29	38	14	3	9	7
Female	23	46	18	2	5	6
2003-04						
Total	29	40	17	2	6	6
Male	31	38	14	3	7	6
Female	27	42	19	2	5	6

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) & Scottish Further Education Funding Council (SFEFC)

3.8 WORK RELATED TRAINING AND ADULT LEARNING

The level and type of qualifications achieved, and participation in further and higher education, are important determinants of the range of employment opportunities open to men and women. The training that they undertake in work and their participation in adult learning

also has an impact on the employment and promotion prospects of individuals. This section examines evidence of patterns of participation in work related training and in adult learning.

Table 3.34 below indicates that in 2005 the majority of employees had not received any training in the recent past (within the previous three months), with 68% of male employees and 60% of female employees being in this position. In general women were slightly more likely than men to have received training, or to be studying for a qualification.

Table 3.34 Working age people in employment (excl. full-time students) by training status, Scotland, 2005

Job-Related Training	Level			Proportion of those employed		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
Training in the last week	85,000	95,000	180,000	7	9	8
No training in the last week but training in the last month	90,000	97,000	187,000	7	9	8
No training in the last month but training in the last 3 months	173,000	179,000	352,000	14	16	15
Studying for qualification, no job related training	52,000	68,000	120,000	4	6	5
No training in last 3 months	835,000	664,000	1,499,000	68	60	64
All	1,235,000	1,104,000	2,339,000	100	100	100

Source: Annual Scottish Labour Force Survey

Of those who had work related training in the previous three months, women were more likely than men to have been the beneficiaries, with 33% of female employees having had work related training compared to 28% of male employees in 2005, as illustrated in Table 3.35 below. This table also indicates that a number of factors contribute to the greater likelihood of employees receiving work related training, and to there being a gender gap in participation in this. Full-time workers are more likely than part-time workers to receive work related training, 32% of all full-time workers compared to 25% of all part-time workers. More highly qualified employees are more likely than those with fewer qualifications to receive work related training. This was particularly pronounced for female employees, where 49% of those qualified to degree level had work related training compared to 38% of male employees, and where 43% of those qualified to SVQ level 4 had work related training, compared to 35% of male employees. This is also reflected in the high proportions of employees in Professional Occupations and Associate Professional and Technical occupations receiving work related training, with women in these occupations being more likely than men to receive work related training. Public sector employees were more likely than private sector employees to have received work related training, though the proportions of female and male employees in each sector receiving such training were fairly similar. While women were more likely than men overall to receive work related training, the proportions of male and female employees receiving training within each industrial sector varied considerably, with higher proportions of men than women receiving training in manufacturing, and in distribution, hotels and restaurants. Within public administration, education and health, similar proportions of men and women received work related training. This somewhat complex picture reflects the fact that women and men tend to work in both different occupations and different industries. Thus, for example, within distribution, hotels and restaurants men are more likely than women to occupy managerial positions and therefore more likely to receive training, while many women will occupy unskilled jobs for which little training will be provided. With public administration, education and health, while equal proportions of women and men receive training, the actual numbers of women in this sector are much greater than the numbers of

men, and this contributes to their overall greater share of work-related training. Workplace size also has an impact on the likelihood of work related training being offered, with larger workplaces being more likely to provide this.

Table 3.35 Proportion of people who have had work related training in the last 3 months, Scotland, 2005

	Male	Female	All
	Column percentages		
Age band			
16 to 24	36	36	36
25 to 34	31	35	33
35 to 44	29	33	31
45 to 54	26	34	30
55 to 64	18	25	21
Work pattern			
Full-time	28	38	32
Part-time	19	26	25
Qualification level			
Above SVQ Level 4 (Degree Level)	38	49	43
SVQ Level 4	35	43	39
SVQ Level 3	25	31	27
SVQ Level 2	26	26	26
SVQ Level 1	26	23	25
Other	22	23	22
None	10	14	12
Occupation			
Managers and Senior Officials	29	31	30
Professional occupations	47	55	48
Associate Professional and Technical	40	48	44
Administrative and Secretarial	28	25	25
Skilled Trades Occupations	20	16	20
Personal Service Occupations	41	43	43
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	29	20	23
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	16	12	16
Elementary Occupations	16	11	14
Sector			
Private	24	27	25
Public	41	43	42
Industry Sector			
Agriculture & fishing	10	23	12
Energy & water	33	34	33
Manufacturing	22	15	20
Construction	22	23	22
Distribution, hotels & restaurants	22	17	19
Transport & communication	21	31	23
Banking, finance & insurance etc	33	32	32
Public admin, education & health	45	44	44
Other services	24	29	26
Length of time with current employer			
Less than 1 year	33	33	33
>1 year but less than 5 years	28	33	30

Cont'd...

	Male	Female	All
	Column percentages		
>5 years but less than 20 years	26	33	29
20 years or more	25	36	29
Workplace size			
1-10 employees	21	27	24
11-499 employees	31	35	33
500 or more employees	35	39	37
All in Employment			
	28	33	30

Source: Annual Scottish Labour Force Survey

There were no significant gender differences in the types of work related training which men and women had in 2005, as Table 3.36 below indicates. There was also little difference in the methods used, though men were slightly more likely than women to use the internet or CD-ROMs for training purposes, 27% compared to 23%. The most significant gender differences were in the length of training course being undertaken. Of those undertaking work related training, more men than women were likely to have undertaken training of less than one week, 56% of men compared to 50% of women. Women were more likely than men to have undertaken training of more than a year but less than three years, 15% compared to 6%, while men were more likely than women to be taking courses of three years or more, 8% compared to 3%.

Table 3.36 People undertaking work related training in the last month by training type, Scotland, Spring 2005

	Male	Female	All
	Column percentages		
Training type			
On the job training	37	38	38
Training away from job	41	41	41
Both	21	21	21
Method of Training			
Attend conferences, seminars, workshops	49	53	51
Use internet or CD-ROMs	27	23	25
Watch TV programmes or videos	17	17	17
None of these	7	8	7
Place of training			
Premises belonging to employer	39	35	37
Premises belonging to another employer	7	6	6
Private training centre	8	12	10
At home (OU, etc)	7	6	7
College of Further Education or University	19	19	19
Other 2	4	7	6
None of these	16	14	15
Length of training course			
Less than 1 week	56	50	53
1 week, less than 1 month	4	3	4
1 month, less than 6 months	6	7	7
6 months, less than 1 year	3	6	5
1 year, less than 3 years	6	15	11
3 years or more	8	3	5
Ongoing/no definite limit	16	15	16

Source: Labour Force Survey

Table 3.37 below indicates the proportions of men and women who participated in adult learning in 2005, though it is not possible to tell to what extent this learning may have been job related or to what extent it may have been for self-improvement or recreational. Similar proportions of men and women had not participated in any learning, 29% and 30% respectively. The biggest group of both sexes participated in both taught and non-taught learning, at 43% of men and 46% of women respectively, while men were more likely to participate in non-taught learning only, at 23% of men compared to 16% of women.

Table 3.37 Adult learning in the last year in the working age population by learning category , Scotland, 2005

Adult Learning Category	Level			Proportion of Group - %		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
Taught learning only	82,000	110,000	192,000	6	8	7
Non-taught learning only	342,000	228,000	570,000	23	16	20
Taught and non-taught learning	625,000	636,000	1,261,000	43	46	44
No learning	421,000	414,000	834,000	29	30	29
All	1,476,000	1,395,000	2,871,000	100	100	100

Source: Annual Scottish Labour Force Survey

Table 3.38 Proportion of people who had undertaken some sort of learning in the last year, Scotland, 2005

	Male	Female	All
	Column percentages		
Age band			
16 to 24	75	73	74
25 to 34	76	73	75
35 to 44	77	72	74
45 to 54	72	70	71
55 to 64	57	59	56
Employment Status			
Employee	79	81	80
Self-employed	75	82	76
ILO unemployed	61	50	57
Inactive - Looking after home	32	36	35
Inactive - Sick disabled	23	28	25
Inactive - Retired	47	52	49
Inactive - Other	58	63	60
Qualification level			
Above SVQ Level 4 (Degree Level)	91	94	93
SVQ Level 4	85	84	84
SVQ Level 3	71	76	73
SVQ Level 2	74	67	70
SVQ Level 1	57	56	57
Other	63	63	63
None	36	36	36
All Working Age (excl. FT Stud.)	71	70	71

Source: Annual Scottish Labour Force Survey

The propensity for adults to undertake learning is influenced by age, employee status and level of qualification as Table 3.38 above indicates. People in the 55 to 64 age group were least likely to have undertaken some sort of learning in 2005, with women being slightly more likely than men to have done so, while men were slightly more likely than women to have done so in other age groups. Those most likely to have undertaken some sort of learning were employed or self-employed people, and this was true of both men and women. Unemployed men were more likely than unemployed women to have undertaken learning, at 61% of men compared to 50% of women. Those with the highest qualifications were most likely to have undertaken some form of learning, while those with the fewest qualifications were least likely to do so, and this was the case for both women and men, with little difference in the proportions of women and men in each category.

3.9 TRAINING PROGRAMMES

As noted above the level of qualifications gained by individuals are important determinants of their employment opportunities. Those who leave school with few or no qualifications are far more likely to experience unemployment. In order to facilitate entry into the labour market for unemployed and poorly qualified people, the government provides a range of training schemes: Skillseekers, Modern Apprenticeships, Get Ready for Work, New Deal for Young People, and Training for Work. There are various criteria for participation in these, including unemployment status and age, and the focus of training programmes varies. All are open to both women and men. The Skillseekers programme is for young people between 16 and 18, who have left school and have a job or are looking for work. Modern Apprenticeships provide opportunities for people aged over 16 to be in paid employment, which is linked to training for jobs at craft, technician and management level. There is also a Modern Apprenticeship scheme for people aged 25 and over. Get Ready for Work is for 16 to 18 year olds, and provides skills training and work placements. The New Deal for Young People is open to people aged between 18 and 24, who have been claiming Jobseeker's Allowance for six months or more. Training for Work is open to adults who are 25 or over, who have been unemployed for at least six months within the previous year.

Overall numbers of people participating in such training programmes are relatively small, given the low levels of unemployment in recent years. The tables below indicate the gender balance of trainees on different programmes. Women make up a slight majority of trainees on the Skillseekers programme, and were 53% of all trainees in both 2000/01 and 2005/06 as Table 3.39 below shows.

Table 3.39 Skillseekers (Mainstream), Scotland, 2000-01, 2005-06

	2000-01				2005-06			
	Male	Female	All	% Female	Male	Female	All	% Female
Starts	7,746	8,651	16,397	53	3,880	4,378	8,258	53
Leavers	8,370	8,826	17,196	51	4,033	4,808	8,841	54
In Training	8,034	7,200	15,234	47	4,270	4,323	8,593	50
Vocational Qualifications Achieved	5,479	4,982	10,461	48	2,625	2,954	5,579	53

Source: Enterprise Networks

Notes: Starts definition includes all Starts.

Numbers In Training relates to end of March position in each year.

There is a greater gender difference in the pattern of participation in Modern Apprenticeship schemes for 16 to 24 year olds, though this has declined over time, as Table 3.40 below

shows. In 2005/06 women made up 40% of MA starts compared to 35% in 2000/01. Within the same period women had increased their share of Achieved Modern Apprenticeships from 31% to 45%.

Table 3.40 Modern Apprenticeships 16 to 24 years olds, Scotland, 2000-01, 2005-06

	2000-01				2005-06			
	Male	Female	All	% Female	Male	Female	All	% Female
Starts	6,152	3,350	9,502	35	8,471	5,593	14,064	40
Leavers	4,313	2,272	6,585	35	7,695	5,715	13,410	43
In Training	12,979	2,877	15,856	18	19,747	6,226	25,973	24
Modern Apprenticeships Achieved	2,401	1,075	3,476	31	4,147	3,335	7,482	45

Source: Enterprise Networks

Notes: Starts definition includes all Starts.

Numbers In Training relates to end of March position in each year.

For Modern Apprenticeships for 25 year olds and over, women were in the majority in both 2001/02 and 2005/06, at 63% and 60% of all trainee starts. They were also the majority achieving Modern Apprenticeships in each year, at 58% and 65% respectively.

Table 3.41 Modern Apprenticeships 25 year olds and over, Scotland, 2001-02 and 2005-06

	2001-02				2005-06			
	Male	Female	All	% Female	Male	Female	All	% Female
Starts	1,721	2,887	4,608	63	2,478	3,694	6,172	60
Leavers	89	159	248	64	2,395	4,099	6,494	63
In Training	1,623	2,719	4,342	63	3,551	4,647	8,198	57
Modern Apprenticeships Achieved	27	37	64	58	1,546	2,862	4,408	65

Source: Enterprise Networks

Notes: Starts definition includes all Starts.

Numbers In Training relates to end of March position in each year.

Within the Get Ready for Work programme, as Table 3.42 below shows, men are the majority of participants, at 66% in 2002/03 and 65% in 2005/06. Similar proportions of male and female trainees left the scheme or were in training, though the proportion of women achieving positive outcomes rose significantly between 2002/03 and 2005/06 from 32% to 52%.

Table 3.42 Get Ready for Work, Scotland, 2002-03, 2005-06

	2002-03				2005-06			
	Male	Female	All	% Female	Male	Female	All	% Female
Starts	4,159	2,202	6,391	34	5,846	3,159	9,005	35
Leavers	4,286	2,204	6,490	34	5,989	3,330	9,319	36
In Training	2,267	1,198	3,465	35	2,512	1,223	3,735	33
Positive Outcomes	1,017	484	1,501	32	2,584	2,841	5,425	52

Source: Enterprise Networks

Notes: Starts definition includes all Starts.

Positive Outcomes definition includes Job Outcomes, Self Employment Outcomes and Progressions to Further Education and Training.

With respect to the New Deal for Young People, young men were the majority of starters to the programme in 1998, 2000, and 2005, as Table 3.43 below indicates. In each year respectively, young men were 76%, 73% and 72% of entrants. The proportions of male and female starters to go on to full time employment training were very similar, and were a relatively small proportion of all trainees overall.

Table 3.43 NDYP Starts, Scotland, 1998, 2000, 2005

Scotland	1998			2000			2005		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
Total Starts to NDYP	17,200	5,310	22,520	14,970	5,470	20,450	12,150	4,810	16,980
NDYP Starters to FTET*	1,930	720	2,680	2,510	920	3,450	930	360	1,320
Percentage opting for FTET	11	14	12	17	17	17	8	8	8

Source: Department for Work and Pensions

1. Those identified by Jobcentre Plus as having joined New Deal, including those who have received an initial invitation, but not yet attended their first interview.

Totals include people for whom sub-group information such as gender are not recorded. Because of this, and due rounding, components will not necessarily sum to totals.

* Full time education and training.

Men also make up the majority of entrants to Training for Work programmes, being around two-thirds of all entrants in 1995/96, 2000/01, and 2005/06, as Table 3.44 below shows. Women were proportionately more likely to have positive outcomes, with a higher proportion of female trainees doing so than male trainees on the scheme. For example, in 2005/06 women were 36% of starters, 41% of those in training, and 39% of those with positive outcomes.

Table 3.44 Training for Work, by sex, 1995-96, 2000-01, 2005-06

	1995-96			2000-01			2005-06		
	M	F	% F	M	F	% F	M	F	% F
Starts	7,882	3,944	33	10,127	4,724	32	5,302	2,953	36
Leavers	8,963	4,211	32	987	419	3	5,626	3,047	35
In Training	2,740	1,580	37	4,756	2,106	31	1,413	977	41
Positive Outcomes	3,118	1,916	38	2,917	1,952	40	2,614	1,649	39
Any Other Outcomes	3,332	1,365	29	1,791	965	35	2,170	775	26

Source: Enterprise Networks

Notes: Starts definition includes all Starts.

Positive Outcomes definition includes Job Outcomes, Self Employment Outcomes and Progressions to Further Education and Training.

Other outcomes includes Vocational Qualifications Level 1, 2 and 3 and Specific Qualifications.

3.10 EDUCATIONAL WORKFORCES

This section examines the gender balance of workforces in the education sector, primary and secondary schools, and further and higher education institutions. Although a proportion of the childcare workforce is also within the education sector, data about this workforce is included in Chapter Six on Care and Caring.

The gender balance among teachers for primary, secondary and special schools, taken together, was 75% women and 25% men in 2005, as shown in Table 3.45 below. Women's share of the teaching profession has increased from 70% in 1996.

Table 3.45 Teachers by sex, all sectors, 1990-2005(1)

	female	male	percentage female	total
1996	34,148	14,289	70	48,425
1997	34,065	13,695	71	47,761
1998	35,302	13,172	73	48,454
1999	35,895	13,170	73	49,056
2000	35,903	13,025	73	48,928
2001	35,941	12,929	74	48,869
2002	37,014	13,034	74	50,048
2003	36,485	12,744	74	49,230
2004	36,969	12,586	75	49,554
2005	37,833	12,684	75	50,517

Source: Scottish Executive (2006g) *Teachers in Scotland, 2005*.

1. Male and female figures from previous years may not add to total, as they were published based on provisional figures.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/28083648/102>

Women make up over 90% of all teachers at primary school level, as Table 3.46 below shows. In 1996 they were 91% of all primary school teachers compared to men making up 9% of primary teachers. This had increased to 93% by 2005, with men's share correspondingly decreasing to 7%.

Table 3.46 Primary school teachers by sex, 1990-2005 (1)

	female	male	percentage female	Total
1996	20,405	2,078	91	22,483
1997	20,261	1,926	91	22,187
1998	20,904	1,604	93	22,494
1999	21,090	1,553	93	22,643
2000	20,864	1,565	93	22,429
2001	20,720	1,569	93	22,289
2002	21,316	1,664	93	22,980
2003	20,696	1,625	93	22,321
2004	20,920	1,657	93	22,577
2005	21,185	1,689	93	22,873

Source: Scottish Executive (2006g) *Teachers in Scotland, 2005*.

1. Male and female figures from previous years may not add to total, as they were published based on provisional figures.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/28083648/102>

While women make up the overwhelming majority of primary school teachers, they are under-represented at head teacher level, as Table 3.47 below indicates. Women were 93% of all primary teachers in 2005, but only 81% of head teachers in primary schools. The vast majority of primary school teachers work full-time, with 12.2% working part-time. Women were proportionately more likely than men to be working part-time.

Table 3.47 Primary school teachers by grade, and mode of working, 2005

	Female	Male	Total	percentage female
head teacher	1,667	380	2,046	81
depute head teacher	1,272	131	1,403	91
principal teacher	1,376	116	1,492	92
teacher ⁽¹⁾	16,870	1,062	17,932	94
Total	21,185	1,689	22,873	93
full time				
	Female	Male	Total	percentage female
head teacher	1,639	370	2,009	82
depute head teacher	1,238	128	1,366	91
principal teacher	1,334	115	1,449	92
teacher ⁽¹⁾	14,297	959	15,256	94
Total	18,508	1,572	20,080	92
part-time				
	Female	Male	Total	percentage female
head teacher	28	10	37	74
depute head teacher	34	3	37	91
principal teacher	42	1	43	98
teacher ⁽¹⁾	2,573	103	2,676	96
Total	2,677	117	2,793	96

Source: Scottish Executive (2006g) *Teachers in Scotland, 2005*.

1. Includes probationer induction scheme and chartered teachers.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/28083648/102>

Women also make up a majority of secondary school teachers, and this share has also increased over time, as Table 3.48 below shows. In 1996 women made up 51% of secondary teachers, while men made up 49%. By 2005 women had increased their share to 59%, with a corresponding decrease in men's share to 41%.

Table 3.48 Secondary school teachers by sex, 1990-2005(1)

	female	male	percentage female	total
1996	12,313	11,954	51	24,265
1997	12,369	11,506	52	23,875
1998	12,828	11,263	53	24,086
1999	13,150	11,305	54	24,446
2000	13,385	11,139	55	24,525
2001	13,537	11,015	55	24,552
2002	14,037	11,003	56	25,040
2003	14,117	10,764	57	24,881
2004	14,413	10,571	58	24,984
2005	14,993	10,620	59	25,613

Source: Scottish Executive (2006g) *Teachers in Scotland, 2005*.

1. Male and female figures from previous years may not add to total, as they were published based on provisional figures.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/28083648/102>

As is the case with primary school teachers, women are under-represented in senior positions within secondary schools, as Table 3.49 below indicates. While women made up 59% of all secondary school teachers in 2005, they made up only 21% of head teachers and 41% of depute head teachers. The majority of secondary school teachers worked full-time, with 7.3% working part-time. Women were proportionately more likely than men to be working part-time.

Table 3.49 Secondary school teachers by grade, and mode of working, 2005

	Female	Male	total	percentage female
head teacher	76	286	363	21
depute head teacher	527	773	1,300	41
principal teacher	3,823	3,625	7,448	51
teacher ⁽¹⁾	10,566	5,936	16,502	64
total	14,993	10,620	25,613	59
full time				
	Female	Male	Total	percentage female
head teacher	75	279	354	21
depute head teacher	522	770	1,292	40
principal teacher	3,713	3,596	7,309	51
teacher ⁽¹⁾	9,147	5,645	14,792	62
total	13,457	10,290	23,747	57
part-time				
	Female	Male	Total	percentage female
head teacher	1	7	9	16
depute head teacher	5	3	8	66
principal teacher	110	29	139	79
teacher ⁽¹⁾	1,419	291	1,710	83
total	1,536	330	1,866	82

Source: Scottish Executive (2006g) *Teachers in Scotland, 2005*.

1. Includes probationer induction scheme and chartered teachers.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/28083648/102>

Within Further Education Colleges in 2004/05, women were 46% of full-time staff in academic departments compared to men making up 54% of such staff, while women were 65% of part-time staff in academic departments compared to men making up 35% of such staff, as Table 3.50 below indicates. Of full-time and part-time staff taken together, women made up 51% and men made up 49%. Women full-time staff had a share of head of department and lecturing posts proportionate to their share of academic staff overall, while men were much more likely to be research or lab assistants. Of cross college staff, 59% of full-timers were women and 41% were men, while 84% of part-timers were women and 16% were men. Women were under-represented at senior management level, with women full-timers making up 24% of Principals, 38% of Depute/Assistant Principals, and 43% of other senior management.

Table 3.50 Further Education Colleges: Staff FTE by departmental/cross college, grade of post, and mode, 2004-05

Staff in academic departments	FTE							
	Full-time				Part-time			
	Male	Female	Total	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Total	Female as % of total
Head of Department	164	134	299	45	4	2	5	34
Lecturer / Instructor / Senior Lecturer	2,234	1,818	4,052	45	694	1,195	1,889	63
Research / Lab Assistant	67	19	87	22	9	11	20	55
Other staff	260	313	573	55	19	129	148	87
Total	2,726	2,284	5,011	46	726	1,337	2,063	65
Cross college staff								
Principal	33	10	43	24	1	-	1	0
Depute / Assistant Principal, etc	80	49	129	38	2	1	2	35
Other senior management	125	95	221	43	2	2	4	46
Lecturer / Instructor / Senior Lecturer	47	37	84	44	10	10	20	51
Research / Lab Assistant	27	12	39	31	2	3	5	56
Other staff	1,411	2,270	3,681	62	152	876	1,028	85
Total	1,723	2,474	4,197	59	169	892	1,061	84

Source: Statistics Branch, Scottish Funding Councils for Further and Higher Education.

www.sfc.ac.uk/statistics/fe_information/facts_figures/0405/staffing/staffing_04...

Note: totals may not match due to rounding of data.

The gender balance of staff at Further Education Colleges varies with age, as Table 3.51 below shows. Women made up the majority of teaching staff in 2004/05 in the younger age groups of 29 or less, and 30-49, at 58% and 54% respectively, while men made up the majority of teaching staff in the older age groups of 50-59 and 60 or over, at 53% and 70% respectively. Women made up the majority of non-teaching staff in the 29 or less, 30-49 and 50-59 age groups, at 70%, 65% and 58% respectively, while men were the majority in the 60 or over age group at 54%.

Table 3.51 Further Education Colleges: Staff FTE by age, type of staff, 2004-05

Age (as at 1 August 2004)	FTE							
	Teaching				Non-teaching (support)			
	Male	Female	Total	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Total	Female as % of total
29 or less	114	160	275	58	293	685	978	70
30-49	1,611	1,906	3,517	54	1,106	2,042	3,148	65
50-59	1,103	995	2,098	47	664	923	1,587	58
60 or over	266	114	380	30	183	155	338	46
Information refused / not known	3	5	8	67	1	2	2	76
Total	3,097	3,181	6,278	51	2,247	3,806	6,053	63

Source: Statistics Branch, Scottish Funding Councils for Further and Higher Education.

www.sfc.ac.uk/statistics/fe_information/facts_figures/0405/staffing/staffing_04...

Note: totals may not match due to rounding of data.

Within institutions of Higher Education, men make up the majority of academic staff as Table 3.52 below shows. In 1995/96 men were 70% of academic staff. This share had decreased to 60% by 2003/04.

Table 3.52 Academic staff (headcount) by sex, 1995-96 to 2003-04

Year	Women	Men	Total	Women as % of total
1995-96	4,282	9,872	14,154	30
1996-97	4,762	9,857	14,619	33
1997-98	4,770	9,628	14,398	33
1998-99	5,128	9,837	14,965	34
1999-2000	5,339	9,810	15,149	35
2000-01	5,604	9,949	15,553	36
2001-02	5,938	10,200	16,138	37
2002-03	6,193	10,066	16,259	38
2003-04	6,991	10,615	17,606	40

Source: HESA. Scottish Funding Council (2006) *Gender in Scottish Higher Education: What's the issue?*
http://www.sfc.ac.uk/publications/SFC_Gender_Report_July_2006.pdf

Within different categories of academic staff there are variations in the gender balance, as Table 3.53 below shows. While women made up 38% of all academic staff in 2003/04, they were only 31% of those carrying out both teaching and research, 46% of those carrying out research only and 50% of those carrying out teaching only. The difference in categories also implies differences in pay and in the likelihood of permanent or temporary employment, with women being more likely to be employed in lower paid and temporary positions, such as researchers on fixed term research contracts.

Table 3.53 Academic staff by sex and main area of work, Scottish HEIs, 2003-04

	Women	Men	Total	Women as % of total
All academic staff	6,193	10,066	16,259	38
Teaching and research	2,712	6,151	8,863	31
Research only	2,687	3,109	5,796	46
Teaching only	794	806	1,600	50

Source: HESA. Scottish Funding Council (2006) *Gender in Scottish Higher Education: What's the issue?*
http://www.sfc.ac.uk/publications/SFC_Gender_Report_July_2006.pdf

Table 3.54 Academic staff by grade/seniority at Scottish HEIs, 1999-2000 to 2003-04

	1999-2000		2000-01		2001-02		2003-04	
	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total	Total	Female as % of total
All academic staff	16,035	35	16,225	36	16,760	37	17,840	40
Other	1,170	50	1,230	48	1,420	48	2,875	45
Researchers	4,875	46	5,015	46	5,305	46	5,545	49
Lecturers	5,160	39	5,110	40	5,015	41	4,685	44
Senior lecturers and researchers	2,920	21	2,880	22	2,980	24	2,880	26
Professors	1,905	12	1,990	13	2,040	13	1,855	14

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)
 Numbers have been rounded to the nearest 5 to protect confidentiality
 Values may not sum to total due to rounding

Women are under-represented in senior academic positions, as Table 3.54 above indicates. In 2003/04 women were 40% of all academic staff, but only 14 % of professors, an increase from 12% in 1999/2000. In 2003/04 women were 26% of Senior lecturers and researchers compared to 21% in 1999/2000. Over the same period women had increased their share of lecturing posts and research posts, being over-represented in these junior positions compared to their overall share of academic posts, at 44% and 49% respectively in 2003/04.

The gender distribution of academic staff by subject area varies considerably, reflecting the subjects studied in earlier years at secondary school and at degree level. As Table 3.55 below shows, women are over-represented compared to their share of academic staff as a whole in a number of areas such as Subjects allied to medicine, Education, Biological Sciences, and Languages, while men are over-represented compared to their share of academic staff as a whole in subjects such as Engineering, Architecture and Building, Physical Sciences, and Mathematical and Computer Sciences.

Table 3.55 Gender ratio among academic staff by broad subject area, 2003-04

Subject area	Women	Men	Total	Women as % of total
Subjects allied to medicine	921	578	1,499	61
Education	265	204	469	57
Mass communication and documentation	68	75	143	48
Biological sciences	1,210	1,359	2,569	47
European languages, literature and related subjects	107	124	231	46
Linguistics, classics and related subjects	197	229	426	46
Business and administrative studies	361	488	849	43
Creative arts and design	218	318	536	41
Social studies	513	755	1,268	41
Languages	25	38	63	40
Law	154	247	401	38
Veterinary sciences, agriculture and related subjects	93	154	247	38
Medicine and dentistry	301	580	881	34
Historical and philosophical studies	194	471	665	29
Technologies	33	84	117	28
Mathematical and computer sciences	258	862	1,120	23
Physical sciences	288	1,242	1,530	19
Architecture, building and planning	49	215	264	19
Engineering	130	1,040	1,170	11
Not known	808	1,001	1,809	45
All academic staff	6,193	10,064	16,257	38

Source: HESA. Scottish Funding Council (2006) *Gender in Scottish Higher Education: What's the issue?*
http://www.sfc.ac.uk/publications/SFC_Gender_Report_July_2006.pdf

3.11 SUMMARY

This chapter has examined statistical evidence of gender differences in educational participation and performance, in training programmes and work-related training, and of the gender composition of education workforces in Scotland. Girls perform better than boys at school, tend to stay on longer at school, and leave school with better qualifications. Women now make up a majority of entrants to further and higher education. Boys are more likely than girls to be excluded from schools, and to have particular support needs for educational or behavioural reasons. While girls' performance has been better than boys' for some time, subject choices at secondary school, and in further and higher education, remain noticeably gendered, and tend to follow patterns of 'traditional' male and female career choices in certain

areas, such as nursing for women and engineering for men. While there have been some shifts in the gender balance of students in some subject areas, these have not always been in the direction of greater equality. Such subject choices determine work and career opportunities open to women and men, and play a part in sustaining gender differentials in pay.

Women are more likely than men to benefit from work-related training, though there is little difference between women and men in the likelihood of undertaking some sort of learning as an adult, with the most significant factor differentiating people being the level of qualifications held. The gender balance of those taking part in government training programmes varies across programmes, with men being in the majority in most programmes.

Women make up the majority of teachers at primary and secondary school level (75% of these taken together), but remain under-represented in senior positions. Women are a slight majority of academic staff in Further Education, but are under-represented in senior management positions. Men are the majority of academic staff in Higher Education overall (61.3%), and make up higher proportions the more senior the level, with men making up 86.5% of all professors.

Education is an area in which there have been a number of gender-focussed studies over the years, including assessments of the effectiveness of equal opportunities policies in schools (see Brown, Breitenbach and Myers, 1994; Myers and Brown, 1996; Innes, 2003; Turner et al, 1995), and the transformation of girls' and women's educational performance has been widely recognised (see, for example, Paterson et al, 2004). Recent studies with a gender focus, however, seem to be few. A review of literature and research on gender and pupil performance (Tinklin et al, 2001) was undertaken to address concerns about the relative attainment of males and females. This found that average levels of attainment had increased for both males and females over the past three decades, but that the gain in attainment by males had not kept up with that of females. It also found, however, that social background was a greater source of inequality and underachievement than gender, and that average figures for attainment concealed differences between different groups of boys and different groups of girls. The differences between high and low attainers of both sexes were greater than the differences between boys and girls.

Recent research commissioned by the Scottish Executive on gender inequalities in Scottish schools confirmed the pattern of gender difference in attainment observed by Tinklin et al, also stressing that gender differences were mediated by other factors, especially social class (Forde et al, 2006). A review of the literature concluded that the construction of gender identities started with early experiences in the family and continued throughout schooling, and that the evidence suggested that gender is socially and culturally formed. Within schools, there were differences in the styles of learning of boys and girls, which needed different styles of teaching, and girls and boys related differently to schooling and learning, with girls finding it easier to succeed in school settings. Differential patterns of attainment emerged very early, though girls do not necessarily sustain their higher attainment after school, with some working class young women in particular being quickly subordinated to young men in their post-school experience. Possible strategies to address gender difference were identified as 'gender sensitive' teaching, classroom organisation e.g. single gender classes, and whole school perspectives on promoting gender equality. Within vocational education, gender stereotyping was still apparent, with this disadvantaging girls in particular. The accompanying review of strategies to address gender inequalities (Condie et al, 2006) found that there were few instances of focussed gender equality policies in schools, and that local authority policies

tended to have a broader approach to social justice and social inclusion, in which gender was not always a clearly defined element. The most successful initiatives identified were at pre-school and primary school level, with there being little engagement with the issue at secondary school level. Where strategies were most effective, there tended to be a champion or champions in the school, often at senior level, driving the strategy, and the most successful practice engaged staff, pupils and parents. The report also noted that in the light of the introduction of the Gender Equality Duty, schools and authorities would have to take cognisance of this in their policies and procedures.

Research on the gender balance of the teaching workforce (Riddell et al, 2005) found that there were a number of reasons for the continuing feminisation of the teaching profession. This included the continued gendering of subject choices and career choices, the attractions for male graduates in some subject areas of better paid employment elsewhere, the female image of the profession acting as a deterrent to men, and suspicion towards men who wish to work with children, especially young children. Reasons for the gender hierarchy in promoted posts, where women are under-represented, were identified as including gendered stereotypes about roles and responsibilities for childcare. It was found that drop-out rates from teacher training courses were higher for men than for women, and teaching did not appear to be particularly highly regarded as a profession. The report made a number of recommendations for the promotion of the teaching profession to men.

In preparation for the introduction of the Gender Equality Duty, the Scottish Funding Council carried out research on gender and higher education (Scottish Funding Council, 2006). This outlined the changes that have occurred in the gender balance of participation in higher education, and commented on the marked gender differences in subject choices which persist in higher education. The report commented on the gender pay gap that exists for graduates, with contributory factors being thought to be occupational segregation, and the fact that many women may be working below their qualification level, for example, because the work for which they are qualified does not provide flexible working arrangements. Nonetheless, the graduate 'premium' for women is high, i.e. the difference in earnings between those with a degree and those without, and is higher than the graduate 'premium' for men. The report also noted the under-representation of women in senior academic posts. The report concluded that universities had a role to play in challenging gender stereotypes in subject choice, and that the under-representation of women in senior positions needed to be tackled. It also identified the low level of participation in higher education by men as a priority for future work on widening participation.

The gendered character of training provision is also a topic that has previously received attention, and was covered by the research reviews cited above. The previous problem of lack of gender disaggregated data on training has now been remedied as the statistics included in this chapter show. The Equal Opportunities Commission has continued to be concerned about unequal access to training programmes and about gender stereotyping within these, and the Modern Apprenticeships programme in Scotland has been the focus of research, as part of a general formal investigation into the segregation of men and women in training and work in Britain. In a series of reports, the position with regard to gender stereotyping of Modern Apprenticeship schemes has been outlined, and the role of Local Enterprise Companies (LECs) in promoting gender equality and the experience of trainees has been investigated (Thomson, McKay and Gillespie, 2004; Thomson, McKay, Campbell and Gillespie, 2004; and Thomson et al, 2005). It was found that in general the LECs did little to encourage trainees to consider non-traditional jobs, and it was recommended that LECs needed to

become more involved in encouraging non-stereotypical career choices, and more pro-active in ensuring that employers recognised that gender segregation could result in loss of efficiency. It was also found that, given the tendency for more girls than boys to continue academic education, the pool of young female leavers who might enter the Modern Apprenticeship scheme was relatively small. Trainees reported negative attitudes from peers, family, and friends if they attempted to make a non-traditional career choice, and also reported experiencing discrimination. A recent evaluation of Modern Apprenticeships and Skillseekers (Cambridge Policy Consultants, 2006) noted that male and female participation across the programmes overall was evenly balanced. However, it noted that there were marked gender differences in participation in specific areas, such as construction, where participation was almost entirely male. It also noted that participation of both people from minority ethnic groups and disabled people was below what might be expected based on their representation in the population as a whole.

With respect to ethnicity, analysis of the 2001 census indicated that people from minority ethnic groups were at least as likely or more likely than the White population to have degrees or equivalent qualification (Scottish Executive, 2004b). Data on the ethnicity of students in HE and FE are not strictly comparable with census data, since the former include the ethnic origin of students from other countries as well as Scottish domiciled minority ethnic students. They do, however, illustrate that there are different patterns of participation from different minority ethnic groups, and that the gender balance of students also varies between groups. There appears to be little information about attainment at other levels of education. The audit of research on minority ethnic issues concluded that the education system in general had largely failed to take on issues of racial equality, within teaching and learning, or within teacher training (Netto et al, 2001). It also found that minority ethnic people were under-represented in the teaching workforce at all levels, and that minority ethnic parents appeared to be under-represented on decision-making bodies. Linguistic and cultural diversity received inadequate recognition, and there was little support for bilingual learners.

It has been recognised that there have been major changes in education policy for disabled people (Riddell and Banks, 2001), in particular the change from a situation of exclusion from mainstream education to inclusion in it. However, it was noted that many barriers still existed to effective participation for disabled people, including inaccessible buildings, unmodified teaching programmes, and the lack of materials in formats appropriate for disabled people. Given this changed policy context, Riddell and Banks emphasised the importance of improved statistical data, and the need to carry out further research to monitor the extent to which inclusion of disabled people in mainstream education was occurring, and to investigate how their educational experiences were affected by characteristics such as gender, race, and social class.

That social class is particularly significant in relation to differences in educational performance and participation was noted by Tinklin et al (2001), and is also confirmed by the data analysed in *Social Focus on Deprived Areas* (Scottish Executive, 2005d). This does not provide a gender breakdown, but notes in general that more pupils in special schools come from deprived areas, that absence from school is more of a problem, that pupils are less likely to achieve expected levels of attainment for 5-14 year olds, that higher proportions of pupils leave school without any qualifications, and that they are under-represented in higher education, though have relatively more enrolments at further education colleges than the population as a whole.

As noted above, there is a wide range of gender disaggregated data available on educational topics. Nonetheless, data in certain areas have not been regularly published, for example data on staff in further and higher education, or in the case of the latter have to be purchased from the Higher Education Statistics Agency. With respect to research certain areas seem to have been neglected, for example, there appears to be no research investigating the gender dimension of work-related training or adult learning, and it is therefore not known what impact such training or learning may have on career and pay prospects or job opportunities. While both gender and social class are recognised as significant categories in terms of differences in educational participation and performance, there is more scope for analysis of how these intersect. In terms of the obligations which will arise for public bodies as a result of the Gender Equality Duty, the issues of attainment, subject choice, participation, and composition of workforces, especially at senior levels, would all be areas which equality plans might be expected to address.

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CHAPTER FOUR THE LABOUR MARKET

This chapter examines statistical evidence of women's and men's participation in the labour market, including employment and unemployment, hours of work, distribution of men and women by occupation and industry, flexible working and self-employment,

4.1 POLICY CONTEXT

Much employment legislation relevant to the equal treatment of women and men in the labour market, and providing support to women's participation through maternity leave provision, is regulated by EU directives, and implemented through the enactment of domestic legislation such as the Equal Pay Act, the Sex Discrimination Act and the Employment Rights Act. Employment is an area reserved to the UK parliament, and thus there is no separate Scottish legislation as such relevant to the promotion of gender equality in the labour market. There are, however, programmes, projects and campaigns relevant to gender equality in the labour market which are supported by the Scottish Executive. This section outlines key policy objectives on gender equality in the labour market to which the EU, the UK government and the Scottish Executive are respectively committed.

4.1.1 EU

In addition to the EU directives on equal treatment, with which member states must comply through enactment of domestic legislation on equal pay and equal treatment, for example, the EU has made commitments to gender equality in employment in its Lisbon strategy for growth and jobs, and has also reaffirmed its commitment to gender equality in its social agenda. The Lisbon strategy set as a target an employment rate of 70% for women by 2010 in all member states.

Key EU priorities (CEC, 2006) on gender equality in the strategy for growth and employment are:

- Reducing the employment rate gap, in particular among older workers;
- Reducing the pay gap;
- Promoting work patterns that fully value the qualifications of workers, while ensuring employment security and social rights and benefits;
- Reforming tax and benefit systems to create incentives and eliminate disincentives for lower earners in households with carers.

Key EU priorities on the reconciliation of work and private life are:

- An increase in provision for childcare and other forms of caring;
- Promotion and dissemination of work-life balance policies;
- Accessibility to public services which are compatible with work schedules;
- Challenging sexist stereotypes and encouraging men to take up their responsibilities in the domestic and family sphere.

4.1.2 UK

Key UK government targets to promote women's economic participation and advancement are published by the Women and Equality Unit (WEU, 2003, 2005, 2006), and are briefly summarised below.

The Government's overall aim is to increase competitiveness and generate higher levels of sustainable growth and productivity in a modern economy, and it aims to ensure that all

women have the opportunity to play a full role in the economic life of the nation, which will both benefit individuals and UK competitiveness and productivity.

Specific objectives include:

- Increasing participation rates for disadvantaged groups, such as lone parents, ethnic minorities, people aged 50 and over, those with the lowest qualifications;
- Reducing the number of children in low-income households;
- Creating more childcare places;
- Reducing the gender pay gap through the encouragement of equal pay reviews;
- Encouraging flexible working;
- Increasing the number of women entrepreneurs;
- Increasing women's representation on Science Engineering and Technology (SET) related boards and councils;
- Working with business to reverse the serious under-representation of women in ITEC jobs;
- Increasing the proportion of men in the childcare workforce.

The UK government also set up a Women and Work Commission to investigate barriers to gender equality in relation to work and pay. The Commission's report *Shaping a Fairer Future*, (2006) recommended changes to education to reduce stereotyped choices of careers, better support and training for women to enter a wider range of careers, and action on all causes of the equal pay gap.

4.1.3 Scottish Executive

In line with the general policy objectives of the EU and the UK government, the Scottish Executive also works to promote women's economic participation and advancement. In particular it is committed to the following objectives (Scottish Executive Equality Unit, 2006):

- Reducing the pay gap, through support for the Close the Gap campaign to raise awareness, and through encouraging equal pay reviews, and through carrying out its own equal pay reviews;
- Encouraging flexible working;
- Addressing occupational segregation, through the creation of a cross-departmental group on occupational segregation, and joint work with the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC), Scottish Enterprise and Careers Scotland;
- Increasing the number of men working in childcare;
- Tackling gender stereotyping in Modern Apprenticeships;
- Increasing the proportion of women in the Senior Civil Service;
- Supporting women entrepreneurs.

4.2 WOMEN AND MEN IN THE LABOUR MARKET IN SCOTLAND

Key points:

- The gender balance in the labour force in Scotland is around 50% women and 50% men, and has been so for some time.
- Men are more likely to be economically active than are women, 83% compared to 76% in 2006, but the gender gap has been decreasing.

- Women are more likely than men to be economically inactive, 24% compared to 17% in 2006.
- As women's participation in the labour market has increased, the gap between women's and men's employment rates had decreased, and was 5% in 2006 compared to 20% in 1984.
- Unemployment has declined to a low level for both women and men, and was at 5% for women and 6% for men (ILO unemployment measure) in 2005.
- Women are far more likely to work part-time than are men, with 41% of all women workers working part-time in 2005, compared to 10% of male workers.
- Women with dependent children of pre-school age are less likely to be in full-time employment, 24% in 2004, compared to 38% of women with dependent children aged 11-14, and 52% of women with dependent children aged 15 or over.
- Women are more likely than men to use flexible working arrangements, 55% of women workers compared to 22% of male workers in 2005. Part-time work was the common form of flexible working arrangement.
- Women and men are distributed differently across industrial sectors. In 2004, women made up the majority of employees in Public Administration, Education and Health (72%), Distribution, Hotels and Catering and Repairs (56%), and Banking, Finance and Insurance (51%). By contrast men made up the majority of employees in Construction (89%), Energy and Water Supply (82%), Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (75%), Manufacturing (73%), and Transport and Communication (72%).
- Women and men are also distributed differently across occupational categories, with in 2006 women representing a large majority of workers in personal services (85%), administrative and secretarial occupations (81%), and sales and customer services occupations (71%). By contrast men represent the large majority of workers in the occupational categories of managers and senior officials (64%), process, plant and machine operatives (86%), and skilled trades (92%).
- Women predominate in key public sector workforces such as teaching (93% of primary teachers, and 58% of secondary teachers in 2004), the NHS (78% in 2005) and local government (67% in 2005), but are under-represented in senior positions.
- Men are more likely to be self-employed than women, with 13% of all male employees being self-employed compared to 6% of female employees in 2006.
- In general both minority ethnic women and men are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be unemployed than the White population, although there are differences between minority ethnic groups in patterns of labour market participation.
- Disabled people are far less likely to be in employment than non-disabled people, with 45% of disabled women of working age being in employment compared to 78% of non-disabled women in 2004, and 47% of disabled men of working age being in employment compared to 85% of non-disabled men in the same year.

4.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

4.3.1 Key sources of data

The key data sources for gender disaggregated labour market statistics are the Labour Force Survey (LFS), Annual Local Labour Force Survey, and Annual Population Survey, though also included in this chapter are administrative data on claimant count unemployment, local government joint staffing watch data, data from the 2001 Census and from the ONS Annual Business Inquiry. However, few of the tables published here are routinely published in this form, though a range of tables from the LFS including gender disaggregated data is available online. There is considerable scope for further analysis of LFS data.

4.3.2 Possible uses of data

Relevant public bodies, such as government departments, the enterprise network, and local authorities, may use such data in fulfilment of their responsibility for economic development and planning. This might include strategies relating to skills development, recruitment, encouragement of investment within particular sectors, and local economic development. In order to tackle gender imbalances key issues to be addressed are flexible working arrangements to facilitate continuity in women's employment, distribution of part-time work and types of part-time work, the improvement of training and career opportunities for part-time workers, occupational segregation, and under-representation of women in senior positions. More detailed profiles by sector, and by geographic area (which LFS data permit) would help identify divergence from the Scottish average, and therefore both where gender inequalities are greatest and smallest. This would inform gender equality schemes, which should also include promotion of gender equalities for the employees of the relevant public bodies.

4.4 THE GENDER BALANCE OF THE LABOUR FORCE

The patterns of gendered participation in the labour market have changed in significant ways in recent decades, yet there also remain significant differences in the working lives of women and men. Women's share of the labour force in Scotland was 51% in 2005, a share which has increased from 42% in 1976 (see Breitenbach, 1982). Since 1993, women have made up half the labour force, with very slight fluctuations round this point, as Table 4.1 below indicates.

Table 4.1 Distribution of men and women the workforce: 1990-2005 (thousands)

Year	Women	Men	Total	Women as % of total
1993	1044.7	1045.3	2090.1	50
1994	1067.3	1032.2	2099.5	51
1995	1064.1	1034.7	2098.8	51
1996	1074.3	1003.6	2077.9	52
1997	1122.2	1048.6	2170.7	52
1998	1085.5	1081.9	2167.4	50
1999	1089.8	1095.4	2185.2	50
2000	1146.7	1099.5	2246.2	51
2001	1164.1	1135.9	2300	51
2002	1170.8	1112	2282.7	51
2003	1183.4	1126.1	2309.5	51
2004	1192.1	1134.7	2326.8	51
2005	1197.6	1144.1	2341.7	51

Sources: Quarterly Employee Jobs (December Quarter Each Year)

4.5 ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND INACTIVITY⁵

Rates of economic activity for women and men have changed over time, as Table 4.2 shows. The economic activity rate is a measure of the proportion of people of working age (16-64 for men, 16-59 for women) who are in work or actively seeking work (and includes registered unemployed people). Women's economic activity rate was 76% in 2006, having increased from 63% since 1984. Men's economic activity rate was 83% in 2006, and has declined from 88% in 1984.

Table 4.2 Economic activity and economic inactivity rates, 1984-2006

Year	Economic activity Age 16-59/64 Rate %		Economic Inactivity Age 16-59/64 Rate %	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
1984	63	88	37	12
1985	65	87	35	13
1986	64	86	36	14
1987	67	86	33	14
1988	67	86	33	14
1989	69	86	31	14
1990	69	86	31	14
1991	69	85	31	15
1992	71	86	29	14
1993	69	84	31	16
1994	71	85	29	15
1995	71	83	29	17
1996	70	83	30	17
1997	71	82	29	18
1998	72	82	28	18
1999	72	81	28	19
2000	73	83	27	17
2001	73	82	27	18
2002	75	82	25	18
2003	74	83	26	17
2004	75	83	25	17
2005	76	83	24	17
2006	76	83	24	17

Source: LFS (Mar-May quarter), not seasonally adjusted

Also reflecting changes in patterns of labour market participation are economic inactivity rates, as also shown in Table 4.2 above. The economically inactive population includes those people not in work or not seeking work for a variety of reasons, including participation in education, ill health/disability, early retirement, or domestic or caring responsibilities. As can be seen from the table above a far higher proportion of women of working age are economically inactive than men of working age, though their rate of economic activity is declining slowly. Men's economic inactivity rates have fluctuated to some extent over the period between 1984 and 2006, though in general have tended to rise from 13% in 1984 to 17% in 2006. The higher level of economic inactivity for women is likely to reflect caring

⁵ The economic activity rate is a measure of the proportion of people of working age (16-64 for men, 16-59 for women) who are in work or actively seeking work (and therefore includes registered unemployed people). The economically inactive population includes those people not in work or not seeking work for a variety of reasons, including participation in education, ill health/disability, early retirement, or domestic or caring responsibilities.

responsibilities, while the rise for men is likely to reflect increasing participation in higher education and early retirement.

There are differences in the main reasons for economic inactivity for women and men, as Table 4.3 below shows. Far more women than men are economically inactive because of domestic or family responsibilities, and among women this is the largest group which is economically inactive. Among men, those with a long term illness are the biggest group of economically inactive men. However, there is also a relatively large group of women who are economically inactive as a result of long term illness.

Table 4.3 Reasons for economic inactivity, population aged 16-59/64, Scotland, 2006 (Jan-Mar) (thousands) (not seasonally adjusted)

Reasons for economic inactivity	Women	Men
Student	75	73
Looking after family/home	149	16
Temporarily sick	*	10
Long-term sick	106	122
Discouraged workers	*	*
Retired	14	34
Other	28	21
Does not want a job	270	183
Wants a job	110	96

Source: Labour Force Survey

* not available

4.6 EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES

The employment rate for women has similarly increased over the longer term, and declined for men. This is distinguished from the economic activity rate in that it measures the proportion of people in employment in relation to the population of working age (i.e. does not include registered unemployed people).

Table 4.4 Employment rates, 1985; 1995-2006: Scotland

Year	Employment Rate %	
	Females	Males
1985	57	74
1995	66	75
1996	66	74
1997	66	74
1998	68	75
1999	68	74
2000	68	75
2001	70	77
2002	70	76
2003	71	78
2004	71	77
2005	72	78
2006	72	77

Source: LFS (Mar-May quarter), not seasonally adjusted

Women's employment rate has increased from 57% in 1985 to 72% in 2006, as Table 4.4 above shows. Men's employment rate was at a slightly higher level in 2006 at 77%, and was

at a slightly higher rate than in 1985 at 74% though has fluctuated in the intervening period. With the steady increase in women's employment rates, the gap between women's and men's employment rates had declined to 5% in 2006 compared with 17% in 1985.

The unemployment rate for both women and men has fluctuated considerably in recent decades, with periods of high unemployment occurring at times of recession in the 1980s. The general trend since the early 1990s has been for unemployment to decline for both women and men. The unemployment rate measures the proportion of people unemployed in relation to the population of working age. There are however two ways of measuring the unemployment rate. The first is by using the official claimant count, which includes only those people claiming unemployment related benefits. The second is by using the International Labour Organisation (ILO) definition of the unemployed, which covers people who are: out of work, want a job, have actively sought work in the previous four weeks and are available to start work in the next fortnight; or out of work and have accepted a job that they are waiting to start in the next fortnight. Typically rates of unemployment based on the claimant count show men's unemployment as considerably higher than women's unemployment. Using the ILO measure indicates higher unemployment rates for both women and men than that indicated by the claimant count, and it also reduces the difference in unemployment rates between women and men.

Table 4.5 below indicates the decline in unemployment for women and men in Scotland. As noted claimant count measures indicate lower levels of unemployment than the ILO measure, but similarly indicates the decline in levels of unemployment in Scotland. In 2006, the ILO unemployment rate for men was 6% and for women was 5%, less than half that for both sexes in 1985.

Table 4.5 Unemployment rates, 1985; 1995-2006: Scotland

	ILO Unemployment Rate %		Claimant Count Unemployment Rate %			
	Not Seasonally Adjusted		Seasonally Adjusted		Not Seasonally Adjusted	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
1985	12	15	9	15	10	16
1995	7	10	4	11	4	11
1996	6	11	4	11	4	11
1997	7	10	3	10	3	9
1998	6	9	3	8	3	8
1999	6	9	3	8	3	8
2000	6	9	2	7	2	7
2001	4	7	2	6	2	6
2002	6	8	2	6	2	6
2003	5	6	2	5	2	6
2004	5	7	2	5	2	6
2005	5	6	2	5	2	5
2006	5	6	2	5	2	5

Source: ILO Unemployment - LFS (Mar-May quarter), not seasonally adjusted
 Claimant Count - JCP Administrative Database, April each year

There are gender differences in the patterns of long-term unemployment, and the impact of unemployment also differs with age. Table 4.6 below indicates that in all age groups there are more men than women who are long term unemployed (unemployed for a year or more), and

that the problem of long-term unemployment is more serious for the older age groups of people aged 35-49 years and 50 years and over.

Table 4.6 Claimant unemployment by sex, age and duration of unemployment, 2001-2006

Age group	Duration of unemployment							
	Men				Women			
	<3 months	3-6 months	6-12 months	1year +	<3 months	3-6 months	6-12 months	1year +
Under 24 years								
2001	12,605	5,120	2,770	205	5,690	1,970	985	90
2002	12,110	4,845	2,885	175	5,660	2,060	985	110
2003	12,495	5,130	2,560	185	5,650	2,170	965	120
2004	11,045	4,620	2,710	260	5,130	2,045	1,105	140
2005	10,855	4,725	2,610	355	4,930	2,010	1,025	165
2006	10,085	5,380	3,410	510	4,840	2,395	1,320	235
25-34 years								
2001	9,300	4,585	4,590	4,505	2,390	965	740	600
2002	9,720	4,665	4,320	3,090	2,415	960	665	405
2003	9,330	4,555	4,175	2,645	2,360	945	700	355
2004	7,940	3,900	3,730	2,620	1,985	815	625	380
2005	7,515	3,655	3,295	2,225	1,795	785	595	370
2006	6,955	3,845	3,880	2,435	1,750	800	635	395
35-49 years								
2001	8,055	4,290	4,360	7,290	2,840	1,230	1,020	1,255
2002	9,260	4,675	4,750	4,840	2,965	1,330	1,065	850
2003	9,055	4,650	5,045	4,150	3,045	1,490	1,170	735
2004	7,685	4,175	4,550	4,225	2,650	1,355	1,100	815
2005	7,110	3,870	3,910	3,915	2,640	1,225	1,030	775
2006	6,985	4,115	4,540	4,005	2,610	1,355	1,165	875
50 + years								
2001	3,845	2,080	2,155	4,615	1,440	750	635	1,060
2002	4,605	2,405	2,385	4,035	1,555	775	695	890
2003	4,555	2,250	2,385	4,250	1,515	775	680	900
2004	3,890	1,925	2,250	4,325	1,490	735	620	915
2005	3,395	1,795	1,835	4,050	1,520	715	675	925
2006	3,150	1,825	2,065	4,010	1,510	755	725	990

Source: Office for National Statistics. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scottish Economic Statistics, 2006*.

Notes: June of each year.

The claimant count consists of people who are claiming unemployment-related benefits.

Approximately 1 percent of all claims are clerical and therefore not included in this dataset.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/28151648/0>

4.7 REGIONAL VARIATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT, ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND UNEMPLOYMENT

There are variations in the patterns of employment, economic inactivity and unemployment across Scotland, as Table 4.7 below shows. This indicates that in 2004 male employment rates varied from over 88% in the Orkneys and Shetlands to 67% in Glasgow, while female employment rates varied from 80% in Shetland to 63% in Glasgow. While the average gap between male and female unemployment rates was 6%, in some areas it was narrower, such

as Argyll and Bute, Renfrewshire and South Ayrshire, while in the Western Isles women's employment rate was higher than men's.

Table 4.7 Employment, economic inactivity, and unemployment rates, by local authority, 2004

2004 Resident Local Authority Area	Employment Rate (%)			Economic inactivity rate (%)		Unemployment rate - claimant count (%)	
	Females	Males	Lone Parents	Females	Males	Females	Males
Scotland	72	78	55	25	17	2	5
Aberdeen City	72	82	64	24	12	1	3
Aberdeenshire	73	86	60	23	10	1	2
Angus	73	80	58	24	16	2	4
Argyll & Bute	76	79	65	22	17	2	4
Scottish Borders	75	83	82	23	13	1	3
Clackmannanshire	68	77	47	29	17	2	6
West Dunbartonshire	68	74	56	30	18	2	7
Dumfries and Galloway	74	83	69	23	14	2	4
Dundee City	67	71	55	28	21	2	8
East Ayrshire	67	75	52	30	19	2	7
East Dunbartonshire	77	84	73	20	14	1	3
East Lothian	74	81	73	22	15	1	3
East Renfrewshire	77	84	60	21	12	1	3
Edinburgh, City of	72	81	53	24	16	2	5
Falkirk	74	79	64	24	16	2	5
Fife	74	80	52	22	16	2	6
Glasgow City	63	67	39	33	26	2	8
Highland	80	85	68	18	11	2	4
Inverclyde	70	70	51	27	23	2	8
Midlothian	78	84	61	19	13	1	3
Moray	73	81	65	25	16	2	3
North Ayrshire	65	74	51	30	18	3	7
North Lanarkshire	68	73	52	29	21	2	5
Orkney Islands	78	88	*	20	10	1	2
Perth and Kinross	73	82	65	24	14	1	3
Renfrewshire	74	76	56	24	20	2	6
Shetland Islands	80	89	*	19	9	1	3
South Ayrshire	73	76	55	24	18	2	6
South Lanarkshire	73	77	64	24	18	2	5
Stirling	72	81	54	24	14	2	5
West Lothian	75	83	64	23	14	2	4
Eilean Siar (Western Isles)	79	76	*	18	19	1	5

Source: Annual Scottish Labour Force Survey

* data not available

Table 4.7 above also shows that economic inactivity rates also varied considerably and were highest in Glasgow for both men and women. The average gap between male and female economic inactivity rates was 8%, and was at its narrowest in the Western Isles at 1%, and at

its widest in Aberdeenshire at 14%. Unemployment rates similarly varied, being highest for men in Glasgow, followed by Dundee, and for women in North Ayrshire, while they were lowest for both men and women in East Dunbartonshire. The employment rate for lone parents, the majority of whom are women, was much lower than the employment rate for women overall, 55% compared with 72%. The employment rate for lone parents was highest in the Borders at 88% and lowest in Glasgow at 39%.

4.8 PART-TIME WORK AND DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING HOURS

While the economic activity and employment rates for women and men have been moving closer together, and while Scotland is already ahead of the EU 2010 target of an employment rate of 70% for women, a major difference between women and men is the extent to which they work part-time (full-time employees are defined as those who normally work more than 30 hours a week).

Of all women in the workforce 41% worked part-time in 2005, while the comparable figure for men was 10%, as Table 4.8 below shows. This has increased from 38% in 1984, though has declined since 2000, when 45% of women workers worked part-time. For men, the proportion of part-time workers has increased from 4% in 1984 to 10% in 2005. The rate of increase in men's part-time work since 1984 has been greater than that for women's part-time work, though men are still much less likely to work part-time than are women.

Table 4.8 Scotland: employee jobs by sex and mode of employment (thousands), 1984-2005

Year	Women			Men		
	Total in employment	Part-time	Part-time as % of total	Total in employment	Part-time	Part-time as % of total
1984	849	324	38	1,206	42	4
1985	900	358	40	1,212	42	4
1986	893	365	41	1,198	52	4
1987	900	363	40	1,184	59	5
1988	938	372	40	1,226	73	6
1989	984	395	40	1,261	57	5
1990	997	408	41	1,267	62	5
1991	1,000	397	40	1,246	71	6
1992	1,034	437	42	1,248	85	7
1993	1,008	436	43	1,201	81	7
1994	1,028	447	44	1,220	81	7
1995	1,051	458	44	1,214	97	8
1996	1,038	441	44	1,199	97	8
1997	1,054	444	42	1,204	98	8
1998	1,070	454	42	1,214	107	9
1999	1,071	465	44	1,199	111	9
2000	1,082	481	45	1,217	108	9
2001	1,112	479	43	1,234	98	8
2002	1,118	474	42	1,222	110	9
2003	1,130	490	43	1,267	134	11
2004	1,154	486	42	1,263	141	11
2005	1,162	476	41	1,284	131	10

Source: LFS (Mar-May quarter), not seasonally adjusted

As noted the official definition of part-time work is under 30 hours a week. However, this can vary considerably from, for example, women in professional occupations working ‘long’ part-time hours to women in low paid unskilled work working only a small number of hours each week. Table 4.9 below indicates the distribution of working hours for all employees, and the differences between women and men in terms of average hours worked. These figures indicate that in 2006 men worked on average 35.7 hours a week in paid work while women worked on average 26.9 hours. Men are also more likely than women to work overtime, which is reflected in the higher proportion of men usually working over 45 hours. While women are most likely to work part-time when their children are young, men with young children tend to work the longest hours.

Table 4.9 Weekly working hours: actual and usual, 2006 (Jan-March)

	Average actual weekly hours of work		Usual weekly hours of work - percentages		
	Women	Men		Women	Men
All workers	26.9	35.7	Less than 6 hours	1	1
Full-time	33.5	37.7	6 up to 15 hours	9	4
Part-time	16.2	14.8	16 up to 30 hours	31	7
Workers with second jobs	10.3	11.1	31 up to 45 hours	52	62
			Over 45 hours	7	27

Source: Labour Force Survey

Table 4.10 below indicates that between 1996 and 2006 the average hours of full-time male and female workers declined slightly, but that the gap between them remained similar at around 7 hours per week. The hours of part-time workers increased slightly for men, but were much the same for women throughout this period.

Table 4.10 Average weekly numbers of hours worked (actual), by sex and mode of working, 1996 -2006

	Number of hours worked									
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
All workers	34	33.7	33.9	33.7	33.1	33.8	33.2	32.9	32.7	32.7
Men	39.7	39.4	39.7	39.5	38.6	39.6	38.5	37.9	37.7	38
Women	27.5	27.1	27.4	27.2	26.9	27.4	27.4	27.3	27.3	26.9
Full-time	39.2	38.7	39.2	39	38.4	38.8	38.3	38.1	37.9	37.4
Men	41.4	41.1	41.5	41.3	40.5	41.2	40.5	40.1	40.1	40
Women	35.1	34.3	35	34.7	34.5	34.5	34.5	34.5	34.3	33.2
Part-time	15.7	16	16	16.3	16.3	16.9	16.5	16.4	16.5	16.8
Men	14.2	15.5	16.2	16.4	16.3	16.3	14.8	15.6	16.2	16.8
Women	16.1	16.2	15.9	16.3	16.2	17	16.9	16.6	16.5	16.8

Source: LFS, March to May Quarter, Not Seasonally Adjusted - Self Reported

4.9 IMPACT OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN ON PATTERNS OF WORK

The presence of dependent children has an impact on the patterns of employment of parents, though this tends to operate in different ways for men and women. Table 4.11 below illustrates the relationship between the presence of children and employment rates. For fathers in couples in all years, 1996, 2002, and 2006, the employment rates were considerably higher than the average male employment rate for these years, and they were also much higher than the employment rates of mothers in couples. Lone fathers were much more likely than fathers in couples to be unemployed. By contrast, the employment rates of mothers in couples in all

years, 1996, 2002, and 2006, were lower than the average female employment rate for these years. Lone mothers had the lowest employment rate among parents, with less than half being in employment in 1996, though this had increased to 55% by 2002. Like lone fathers, lone mothers were much more likely than those in couples to be unemployed.

Table 4.11 Employment and unemployment rates for parents of dependent children, 1996, 2002, 2006

	1996		2002		2006	
	Employment rate %	Unemployment Rate %	Employment rate %	Unemployment Rate %	Employment rate %	Unemployment Rate %
Males						
All parents	80	8	83	5	83	5
In couples	81	8	84	5	83	5
Lone Parents	*	25	*	17	*	*
Females						
All parents	60	8	69	6	68	7
In couples	64	6	72	5	68	7
Lone Parents	43	18	55	14	*	*

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring Quarter

Notes: 1. Data rounded to the nearest thousand.

* data not available

Table 4.12 below indicates the effect of dependent children of different ages on women's participation in the labour market. It also indicates differences in participation affected by whether or not women live as part of a couple or as a single parent. This indicates that there is not a great difference between the proportion of women with dependent children (69% in 2004) and the proportion of those without dependent children (75% in 2004) in employment. Indeed, of all groups of women the most likely to be employed are those with dependent children aged 15+ (83% in 2004) and aged 11-14 (76% in 2004). Women with pre-school children are the least likely to be in employment. Just as the presence of children affects whether or not women are in employment, it also affects the number of hours they work if they are in employment. There is little difference in the propensity of women with no dependent children and with children aged 15+ to work full-time (54% compared with 52% in 2004). Those least likely to work full-time are women with pre-school children, with 24% of women with children aged 0-2 working full-time in 2004, and 24% of women with children aged 3-4 working full-time. Women with dependent children who live as part of a couple are far more likely than women living as single parents to be in employment (75% compared to 54% in 2004).

Table 4.12 Employment status of women by age of youngest child and whether living in a couple, 2002-2004

	2002	2003	2004
Women without dependent children (aged 16-59)			
Total number	720,000	713,000	748,000
% employed full-time	50	54	54
% employed part-time	22	22	22
% total employed	72	75	75
All women with dependent children			
Total number	570,000	595,000	591,000
% employed full-time	31	30	32
% employed part-time	40	39	38
% total employed	70	69	69
Women with youngest child aged 0-2			
Total number	133,000	135,000	130,000
% employed full-time	23	17	24
% employed part-time	35	38	36
% total employed	59	55	60
Women with youngest child age 3-4			
Total number	79,000	81,000	77,000
% employed full-time	20	25	24
% employed part-time	46	38	35
% total employed	66	63	59
Women with youngest child aged 5-10			
Total number	197,000	190,000	182,000
% employed full-time	32	30	27
% employed part-time	41	44	43
% total employed	73	74	70
Women with youngest child aged 11-14			
Total number	94,000	110,000	7,000
% employed full-time	38	35	38
% employed part-time	39	37	38
% total employed	78	73	76
Women with youngest child aged 15+			
Total number	67,000	77,000	83,000
% employed full-time	42	48	52
% employed part-time	40	34	31
% total employed	82	82	83
Women with dependent children living in a couple			
Total number	443,000	447,000	426,000
% employed full-time	33	32	33
% employed part-time	42	41	42
% total employed	75	73	75
Women with dependent children living as single parent			
Total number	127,000	147,000	162,000
% employed full-time	23	0.23	27
% employed part-time	32	0.32	27
% total employed	55	0.55	54

Source: LFS – household data, ONS. Figures relate to March to May each year. Scottish Executive (2005a) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/13155926/0>

4.10 FLEXIBLE WORKING

Data on patterns of flexible working also indicate that it is primarily women with dependent children who make use of these arrangements, though a significant proportion of women without dependent children also do so. As Table 4.13 below shows women are more likely to make use of part-time and flexible working arrangements than men, 55% compared to 22% in 2004. This was true for all forms of flexible working in 2005, though figures for 2004 (in Table 4.14 below) indicated a higher proportion of male employees making use of annualised hours.

Table 4.13 Part-time and flexible working 2005: employees aged 16-64

	Women		Men	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Part-time	427	40	94	9
Flexitime	129	12	94	9
Annualised hours	42	4	46	4
Term-time working	65	6	8	1
Job-share	15	1	-	-
Any flexible arrangement	583	55	237	22

Source: LFS. EOC (2006a) *Facts about Women and Men in Scotland*.

'-' data not available

http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/facts_about_Scotland_2006.pdf

Table 4.14 below indicates that a relatively high proportion of women without dependent children use flexible forms of working, predominantly part-time work, at 50%, compared to 68% of women with dependent children. A higher proportion of men without dependent children use flexible forms of working at 26% compared to 18% of men with dependent children.

Table 4.14 Flexible working 2004: employees 16-64

	Any dependent children		Without dependent children	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Women				
Part-time	218	56	221	33
Flexitime	45	12	80	12
Annualised hours	20	5	35	5
Term time working	35	9	30	4
Job Share	18	4	-	-
Any flexible arrangement	266	68	334	50
Men				
Part-time	14	4	94	14
Flexitime	25	7	48	7
Annualised hours	24	7	34	5
Term time working	-	-	12	2
Job Share	-	-	-	-
Any flexible arrangement	66	18	183	26

Source: LFS. EOC (2006a) *Facts about Women and Men in Scotland*.

'-' data not available

http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/facts_about_Scotland_2006.pdf

Part-time work is the major form of flexible working currently used by employees to negotiate combining paid work and caring responsibilities, and is used primarily by women

for this purpose. This may be on a temporary basis while children are very young or of pre-school age, or it may be on a long-term basis. The length of time which women work on a part-time basis, as well as the number of hours worked, are significant determinants of their levels of pay, their promotion prospects, and their income in retirement. Thus investigation of patterns of part-time work over the course of women's working lives is important. The kind of part-time work, and the average hours worked, if few, can result in certain groups of women workers being confined to low skilled low paid jobs, and therefore can reinforce their economic disadvantage compared to men over the longer term. There is evidence, however, to suggest that most women working part-time would prefer to continue to do so, rather than to seek full-time hours. As Table 4.15 below indicates, in both 1996 and 2005, men were much more likely than women to be working part-time because they were studying or because they could not find a full-time job. By contrast women part-time workers were much more likely than men to say they did not want a full-time job, 75% in 2005 compared to 41% of men. In 1996, 75 % of women part-time workers cited as their reasons for not wanting a full-time job the desire to spend more time with the family, or domestic commitments, while in 2005, 68% did so.

Table 4.15 Reasons for working part-time, 1996 and 2005

	Women		Men	
	1996	2005	1996	2005
	%			
Student/pupil	11	14	42	37
Could not find a full-time job	16	10	23	19
Ill/disabled	*	*	*	*
Did not want a full-time job	73	75	31	41
<i>Of which:</i>				
Want to spend more time with family	41	42	*	*
Domestic commitments prevent full-time working	34	26	*	*
Financially secure/work because want to	5	6	40	25
Earn enough working part-time	6	8	*	*
Insufficient childcare facilities	*	*	*	*
Another reason	13	16	38	43

Source: LFS, Autumn Quarter (data only available for autumn quarters and not yet available for 2006)

* estimate is below reliability threshold

As well as flexible working arrangements, also crucial to supporting mothers' involvement in the labour market are the provision of maternity leave and pay, childcare provision, or support for childcare in the form of tax credits, vouchers from employers, and so on. Current levels of childcare provision, and evidence of levels of demand and usage are discussed in Chapter Six on Care and Caring.

4.11 INDUSTRIAL AND OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYEES

The distribution of their working hours is one major difference between women and men in how they participate in the labour market. The other major differences lie in the industrial distribution of female and male workers, and in their occupational distribution. The distribution of women's and men's employment across sectors of the economy varies, as Table 4.16 below indicates. In 2004, women made up the majority of employees in Public Administration, Education and Health (71.9%), Distribution, Hotels and Catering and Repairs (55.6%), and Banking, Finance and Insurance (50.7%). By contrast men made up the majority of employees in Construction (89%), Energy and Water Supply (81.8%), Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (74.9%), Manufacturing (73%), and Transport and Communication

(72.2%). Over time there have been some changes in the share of male and female employees within each industrial sector, as Table 4.16 also indicates, with men increasing their share of Manufacturing and Banking, Finance and Insurance, for example.

Table 4.16 Percentage of female employees by industry, 1996-2004

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Total employee jobs	51	51	50	49	51	50	51	51	51
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	17	22	21	20	21	26	22	22	23
Energy and Water supply	15	16	21	14	18	21	21	18	18
Manufacturing	31	32	31	30	31	29	28	28	27
Construction	14	12	18	13	13	13	12	12	11
Distribution, Hotels and Catering, Repairs	58	57	58	57	57	57	56	56	56
Transport and Communication	25	26	25	25	25	26	26	24	28
Banking, Finance and Insurance	58	57	52	50	52	50	51	51	51
Public Administration, Education and Health	69	71	71	70	71	71	72	78	72
Other services	53	53	51	51	51	49	50	50	52

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, ONS.

As well as there being a difference in the industrial distribution of female and male employees, there is a difference in their occupational distribution, with women tending to be concentrated in lower occupational grades. For example, sectors which are particularly male dominated are likely to have a range of skilled jobs performed exclusively or almost exclusively by men, with women in these sectors occupying administrative or service roles in clerical and office work, catering, cleaning and so on. In the service sector, where the majority of women work, while there are likely to be more women in professional and senior occupations, they still tend to be concentrated in lower grades, though the proportion of women in managerial grades has been increasing, and has risen from 32% in 1999 (see Kay, 2001) to 36% in 2006.

Table 4.17 Employment by occupation 1992, 1996: employees and self-employed aged 16 and over

Occupational group	1992			1996		
	Women	Men	% Women	Women	Men	% Women
	Thousands			Thousands		
Managers and Administrators	81,000.00	197,000	29	95,000	199,000	32
Professional occupations	88,000	133,000	40	95,000	134,000	42
Associate Professional and Technical occupations	111,000	98,000	53	119,000	91,000	57
Clerical and Secretarial	241,000	75,000	76	249,000	72,000	78
Craft and Related Occupations	39,000	276,000	12	31,000	255,000	11
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	137,000	81,000	63	147,000	107,000	58
Sales Occupations	122,000	53,000	70	124,000	59,000	68
Plant and Machine Operatives	51,000	173,000	23	47,000	169,000	22
Other Occupations	134,000	121,000	53	112,000	97,000	54
All occupations	1,004,000	1,206,000	45	1,018,000	1,183,000	46

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring Quarter

Notes: 1. Data rounded to the nearest thousand.

2. The Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) classification changed in 2001, this has resulted in a break in the series.

Tables 4.17 above and 4.18 below indicate the extent to which there is occupational segregation by gender, with women representing a large majority of workers in personal services, administrative and secretarial, and sales and customer services occupations. By contrast men represent the large majority of workers in the occupational categories of managers and senior officials, process, plant and machine operatives, and skilled trades. There have been some changes over time, with, for example, women having increased their share of managerial occupations from 29% in 1992 to 36% in 2006. Though there have been changes in classification of occupations over the period, the statistics suggest an increasing concentration of women within a small number of occupational categories.

Table 4.18 Employment by occupation 2002, 2006: employees and self-employed aged 16 and over

Occupational group	2002			2006		
	Women	Men	%	Women	Men	% Women
	Number		Women	Number		
Managers and Senior Officials	99,000	187,000	35	111,000	199,000	36
Professional occupations	133,000	155,000	46	136,000	171,000	44
Associate Professional and Technical	141,000	155,000	48	167,000	171,000	49
Administrative and Secretarial	245,000	63,000	80	243,000	59,000	81
Skilled Trades Occupations	23,000	248,000	9	22,000	243,000	8
Personal Service Occupations	140,000	35,000	80	169,000	30,000	85
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	139,000	55,000	72	136,000	55,000	71
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	37,000	169,000	18	27,000	166,000	14
Elementary Occupations	155,000	145,000	52	136,000	148,000	48
All occupations	1,112,000	1,211,000	48	1,147,000	1,242,000	48

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring Quarter

Notes: 1. Data rounded to the nearest thousand.

2. The SOC classification changed in 2001, this has resulted in a break in the series.

4.12 THE GENDER BALANCE WITHIN SELECTED PROFESSIONS

As Tables 4.17 and 4.18 above have indicated, the gender balance in professional occupations was 44% women and 56% men in 2006. Over time women's share of professional occupations has tended to increase, up from 40% in 1992, though the 2006 level represented a slight decrease from 46% in 2002. Women predominate in key public sector workforces such as teaching (93% of primary teachers, and 58% of secondary teachers in 2004), the NHS (78% in 2005) and local government (67% in 2005), but remain under-represented in senior positions. Throughout this report available data on the gender composition of workforces in the public sector, including professional occupations, have been included within the relevant chapters, including data on the civil service, teaching and academic professions, health professions, legal profession, and other public sector workers such as social workers.

Table 4.19 below provides a summary of the gender balance in key areas of local government employment in Scotland, including a number of key areas of professional employment. This indicates that the majority of local government employees in Scotland are women, who make up 66.8% of the local government workforce. Women make up the majority of employees in education and social work, while men make up the majority in the police and fire services.

Table 4.19 Local government employment* by main service group: 2005

	Female	Male	Total	% female
Education – teachers	48,675	15,110	63,785	76
Other education staff	43,340	6,599	49,939	87
Social Work	48,257	8,733	56,990	85
Police and related services	7,970	15,352	23,322	34
Fire services	806	4,869	5,673	14
Other staff	6,471	54,841	118,312	54
Total	212,519	105,504	318,021	67

Source: Joint Staffing Watch

* Includes temporary and permanent staff, full-time and part-time staff

4.13 WOMEN AND MEN AS ENTREPRENEURS

The patterns of self-employment among women and men in Scotland show that men are more than twice as likely as women to be self-employed. As Table 4.20 below indicates, in 2006 of all men in employment 13% of men were self-employed compared to 6% of women. These proportions have remained very similar for the period from 1996 to 2006.

Table 4.20 Proportion of those in employment of working age who are self-employed, 1996-2006

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
	%										
Women	7	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	6
Men	14	14	14	13	13	14	13	14	13	13	13

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring Quarter

4.13 GENDER AND ETHNICITY

Table 4.21 below shows employment patterns of different minority ethnic groups in Scotland.

Table 4.21 Employment by ethnic group, 2001: people aged 16-74

Women	In employment		Employment rate	Unemployment rate
	% full-time	% part-time		
White	61	39	53	4.8
Mixed	68	32	41	9.2
Indian	68	32	43	8.6
Pakistani	58	42	25	12.1
Black African	69	31	36	11.1
Chinese	69	31	38	7
All ethnic minorities	65	35	35	9.7
All aged 16-74	61	39	53	4.8
Men				
White	94	6	64	7.7
Mixed	88	12	47	12.4
Indian	89	11	61	5.7
Pakistani	80	20	56	10.5
Black African	88	12	47	13
Chinese	90	10	52	6.4
All ethnic minorities	86	14	53	9.3
All aged 16-74	93	7	64	7.8

Source: GROS (2004) Scotland's Census 2001 CD-ROMs version 2. EOC (2006a) *Facts about women and men in Scotland*. http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/facts_about_Scotland_2006.pdf

The black and minority ethnic population in Scotland is made up of a number of different groups, of whom the largest are Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Indian and Chinese. Their patterns of participation in the labour market in general vary as does the pattern of women's participation across different minority ethnic groups. Table 4.21 above indicates that both women and men in all minority ethnic groups in Scotland in 2001 had lower employment rates than the White population, and correspondingly higher unemployment rates than the White population. This difference was particularly marked for Pakistani and Black African populations, who had the lowest employment rates and highest unemployment rates. The majority of minority ethnic women in employment were more likely to be in full-time employment than White women, with the exception of Pakistani women, while minority ethnic men in all groups were more likely than White men to be working part-time.

Because minority ethnic groups represent only 2% of the Scottish population, this creates difficulties for the production of regular data about such groups, since regularly conducted surveys do not contain large enough numbers of minority ethnic populations for disaggregation to be possible. The census, which takes place every 10 years, is currently the only source of comprehensive and reliable data.

Recent research on minority ethnic women in Scotland has indicated that despite their higher rates of unemployment, they are more likely to be working in professional occupations than are White women, 15% compared with 12% (EOC Scotland, 2006b). Secondary analysis of Census 2001 data by the EOC has also indicated variations in the economic activity of minority ethnic women by geographic location within Scotland, and that for all groups, with the exception of Indian and Bangladeshi women, it is lower in Glasgow than in Edinburgh. Bangladeshi and Chinese women in Highland had higher economic activity rates than in Edinburgh.

In general, minority ethnic populations in Scotland are disadvantaged in terms of their participation in the labour market, with lower levels of employment and higher levels of unemployment. This disadvantage is experienced differentially by different minority ethnic groups and by women and men. Racial discrimination is a contributory factor to this position, and in the case of women, sex discrimination and stereotyping can compound this disadvantage (see, for example, Netto et al, 2001).

4.15 GENDER AND DISABILITY

The population of disabled people in Scotland is not homogenous, which may result in different capacities and different needs for adaptation in relation to labour market participation for different groups and individuals. There are also some gender differences in patterns of disability.

In general disabled people are much less likely to be in work than non-disabled people, as Table 4.22 below shows. In 2005, 45% of disabled women of working age were in employment compared to 79% of non-disabled women, and 48% of disabled men of working age were in employment compared to 86% of non-disabled men. Disabled people were also more likely than non-disabled people to be working part-time, and disabled people were more likely than non-disabled people to be unemployed.

Table 4.22 Employment by disability, 2005: people of working age

	In employment		Employment rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
	% full-time	% part-time		
Women				
Disabled*	57	43	45	9
Not disabled	61	39	79	5
Men				
Disabled*	90	10	48	8
Not disabled	91	9	86	6

Source: ONS (2004) LFS Spring dataset. EOC (2006a) *Facts about women and men in Scotland*

People with a current disability, including DDA disabled and work-limiting disabled. There are an estimated 324 thousand disabled men and 329 thousand disabled women of working age.

http://www.eoc.org.uk/PDF/facts_about_Scotland_2006.pdf

Table 4.23 below illustrates the different patterns of economic activity according to different definitions of disability. In 2006, those who were defined as 'long-term disabled' had very low employment rates, with this being particularly the case for women. Of other categories of disabled people, those defined as 'current disabled' had the highest economic activity and employment rates, and for both men and women these were above the average employment rates for all men and women. Those defined as having a 'work-limiting' disability had lower rates of economic activity and employment. In all cases women were less likely than men to be economically active.

Table 4.23 Economic activity of working age people by sex according to different definitions of disability, 2006

Disability status and sex	Economic activity rate (%)	Employment rate (%)	ILO Unemployment rate (%)	All persons of working age (thousands)
All long-term disabled (1)				
All	33	29	12	402
Men	0	30	14	208
Women	0	28	*	194
DDA current disabled (2)				
All	87	84	3	149
Men	90	88	*	68
Women	84	80	*	81
Work-limiting disabled (3)				
All	78	71	9	99
Men	84	78	*	53
Women	69	63	*	46
Not long-term disabled				
All	87	82	6	2,472
Men	90	84	6	1,264
Women	83	79	5	1,208

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring Quarter

1 Long-term disabled people answered yes to 'Do you have any health problems or disabilities that you expect will last for more than a year?'

2 DDA (Disability Discrimination Act) current disabled people are people who have a long-term disability which substantially limits their day-to-day activities.

3 Work-limiting disabled people are people who have a long-term disability which affects the kind or amount of paid work they might do.

* estimate is below reliability threshold

As Table 4.24 below indicates, analysis of the 2001 census demonstrated that there were significant differences between the economic activity rates of people with limiting long term illness and people without. A third of men with limiting long term illness were economically active, and only 28% of women, compared to 89% of men and 78% of women without a limiting long term illness. The proportion of people with limiting long term illness in employment was similarly low, and the proportions unemployed were high, at 16% for men and 10% for women. Of those in employment, overall a higher proportion of people with limiting long term illness worked part-time than people without.

Table 4.24 Economic activity by sex and Limiting Long Term Illness (percentages)

	Total	Female No LLTI	Female LLTI	Male No LLTI	Male LLTI
	Percentage				
Economically active:	75	89	33	78	28
Employed	67	79	27	70	24
Part-time	14	4	4	26	11
Full-time	53	75	24	44	13
Unemployed	6	7	16	4	10
Full-time student	4	3	1	5	1
Economically inactive:	25	12	7	22	72
Retired	2	2	6	1	3
Student	5	5	2	6	2
Looking after home/family	6	1	2	11	13
Permanently sick or disabled	8	0.4	48	0.4	44
Other	4	3	9	3	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<i>All people (Number)</i>	<i>3,147,964</i>	<i>1,343,715</i>	<i>265,169</i>	<i>1,314,696</i>	<i>224,384</i>

Source: 2001 Census. Scottish Executive (2005) *Disability and Employment in Scotland: a Review of the Evidence Base*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/01/20511/49760>

4.16 EMPLOYMENT TRIBUNALS

It has been noted above that there are gendered patterns of participation in the labour market, and also that there are persisting inequalities which disadvantage women associated with these different patterns, in particular with respect to access to certain types of occupation, to senior positions and to higher levels of pay (see Chapter Five on Income and Wealth for discussion of earnings). Among other factors, discrimination plays a part. Such discrimination may not always be overt and conscious, but that discrimination on the grounds of sex continues to occur in the labour market is evidenced by the numbers and types of cases taken to industrial tribunals. In 2005/06, there were 14,250 claims made under the Sex Discrimination Act and 17,268 claims made under the Equal Pay Act in Great Britain (Employment Tribunals Service, 2006). It is not known, however, what proportion of these claims were made in Scotland, since there are no separate data available for Scotland.

4.17 SUMMARY

This chapter has examined statistical evidence of patterns of men's and women's participation in the labour market. This evidence indicates that over time the gap between men's and women's rates of participation has narrowed considerably and that women now make up half of the labour force in Scotland. Despite such convergence in participation rates, there remain significant differences between women and men in patterns of labour market participation, in particular in the following respects: average working hours, and in particular mothers' and

fathers' working hours; use of flexible forms of working; industrial distribution; occupational distribution; and patterns of self-employment. It has also been noted that minority ethnic groups and disabled people have lower rates of employment generally, and that this is true for women in particular, though there are variations between minority ethnic groups and disabled people, according to type of disability and/or impairment.

The trends in patterns of labour market participation observable in Scotland are similar to these observable for the UK as a whole (see Dench et al, 2002; Aston et al, 2004). As elsewhere in the UK, there has been a period of significant change in the labour market in recent decades, with women being particularly affected by this, as employment opportunities have opened up to them. The factors that have contributed to this change are complex, and include legislative change, economic change and industrial restructuring and changes in social attitudes. The decrease in the gap between economic activity rates of women and men reflects on the one hand the increase in women's labour market participation, especially women with dependent children, and on the other the trend towards early retirement for men, and increased participation in further and higher education. Changes in industrial structure have also contributed, with the shift from manufacturing to service industries, the former previously providing jobs primarily for men, while the latter have typically employed a large proportion of women. Women's increased participation in higher education has also opened up employment opportunities for them, especially in the professions. The expansion of childcare provision and growth of forms of flexible working have also facilitated women's participation in the labour force, and have contributed to the reduction of periods of time spent out of the labour market for child bearing and child rearing.

Though the trends outlined above represent a significant change towards more equal participation in the labour market by women and men, there are a number of aspects of patterns of labour market participation that are regarded as presenting barriers to full gender equality in the labour market and in the distribution of the economic rewards of such participation. In particular, the fact that many women work part-time in low paid unskilled jobs, and the extent of occupational segregation in the labour market, are regarded as significant barriers. With respect to part-time work, there appears to be no specific research on this topic conducted in Scotland, but research elsewhere in the UK has led to controversy over the interpretation of data on the preference for part-time work often expressed by women. Catherine Hakim (Hakim, 1996), for example, has argued that patterns of women's employment reflect women's choices and their primary identification as mothers or as workers. However, critics of this position have argued that women may express a preference for part-time work because their childcare and domestic arrangements leave them no option, or they may perceive themselves to have no option (see, for example, Bardasi and Gornick 2000; Burchell et al, 1997; Fagan, 2001). Furthermore since men's earnings tend to be higher than women's, when it comes to making decisions about who should take career breaks or reduce hours for childcare purposes, there is an economic rationale for men working full-time, and women taking time out of paid work for childcare. This does not necessarily mean it reflects women's aspirations. Nor does the long hours culture which affects many men necessarily reflect their aspirations. In these circumstances then choice may be seen as constrained rather than free.

With respect to occupational segregation, the Equal Opportunities Commission recently conducted a general formal investigation into this, including research specifically commissioned in Scotland (Thomson et al, 2005). This found that the segregation of men and women into specific occupations, together with the concentration of women in low paid and

low status occupations, were major factors contributing to the gender pay gap in Scotland. The existence of gender stereotyping about which jobs were appropriate for men and women was found to influence children's views from an early age, and to have an impact on subject choice at school and subsequent career choice. To challenge such gender stereotyping, a national strategy was recommended to ensure that economic development and skills strategies would incorporate a consistent approach to tackling gender segregation.

Even within areas where the same educational and training routes have been taken by women and men inequalities may persist. For example, research commissioned by the EOC which analysed GB data demonstrated that a graduate gender pay gap opened up very quickly, even before women had entered the period of family formation (see Purcell, 2002). This finding is consistent with data on the gender balance in the professions in Scotland for the late 1990s (Kay, 2000), which found evidence of persisting inequalities. This was despite the fact that the gender balance of graduates in certain areas had changed to favour women, and that they were the majority of entrants to professions such as medicine and the legal profession. In other areas academic subject choice still reflected gendered patterns resulting in the continued dominance of men in professions such as engineering, surveying and architecture.

The issue of the low rate of business start-ups has been a concern for economic development in Scotland for some time, and it has been recognised that the rate of business start-ups of female owned and male owned businesses differs significantly. For this reason the Scottish Executive via Scottish Enterprise has undertaken initiatives to increase the numbers of women entrepreneurs. While there has been an increase in the proportion of business start-ups by women in Scotland, these tend to be smaller, with a high proportion being sole traders (Scottish Enterprise, 2005). Research evidence has suggested that this is a reflection partly of preferences of women themselves, who may prefer greater autonomy and flexibility, which enables them to combine paid work and caring responsibilities, but also partly of the limited support, financial and otherwise, available to them. This in turn is a consequence of the fact that more support is targeted towards businesses which expand to employ more people. Such sole trading businesses often tend to be in typically gendered areas such as child minding, hair dressing, or other personal services, and may not attract high financial rewards. Women's business start-ups on average involve less than a third of the amount of capital than men's. This may be because there are lower entry costs for the types of businesses women tend to set up, and because women have access to fewer financial resources. It may also be because they are more wary of accumulating debt. It is also the case that more women than men become self-employed as a way of combining paid work with caring responsibilities.

While patterns of women's participation in the labour market have been the subject of extensive investigation at UK and/or GB level, specifically Scottish research in this field is very sparse. As this chapter indicates, however, there are existing datasets that would permit much more detailed analyses to be undertaken of gendered patterns of participation in the labour market and of changes over time. Such analyses could be used to provide more detailed information as to gender inequalities within specific sectors, industries, and occupations, and could also be used to build up profiles of local economies and gendered patterns of participation in local labour markets. Both types of analyses are relevant to key public bodies with respect to any economic development functions they may have and as employers, and are therefore relevant to compliance with the Gender Equality Duty.

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CHAPTER FIVE INCOME AND WEALTH

This chapter examines the relationship between gender and income distribution in Scotland, including income from earnings, financial assets, and benefits. It also examines gender differences in use of financial services, and in attitudes to financial management.

5.1 POLICY CONTEXT

Policies which regulate or affect the distribution of income and wealth, including the distribution of income and wealth between women and men, are largely the responsibility of the UK government. These include equal pay legislation, the National Minimum Wage, benefits and tax credits, and policies which aim to tackle poverty and child poverty in particular. In certain of these policy areas the Scottish Executive has also set objectives and targets which complement those of the UK government. Policy objectives with respect to women's participation in the labour market are outlined in Chapter Four on the Labour Market, and these include reducing the gender pay gap. As noted also, the Scottish Executive has its own Close the Gap campaign to promote equal pay. The National Minimum Wage, introduced in 1999, has been particularly beneficial for those in low paid jobs, many of whom are women. The UK government is also committed to eradicating child poverty in a generation, to full employment, to providing security for those unable to work, and to targeting areas facing the greatest problems in terms of poverty and exclusion. Outlined below are the Scottish Executive's policy objectives which aim to tackle poverty and social exclusion.

The Scottish Executive launched its Closing the Opportunity Gap strategy in 2004, and its main aims are to:

- Prevent individuals or families from falling into poverty;
- Provide routes out of poverty for individuals and families;
- Sustain individuals or families in a lifestyle free from poverty.

Specific objectives have been set to further these aims, and these include: increasing chances of sustained employment for vulnerable and disadvantaged groups; increasing confidence and skills; reducing the vulnerability of low income families to financial exclusion and multiple debts; the regeneration of the most disadvantaged neighbourhoods; improving the health of those in the most deprived communities; and to improve access to high quality services for the most disadvantaged groups and for individuals in rural communities.

With respect to child poverty the Scottish Executive complements UK government measures such as training programmes aimed at getting unemployed people into work and tax credits with parallel strategies such as the development of childcare provision and Sure Start projects, and with its own economic development strategies. Among the major aims of these strategies is increased labour market participation of disadvantaged and vulnerable groups and improvement in their levels of income, while it is recognised that some groups will require support through social benefits.

5.2 INCOMES OF WOMEN AND MEN

Key points

- In 2005, women full-time workers in Scotland earned 88% of male full-time workers average hourly pay. This has increased from 72% in 1977. Since 1997 women's average earnings have increased from 79% to 88% of men's, an increase of women's earnings in relation to men's of 9 percentage points.
- Looking at a comparison of weekly earnings of full-time workers, in 1970 women full-time workers earned on average 54% of male full-time workers' average earnings. By 2003 women's weekly earnings had increased to 77% of men's. Between 1998 and 2005 women's weekly earnings as a proportion of men's increased from 72% to 81%.
- Women's earnings are significantly affected by the concentration of women in part-time jobs, while men working part-time are a small number of atypical workers. Women part-timers' hourly rate compares favourably with that of male part-timers, with women earning 104% of men's hourly rate in 2005, an increase from 100% in 1997. However, a comparison of women part-timers' hourly pay (almost half of all women workers work part-time) with male full-timers' hourly pay (over 80% of men work full-time) indicates the disparity between women's and men's earning power. Women part-timers earned an hourly rate which was 63% of full-time men's hourly rate in 2005, an increase from 56% in 1997.
- The gender earnings ratio varies by occupation. For example, in 2005 women full-time workers in professional occupations earned 86% of their male counterparts' earnings, while women process, plant and machine operatives earned 70% of men's earnings.
- The gender earnings ratio also varies by industry. For example, in 2005 women full-time workers in education earned 91% of men's wages, while in manufacturing they earned 68% of men's average weekly earnings.
- The gender earnings ratio is more equal in the public than in the private sector. In 2005 women's hourly pay in the public sector was 97% of men's hourly pay compared to 80% in the private sector.
- The gender earnings ratio was effectively the same for disabled men and women as for non-disabled men and women in 2005, with women in both categories earning just over 87% of the earnings of men in both categories.

- On average women's total individual incomes from all sources – earnings, income from financial assets or from benefits – were 60% of men's total individual incomes in 2002/03-2004/05. This represented an increase of 9 percentage points from a level of 51% in 1996/97-1998/99.
- Households in which men are the highest income earners have household income levels which are higher than those in which women are the highest income earners. In 2005, 51% of households with a male HIH had an income of over £20,000 compared to 22% of households with a female HIH.
- In 2003/04 equal proportions of men and women of working age were in Households Below Average Income, at 18%. Similarly equal proportions of male and female pensioners were in Households Below Average Income, at 18%. While proportions of working age adults at this income level had remained fairly stable since 1996/97, in the case of both male and female pensioners there was a significant decrease in proportions at this income level, in particular for female pensioners.
- Of those claiming key benefits in 2000, women made up the majority at 57%. In 2006, women continued to make up the majority of claimants of key benefits at 53%. In particular women make up the majority of those dependent on State Pensions and Pension Credits, making up around 64% of claimants of both benefits in 2005.
- Of all women workers, full-time and part-time taken together, 44% were without pension provision in 2004/05 compared to 37% of full-time male workers. Of women part-time workers 60% had no pension provision.
- Of those employees who were members of occupational pension schemes in 2004/05 women full-time workers were most likely to be members, with 59% being in occupational pension schemes, compared to 53% of male full-time workers, and 33% of women part-time workers.

5.3 KEY SOURCES OF DATA AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

5.3.1 Key sources of data

The official source for data on earnings is the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE). This provides data on earnings from 1997. For data prior to 1997 the official source is the New Earnings Survey (NES) which is the predecessor to the ASHE. As ASHE does not collect a lot of information other than earnings and some basic information about the individual, the Annual Population Survey (APS) is used to compare earnings by other characteristics such as qualifications and age. It should be noted that the APS will provide different overall figures from ASHE. Data on individual incomes are drawn from the Women and Equality Unit reports on this topic, which combine data on incomes from earnings, benefits, pensions and other financial assets from a range of data sources. The future of the WEU publication on

women's individual incomes is currently under review, though it is anticipated that data will continue to be available online, if not published in hard copy form. Data on household income is available from the Scottish Household Survey, and from Households Below Average Income. Data on benefits are drawn from statistics collected by the Department of Work and Pensions (DWP), while data on pensions and savings are drawn from the Family Resources Survey. Data on financial management and use of credit are drawn from the Scottish Household Survey. Not all of these data are routinely published, and some of the tables included in this chapter were made available on request from the Scottish Executive.

5.3.2 Limitations of the data

Data taken from the ASHE are based on a survey of approximately 1% of all national insurance numbers. This allows for a reasonably robust estimate of earnings however as this is a sample survey there is still a degree of uncertainty around estimates. When using data with detailed breakdowns such as Local Authority or industry of employment care should be taken when interpreting results as difference may not be significant.

5.3.3 Mean versus Median

The preferred average measure for earnings is the median. This is due to the fact that the median is less affected by earnings at the extreme values (either very high or very low values) and this is important given the extremely skewed nature of earnings distributions. The median therefore provides the closest measure of what the average individual is likely to earn.

5.3.4 Measuring the Gender Pay Gap

The official measure of the gender pay gap in Scotland and the UK compares the full time median earnings excluding overtime of males and females. International comparisons of the gender pay gap use mean full time earnings rather than median. However this is due to historical convention rather than this being the best measure of the gender pay gap.

5.3.5 Possible uses of data

Earnings data are crucial in relation to efforts to close the gender pay gap, and bodies such as government departments, the enterprise network, and local authorities, might use these data in order to develop strategic approaches to tackling the pay gap at national and local levels. This should include addressing the gender pay gap within their own workforces as well as in the economy more widely. Disparities across Scotland, between sectors and between occupations, suggest the need for targeted strategies. For example, in certain areas it may be particularly urgent to tackle low pay. With respect to economic development strategies for Scotland in general, gender disaggregated data on earnings could be used to scrutinise the record of sectors and industries which are expected to make the major contribution to economic growth in future. Local authorities should use gender disaggregated data on earnings to address their own pay structures, as well as in informing local economic development strategies which might challenge low pay and occupational segregation. This might include support for gender specific projects. Evidence of the vulnerability of particular groups to poverty can inform regeneration strategies, and may require targeted strategies for specific groups e.g. lone parents who require childcare support

to take up education, employment or training. For lone pensioners, there may be issues about benefits take up, fuel poverty, and access to shops and services.

5.4 EARNINGS AND LOW PAY

In Chapter Four the differences in men's and women's participation in the labour market were described, both in terms of industrial and occupational distribution, and in terms of working hours. These factors influence the levels of earnings of men and women and contribute to the persistence of the gender pay gap.

Table 5.1 Mean hourly earnings of full-time employees excluding overtime, (£), Scotland, 1977-2006

Year	Males	Females	Earnings ratio %
1977	1.77	1.27	72
1978	1.98	1.41	71
1979	2.25	1.55	69
1980	2.78	1.95	70
1981	3.21	2.31	72
1982	3.56	2.52	71
1983	n/a	n/a	n/a
1984	4.15	2.94	71
1985	4.38	3.14	72
1986	4.72	3.44	73
1987	5.05	3.65	72
1988	5.46	4.01	73
1989	5.83	4.49	77
1990	6.45	4.95	77
1991	6.96	5.46	78
1992	7.62	5.86	77
1993	7.91	6.31	78
1994	8.03	6.49	81
1995	8.39	6.78	81
1996	8.70	6.94	80
1997	9.34	7.39	79
1998	9.85	7.80	79
1999	10.29	8.36	81
2000	10.59	8.57	81
2001	11.18	9.26	83
2002	11.92	9.61	81
2003	12.15	9.99	82
2004 (excl.)	12.46	10.63	85
2004 (incl.)	12.28	10.57	86
2005	12.91	11.37	88
2006	13.63	11.77	86

Source: New Earnings Survey; Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

Notes : Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

To improve coverage and hence make the survey more representative, supplementary information was collected from the 2004 ASHE survey onwards on businesses not registered for VAT and for people who changed or started new jobs between sample selection and the survey reference period. The 2004 and 2005 ASHE results are therefore discontinuous with the results for 2003 and previous years, for which no supplementary information was collected. However for 2004 two sets of results are given; the headline results that include supplementary

information and results that exclude this information. These second set of results are given solely for comparison to earlier years. Direct comparisons can be made between 1999-2003 and 2004 (ex.) or between 2004 (inc.) - 2006. <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Over time, however, the gender pay gap has been getting smaller, as Table 5.1 above shows.⁶ In 1977 (two years after the Equal Pay Act had come into effect) women's average hourly earnings were 72% of men's average hourly earnings. By 2006 women's average hourly earnings had risen to 86% of men's average hourly earnings.

Because of the difference in the average working hours of men and women, it is also useful to compare average weekly earnings, since this provides a better indication of the levels of take home pay of men and women than a comparison of hourly rates. This indicates a greater gender pay gap with respect to weekly pay of full-time workers. Table 5.2 below, based on data from the New Earnings Survey, indicates that women's average weekly pay was 49% of men's average weekly pay in 1970, and that by 2002 women's average weekly pay had risen to 68% of men's average weekly pay. Table 5.2 also indicates that the gap was greater for non-manual workers than for manual workers until around 1990, since when it has been typically slightly greater for manual workers than non-manual workers. In 1970, women manual workers' average weekly earnings were 51% of their male counterparts' average earnings, whereas women non-manual workers' average weekly earnings were 49% of their male counterparts' average earnings. In 1990, women manual workers' average weekly earnings were 61% of male manual workers' average weekly earnings, compared to 61% for non-manual workers, while in 2002 women manual workers' average weekly earnings were 67% of male manual workers' average weekly earnings, compared to 68% of non-manual workers.

⁶ In 2003, the New Earnings Survey was discontinued and replaced by the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings. This has entailed some differences in both the ways in which data are collected and the ways in which they are presented. For this reason, separate tables presenting data from NES and ASHE have been included, rather than one table with time series data between 1997 and 2005.

Table 5.2 Average gross weekly earnings of full-time employees, (£), Scotland, 1970; 1975; 1980; 1985-2003

Year	Males			Females			Women's earnings as % of men's		
	All	Manual	Non-manual	All	Manual	Non-manual	All earnings	Manual earnings	Non-manual earnings
1970	28.3	25.7	33.8	15.3	13.1	16.6	54	51	49
1975	60.3	56.7	67.1	35.9	32.1	37.8	60	57	56
1980	123.1	112.2	139.6	74.7	66.3	78.2	61	59	56
1985	189.7	164.2	224.0	119.1	99.4	125.6	63	61	56
1986	201.3	173.0	238.3	129.8	103.2	139.1	65	60	58
1987	214.6	179.7	256.4	139.9	111.7	149.0	65	62	58
1988	233.3	194.9	280.6	152.2	120.2	162.9	65	62	58
1989	251.2	209.9	300.8	169.6	129.8	181.8	68	62	60
1990	276.4	231.7	327.4	187.2	141.2	200.6	68	61	61
1991	299.5	251.1	349.4	206.5	151.3	220.5	69	60	63
1992	324.6	270.6	378.7	221.9	164.4	235.9	68	61	62
1993	333.0	269.7	392.5	237.4	173.7	253.2	71	64	65
1994	335.6	269.5	400.6	244.1	176.9	261.8	73	66	65
1995	350.7	284.5	413.2	254.2	186.0	272.7	73	65	66
1996	363.6	290.9	434.0	262.0	189.7	282.8	72	65	65
1997	378.0	303.3	449.8	272.4	193.9	293.9	72	64	65
1998	394.6	322.6	462.3	276.7	201.1	298.2	70	62	65
1999	411.8	326.4	478.4	306.8	215.7	325.5	75	66	68
2000	423.0	335.4	496.4	316.1	217.3	335.3	75	65	68
2001	448.5	349.1	528.9	342.3	233.1	363.6	76	67	69
2002	473.7	356.1	560.0	360.1	237.5	381.1	76	67	68
*2003	483.7	372.4	77

Source: New Earnings Survey

Notes: To April 1983 earnings relate to males age 21 and over and females age 18 and over ; from April 1984 earnings are for those on adult rates.

*There is no manual/non manual split available for 2003 because the data have been coded on Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) 2000 which does not differentiate between manual and non-manual employees. ‘..’ data not available.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=5749>

Changes to the methods of collecting and analysing data on earnings (as indicated in footnote 1 above) mean that comparisons between average wages of manual and non-manual workers are no longer available. With the introduction of the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings it was also decided to show median earnings instead of average earnings. This is because averages can be distorted by very small numbers of very high (or very low) earners, whereas the median provides a better indication of the distribution of earnings within the majority of the working population. This means that the data from the NES and ASHE are not strictly comparable, and that the new ASHE data indicate a smaller gender pay gap than previous NES data. For example, NES figures for 1998 indicated that women’s average weekly earnings were 65% of men’s, whereas the median figure given in Table 5.3 below, derived from ASHE, indicate that women’s median gross weekly earnings in 1998 were 72% of men’s median gross weekly earnings. However, the trend for the gender pay gap to decrease is similar, and the rate of decrease over the period in which data overlap is relatively

close. The ASHE data in Table 5.4 below indicate that by 2005 the gender pay gap had decreased still further, with women's median gross weekly earnings being 81% of men's median gross weekly earnings.

Table 5.3 Median gross weekly earnings, 1998-2005 (£)

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004 (excl. supp)	2004 (incl. supp)	2005	2006
Scotland	313.8	329.0	338.4	355.1	371.7	381.3	394.6	390.9	409.6	346.9
Male	357.1	370.0	380.5	398.2	414.4	419.2	431.7	427.6	446.0	467.2
Female	256.9	274.6	280.9	296.7	311.0	326.0	345.5	342.6	361.0	376.2
Women's earnings as % of men's	71.9	74.2	73.8	74.5	75.0	77.8	80.0	80.1	80.9	81.0

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

Note: for 'excl. supp' and 'incl. supp', see note to Table 5.1 above.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

The comparisons shown in Tables 5.2 and 5.3 and discussed above are for earnings of full-time workers. On the one hand while comparisons of weekly wages provide a better indication of overall income levels of men and women than comparisons of hourly pay, the comparison of the pay of full-time workers excludes a substantial proportion of women workers, with 41% of all women workers working part-time in 2005. Comparisons between the weekly and hourly pay of full-time and part-time employees indicates the less favourable position of part-time women workers compared to women and men in full-time employment.

Table 5.4 below sets out a series of comparisons, between weekly and hourly pay of full-time and part-time male and female workers. As has been noted by Dench et al (2002), making comparisons between women's and men's pay is complicated by the differences in patterns of working hours, and by the differences between men and women in their propensity to work part-time. Because of the differences in working hours, a comparison of hourly pay is often deemed the best measure of the gender pay gap, while comparisons between full-time earnings exclude part-time workers, of which women make up a much higher proportion than do men. Comparisons between male and female part-time workers, however, suffer from comparing a large group of female employees with a small and atypical group of male employees. Comparisons of women's part-time earnings with men's full-time earnings produces the largest gender pay gap, though is not strictly speaking comparing like with like. It is, however, useful in illustrating the overall disparities in men's and women's pay due to the relative concentration of women in part-time work. Given that making a comparison of men's and women's earnings is not straightforward, and given that the different comparisons illustrate different factors which contribute to the overall disparity in women's and men's earnings, these different ways of making comparisons are all illustrated in Table 5.4.

When the weekly pay of full-time and part-time workers is combined women's average weekly pay compared to men's is lower than that for full-time workers alone, being in 2005 64.3% and 80.9% respectively. For both types of comparison the trend has been for women's average pay in comparison with men's average pay to increase, from 56.9% and 72.5% in 1997 respectively for full-time and part-timers combined

and for full-timers alone. When the average weekly pay of part-time female and part-time male workers is compared it can be seen that women have higher rates of pay. In 2005, women part-timers earned 19.3% more than their male counterparts. As noted, however, male part-time workers are a small and atypical group, while women part-timers are a substantial group within the female workforce. As indicated by the hourly comparisons, discussed below, the hourly rates of male and female part-time workers are very similar, though female part-timers earn slightly more on average. The comparisons of part-time weekly earnings with full-time weekly earnings illustrates the disadvantage that part-timers face compared to full-timers. In 2005, male part-time workers' average weekly pay was 25.7% of male full-time workers' weekly pay; female part-time workers' average weekly pay was 37.9% of female full-time workers' weekly pay and 30.7% of male full-time workers' average weekly pay.

Looking at comparisons of hourly rates of pay, again the general trend has been for women's average pay to increase as a proportion of men's average pay. In 1997, women's average hourly pay was 72.7% of men's average hourly pay, and by 2005 this had increased to 80.1%. For full-time women workers their average hourly pay was 89.2% of men's average hourly pay in 2005, while for part-time women workers their average hourly was 104% of male part-time workers' average hourly pay, while in 1997 women part-timers had earned slightly less than their male counterparts in terms of hourly rates at 99.6%. Comparisons of hourly rates also indicate that average hourly earnings of male part-time workers were 60.2% of male full-time workers' hourly average earnings in 2005, and in the same year women part-time workers' average hourly rates were 70.2% of women full-time workers' average hourly earnings, and 62.7% of male full-time workers' hourly average earnings. In general, the propensity for women to work part-time is significantly different from that of men, and it has a major impact on their earnings.

Table 5.4 Weekly and hourly median earnings, full-time and part-time employees, 1997-2005, (£)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Weekly pay									
All males	328.1	340.1	351.4	362.0	378.8	391.0	399.5	403.3	417.6
All females	186.8	195.8	209.1	210.9	224.8	232.4	246.7	256.1	268.5
Women's pay as % of men's	56.9	57.6	59.5	58.3	59.3	59.4	61.8	63.5	64.3
Full-time males	340.8	357.1	370.0	380.5	398.2	412.5	422.2	427.3	447.8
Full-time females	247.0	256.9	274.6	280.9	296.7	310.9	324.4	341.6	362.1
Women's pay as % of men's	72.5	71.9	74.2	73.8	74.5	75.4	76.8	79.9	80.9
Part-time males	80.0	89.3	100.7	99.0	99.5	109.6	114.7	117.8	115.2
Part-time females	94.4	100.3	106.7	108.9	116.0	124.0	127.4	134.3	137.4
Women's pay as % of men's	118.0	112.3	106.0	110.0	116.6	113.1	111.1	114.0	119.3
Part-time males as % of full-time males	23.5	25.0	27.2	26.0	25.0	26.6	27.2	27.6	25.7
Part-time females as % of full-time females	38.2	39.0	38.9	38.8	39.1	39.9	39.3	39.3	37.9
Part-time females as % of full-time males	27.7	28.1	28.8	28.6	29.1	30.1	30.2	31.4	30.7
Hourly pay									
All males	7.87	8.27	8.54	8.79	9.26	9.66	9.83	9.98	10.35
All females	5.72	6.03	6.37	6.51	6.89	7.19	7.53	7.03	8.29
Women's pay as % of men's	72.7	72.9	74.6	74.1	74.4	74.4	76.6	70.4	80.1
Full-time males	8.06	8.5	8.82	9.14	9.50	9.93	10.19	10.41	10.79
Full-time females	6.51	6.83	7.27	7.41	7.84	8.35	8.65	9.06	9.63
Women's pay as % of men's	80.8	80.4	82.4	81.1	82.5	84.1	84.9	87	89.2
Part-time males	4.56	4.79	5.00	5.05	5.76	5.83	6.00	6.03	6.50
Part-time females	4.54	4.95	5.16	5.37	5.6	5.78	6.06	6.31	6.76
Women's pay as % of men's	99.6	103.3	103.2	106.3	97.2	99.1	101.0	104.6	104.0
Part-time males as % of full-time males	56.6	56.4	56.7	55.3	60.6	58.7	58.9	57.9	60.2
Part-time females as % of full-time females	69.7	72.5	71.0	72.5	71.4	69.2	70.1	69.6	70.2
Part-time females as % of full-time males	56.3	58.2	58.5	58.8	58.9	58.2	59.5	60.6	62.7

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Another characteristic that distinguishes men and women in the labour force is their distribution within different categories of occupation. As commented above the general trend has been for the gender pay gap to decrease. Tables 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7

below illustrate this trend for different occupations between 1985 and 2005. Due to changes in the surveys, and in the occupational categories used, these are not strictly comparable. In general, however, the tables illustrate a significant reduction of the pay gap.

Table 5.5 Mean weekly pay (£) - all employee jobs by occupation - full-time employees, 1985

	Male	Female	Earnings ratio %
Scotland	189.7	119.1	63
Professional and related supporting management and administration	255.9
Professional and related in education, welfare and health	228.3	155.1	68
Literary, artistic and sports
Professional and related in science, engineering, technology and similar fields	245.8
Managerial (excluding general management)	238.8	129.2	54
Clerical and related	150.6	110.3	73
Selling	170.6	90.7	53
Security and protective service	204.2
Catering, cleaning, hairdressing and other personal service	127.7	91.0	71
Farming, fishing and related	121.6
Materials processing (excluding metals)	157.8	105.4	67
Making and repairing (excluding metal and electrical)	162.4	99.5	61
Processing, making, repairing and related (metal and electrical)	190.1
Painting, repetitive assembling, product inspecting, packaging and related	162.5	112.8	69
Construction, mining and related not identified elsewhere	164.5
Transport operating, materials moving and storing and related	158.8
Miscellaneous	156.3

Source: New Earnings Survey

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence (18 and over for females, 21 and over for males). ‘..’ data not available

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=5749>

Table 5.6 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by occupation - full-time employees, 1995

	Male	Female	Earnings ratio %
Scotland	350.7	254.1	73
Managers and Administrators	488.6	331.4	68
Professional occupations	498.0	412.0	83
Associate Professional and Technical occupations	403.9	311.8	77
Clerical and Secretarial	256.5	212.8	83
Craft and Related Occupations	312.9	184.1	59
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	291.4	191.8	66
Sales Occupations	285.1	178.8	63
Plant and Machine Operatives	290.5	206.8	71
Other Occupations	238.3	164.5	69

Source: New Earnings Survey

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=5749>

Between 1985 and 2005 the mean weekly pay of women full-time employees increased from 63% of male full-time employees' mean weekly pay to 81 %, an increase of 18 percentage points. Though the occupational categories are not strictly comparable over time, the rate of increase of women's average wages compared to men's in the higher earning category of Professional Occupations has been in line with the general trend, while the rate of increase in Managerial Occupations has been greater than this at around 24 percentage points between 1985 and 2005. The gender pay gap has also narrowed within Secretarial and Administrative Occupations and in Sales Occupations, though these remain female dominated and relatively low paid.

Table 5.7 below illustrates the gender pay gap between occupations in 2005. For all full-time employees in Scotland women's mean weekly pay was 81% of men's. Between occupations, full-time women workers' mean weekly pay varied from 70% of men's in the category of Process, Plant and Machine Operatives to 89% in Sales and Customer Service Occupations.

Table 5.7 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by occupation - full-time employees, 2005

	Male	Female	Earnings ratio %
Scotland	522.9	423.8	81
Managers and senior officials	752.6	593.2	79
Professional occupations	750.0	646.7	86
Associate professional and technical occupations	548.7	479.1	87
Administrative and secretarial occupations	384.3	324.3	84
Skilled trades occupations	416.6	306.7	74
Personal service occupations	337.4	293.7	87
Sales and customer service occupations	295.9	264.1	89
Process, plant and machine operatives	405.4	283.5	70
Elementary occupations	323.0	249.0	77

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Tables 5.8 and 5.9 below provide comparisons between the mean weekly pay of male and female part-time workers by occupation. In 1997 there were a number of occupational categories for which no information was available for male part-time workers, which suggests that there were few or no male part-timers in these occupations. That there are comparisons available across all categories for 2005 is in line with the increase in part-time work by men. In 1997, the mean weekly pay of women part-time workers ranged from 106.9% of male part-time workers weekly pay in Personal and Protective Service Occupations to 71.5% in Other occupations. In 2005, the general trend was for women part-timers to earn more on average than male part-timers across a range of occupations, with the exception of Process, Plant and Machine Operatives, Elementary Occupations and Skilled Trades Occupations. The latter category showed the greatest disparity with women part-timers' mean weekly pay being on average 45% of male part-timers' mean weekly pay.

Table 5.8 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by occupation - part-time employees, 1997

	Male	Female	Earnings ratio %
Scotland	110.9	109.4	99
Managers and Administrators	..	147.1	..
Professional occupations	..	199.8	..
Associate Professional and Technical occupations	..	177.9	..
Clerical and Secretarial	115.0	120.6	105
Craft and Related Occupations	..	103.0	..
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	88.6	94.7	107
Sales Occupations	76.6	79.7	104
Plant and Machine Operatives	123.0	113.4	92
Other Occupations	106.3	76.0	72

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

'..' data not available

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Table 5.9 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by occupation - part-time employees, 2005

	Male	Female	Earnings ratio %
Scotland	163.9	165.5	101
Managers and senior officials	270.1	305.0	113
Professional occupations	239.7	314.7	131
Associate professional and technical occupations	213.2	244.8	115
Administrative and secretarial occupations	154.1	162.1	105
Skilled trades occupations	285.8	128.6	45
Personal service occupations	138.0	146.8	106
Sales and customer service occupations	105.8	113.4	107
Process, plant and machine operatives	177.2	151.8	86
Elementary occupations	125.5	103.8	83

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Table 5.10 Gross median hourly earnings (£) by occupational group, excl. overtime, Scotland 2005

Occupational group	All Employees	Male	Female	Earnings ratio %
Professional	17.14	17.79	16.70	94
Managers & Senior Officials	15.49	16.86	13.45	80
Assoc Professional & Technical	12.54	12.70	12.37	97
Skilled Trades	8.95	9.14	6.03	66
Administrative & Secretarial	8.05	8.67	7.95	92
Process, Plant & Machine Ops.	7.71	8.00	6.23	78
Personal Service	7.12	7.69	7.04	92
Elementary	5.87	6.57	5.50	84
Sales & Customer Service	5.66	6.00	5.57	93
All employees	9.07	10.07	8.26	82

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings. C Young (2006) *Low Pay in Scotland*.

<http://www.slp.org.uk/>

Comparison of median hourly earnings by occupational group for 2005, as shown in Table 5.10 above, show that on average women's hourly earnings were 82% of men's. This ranged from women workers in the Associated Professional and Technical category earning on average 97% of men's hourly earnings, to women workers in Skilled Trades earning on average 66% of men's hourly earnings. The relationship of women's to men's earnings varies by industry as well as by occupation, as Tables 5.11, 5.12 and 5.13 below indicate, though due to changes in industrial classification these figures are not strictly comparable over time⁷.

Table 5.11 Mean weekly pay (£), - for all employee jobs by industry - full-time employees, 1985

	Males		Females		Earnings ratio %	
	Manual	Non-Manual	Manual	Non-Manual	Manual	Non-Manual
All Industries (1980 SIC divisions 0-9)	164.2	224.0	99.4	125.6	61	56
All index of production industries (1980 SIC divisions 1-4)	183.8	252.4	107.4	125.2	58	50
All manufacturing industries (1980 SIC divisions 2-4)	176.3	236.0	107.4	120.5	61	51
All non-manufacturing industries (1980 SIC divisions 0,1,5-9)	157.2	220.9	92.2	126.1	59	57
Agriculture, forestry and fishing (1980 SIC division 0)	121.9
Cole and Coke (1980 SIC classes 11-12)	173.1
Other energy and water supply ((1980 SIC classes 15-17)	194.1
Manufacturing (1980 SIC divisions 2-4)	176.3	236.0	107.4	120.5	61	51
Construction (1980 SIC division 5)	162.5	226.9
Wholesale distribution and commission agents (1980 SIC classes 61-63)	145.7	207.0	..	103.8	..	50
Retail distribution and repair of consumer goods and vehicles (1980 SIC classes 64,65,67)	123.3	162.4	..	96.0	..	59
Hotels and catering (1980 SIC class 66)
Transport and communication (1980 SIC division 7)	171.2	227.2	..	124.9	..	55
Banking, finance, insurance, business services and leasing (1980 SIC division 8)	..	229.5	..	115.7	..	50
Public administration, national defence and compulsory social security (1980 SIC class 91)	134.6	204.1	..	120.9	..	59
Professional and scientific services (1980 SIC classes 93-95)	139.7	225.2	87.9	145.9	63	65
Miscellaneous services (1980 SIC classes 92,96-99)	131.6	203.5	91.5	133.8	70	66

Source: New Earnings Survey

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence (18 and over for females, 21 and over for males). '..' data not available.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=5749>

⁷ A Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) was first introduced into the United Kingdom in 1948 for use in classifying business establishments and other statistical units by the type of economic activity in which they are engaged. The classification provides a framework for the collection, tabulation, presentation and analysis of data and its use promotes uniformity. The SIC was revised between 1980 and 1992. This means that some of the changes indicated in the tables may be partly due to changes in classification.

In 1985 full-time women workers' mean weekly pay was on average between 56% (non-manual) and 61% (manual) of full-time male workers' weekly pay for all industries, with the gender pay gap being narrowest in Professional and Scientific Services and Miscellaneous Services, and greatest in Wholesale Distribution and Commission Agents and Banking, Finance, Insurance and Business Services. By 1995, as indicated in Table 5.12 below the mean weekly pay of full-time women workers had increased on average to around 66% (65% for manual and 66% for non-manual) of male full-time workers mean weekly pay across all industries. The gender pay gap was narrowest in Education and greatest in non-manual jobs in Manufacturing.

Table 5.12 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by industry - full-time employees, 1995

	Males		Females		Earnings ratio %	
	Manual	Non-Manual	Manual	Non-Manual	Manual	Non-Manual
All industries and services	284.5	413.2	186.0	272.6	65	66
All index of production industries	319.0	467.3	199.8	264.5	63	57
All manufacturing	314.0	438.8	199.5	250.4	64	57
All service industries	258.6	396.1	174.8	274.5	68	69
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	215.0
Fishing
Mining and quarrying
Manufacturing	314.0	438.8	199.5	250.4	64	57
Electricity, gas and water supply	360.8
Construction	299.7	441.8
Wholesale and retail trade	247.2	315.3	169.1	204.1	68	65
Hotels and restaurants	175.5	..	141.3	..	81	..
Transport, storage and communication	280.4	408.6
Financial intermediation	..	414.4	..	255.8	..	62
Real estate, renting and business activities	279.1	421.4	..	250.9	..	60
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	262.2	395.6	..	258.2	..	65
Education	250.9	444.6	..	365.0	..	82
Health and social work	226.8	430.9	182.9	296.1	81	69
Other community, social and personal service activities	258.2	243.2
Private households with employed persons
Extra-territorial organisations and bodies

Source: New Earnings Survey

'..' data not available

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=5749>

By 2005, as Table 5.13 below indicates, the mean weekly pay of full-time women workers had again increased, reaching 81% of male full-time workers mean weekly pay across all industries and services. The gender pay gap continued to be narrowest in Education and was greatest in Financial Intermediation, Manufacturing and Hotels and Restaurants.

Table 5.13 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by industry - full-time employees, 2005

	Males	Females	Earnings ratio %
All industries and services	522.9	424.0	81
All index of production industries	532.9	375.7	71
All manufacturing	517.8	354.2	68
All service industries	523.8	428.5	82
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	384.4	316.4	82
Fishing	448.6
Mining and quarrying	710.7	496.5	70
Manufacturing	517.8	354.2	68
Electricity, gas and water supply	622.4	461.7	74
Construction	514.8	411.2	80
Wholesale and retail trade	438.9	301.7	69
Hotels and restaurants	297.7	262.4	88
Transport, storage and communication	484.9	398.1	82
Financial intermediation	641.7	438.2	68
Real estate, renting and business activities	585.6	426.9	73
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	554.7	441.8	80
Education	522.7	476.4	91
Health and social work	652.8	459.9	71
Other community, social and personal service activities	432.8	384.4	89
Private households with employed persons
Extra-territorial organisations and bodies

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

'..' data not available.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Comparisons of part-time earnings by industry for 1995 and 2005, as shown in Table 5.14 below indicate the trend for women part-time workers' weekly earnings to be greater than male part-time workers' weekly earnings, having risen from 98% for all industries and services in 1995 to 101% in 2005. There is, however, a very wide variation in the earnings ratio by industry, from women part-time workers earning on average 141% of male part-time workers' mean weekly pay in the category Public Administration and Defence and Compulsory Social Security to 50% in Manufacturing. Part of the explanation for these variations lies in the prevalence of part-time work in different sectors and the importance it might have structurally for particular industries, as well as in the fact that part-time work is available at different occupational levels in different industries, and that there are different patterns in the typical distribution of part-time hours in different industries. Furthermore, there are in general much smaller numbers of male than female part-time workers, and even within a particular industry they may be working in different occupations.

Table 5.14 Mean weekly pay (£) - for all employee jobs by industry - part-time employees, 1995, 2005

	1995			2005		
	Males	Females	Earnings ratio %	Males	Females	Earnings ratio %
All industries and services	111.0	109.2	98	163.9	165.6	101
All index of production industries	..	103.8	..	339.2	169.7	50
All manufacturing	..	98.9	..	316.6	159.5	50
All service industries	105.6	109.8	104	152.5	165.7	109
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	..	74.4
Fishing
Mining and quarrying
Manufacturing	..	98.9	..	316.6	159.5	50
Electricity, gas and water supply	..	176.2	..	122.3	211.7	173
Construction	..	101.2	..	306.7	139.0	45
Wholesale and retail trade	88.9	84.5	95	122.8	121.1	99
Hotels and restaurants	63.8	57.2	90	98.7	91.6	93
Transport, storage and communication	151.2	123.8	82	273.3	199.8	73
Financial intermediation	..	136.7	..	190.5	239.5	126
Real estate, renting and business activities	93.4	92.6	99	137.0	158.2	116
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	..	116.5	..	132.7	186.7	141
Education	140.9	110.3	78	157.5	163.9	104
Health and social work	126.3	136.6	108	205.4	201.7	98
Other community, social and personal service activities	70.6	91.3	129	137.2	127.9	93
Private households with employed persons	136.9	..
Extra-territorial organisations and bodies

Source: New Earnings Survey (1995) and Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (2005)

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

Industries are defined using Standard Industrial Classification codes 1992 for 1995 and codes 2003 for 2005.

'..' data not available.

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=5749>;

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101>

Table 5.15 Hourly median earnings (£) excluding over-time, private and public sector, Scotland, 2005

Sector	Not classified	Public Sector	Private Sector	Private as % of public
All employees	11.24	12.11	8.99	74
Male employees	13.01	12.27	9.71	79
Female employees	9.86	11.92	7.75	65
Female as % of male	76	97	80	

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, Office for National Statistics

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

Not only does the ratio of women's to men's average earnings vary by occupation and industry, it varies according to whether women work in the public or the private sector. Table 5.15 above indicates that in 2005 the gender pay gap was narrowest in the public sector, where women's hourly median earnings were 97% of men's hourly

median earnings compared to 80% in the private sector. The ratio of private to public sector earnings was more favourable for men, where male private sector employees earned 79% of the hourly median earnings of male public sector employees, while women private sector employees earned 65% of the median hourly earnings of women public sector employees.

The relationship between levels of qualifications and the gender pay gap is illustrated in Table 5.16 below. While, as might be expected, the highest median hourly earnings of full-time employees in 2005 were achieved by both women and men with the highest levels of qualifications, i.e. those with Degrees or equivalent or with other Higher Education qualifications, the gender pay gap was somewhat greater at these levels of qualification than at lower levels of qualification. Women with Degrees or equivalent earned 82% of men's median hourly earnings, and those with Higher Education earned 83%. However, those with GCSE grades A-C or equivalent earned 94% of men's hourly median earnings, and those with GCSE below grade C or equivalent earned 94% of men's hourly median earnings.

Table 5.16 Median hourly earnings (£) of full-time employees, by qualifications, Scotland, 2005

Highest qualification achieved	Women	Men	Earnings ratio %
Degree or equivalent	13.06	15.88	82
Higher education	9.61	11.54	83
GCE 'A' level or equivalent	7.74	9.37	83
GCSE grades A-C or equivalent	7.20	7.67	94
GCSE below grade C or equivalent	6.46	6.90	94
Other qualifications	6.84	7.49	91
No qualification	5.90	7.14	83
All	8.57	9.75	88

Source: Annual Population Survey 2005 (Jan to Dec)

There are also variations in the gender earnings ratio according to age, as Table 5.17 below indicates. While overall in 2005 women's median gross hourly earnings were 91% of men's, this ranged from 86% for the 35-49 age group to 107% for the 16-24 age group.

Table 5.17 Median gross hourly earnings (£) excluding overtime of full-time employees, by age, 2005

Age	Women	Men	Earnings ratio %
16-24	6.70	6.28	107
25-34	10.25	10.16	101
35-49	10.40	12.11	86
50-59/64	9.84	10.99	90
60/65+	8.13	8.56	95
All ages	9.58	10.54	91

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, Office for National Statistics

Notes: Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

These variations by age are likely to be linked to changes in women's patterns of participation in the labour market due to childbearing and childrearing, which is most likely to affect women in their thirties (as can be seen in Chapter One on Population,

Households and Families), and it is notable that the gap decreases again for older age groups. For younger age groups there appears to be gender parity in pay at hourly rates, though the distribution of working hours is likely to affect the overall levels of earnings gained by women and men in these age groups.

The presence of dependent children has an impact on women's participation in the labour market, as illustrated in Chapter Four. Similarly, the presence of dependent children has an impact on earnings, as Table 5.18 below illustrates. Of full-time workers in 2005, women without dependent children earned more in relation to male full-time workers without dependent children at 91% of male median hourly earnings, while women with dependent children earned 81% of median hourly earnings of men with dependent children. By contrast women part-time workers with dependent children earned more in relation to male part-timers with dependent children, 103% of male median hourly earnings, while women part-timers without dependent children earned 98% of the median hourly earnings of male part-timers without dependent children.

Table 5.18 Median hourly earnings (£) of employees with and without dependent children, 2005

	Males full-time	Females full-time	Earnings ratio - full-time %	Males part-time	Females part-time	Earnings ratio - part-time %
With dependent children	11.35	9.23	81	7.00	7.20	103
No dependent children	9.77	8.84	91	6.25	6.10	98

Source: Annual Population Survey 2005 (Jan to Dec)

Notes: Dependent children are those aged 0 to 15 and those aged 16 to 18 who are in full-time education.

There seems to be little impact on earnings from disability status. As Table 5.19 below illustrates the gender earnings ratio for disabled and non-disabled people is virtually the same. In 2005 full-time disabled women workers earned 88% of the median hourly earnings of full-time disabled male workers, while full-time non-disabled women workers earned 88% of the median hourly earnings of full-time non-disabled male workers, though it should be borne in mind that on average disabled people earn about 90% of the earnings of non-disabled people (Scottish Executive, 2004).

Table 5.19 Median hourly earnings of full-time employees, by disability status, Scotland, 2005

Disability Status	Women	Men	Earnings ratio %
Disabled	7.89	9.00	88
Not Disabled	8.65	9.89	87
All	8.57	9.75	88

Source: Annual Population Survey 2005 (Jan to Dec)

Notes: The disabled group includes those 'Both DDA (current disability) and work-limiting disabled', 'DDA disabled (current disability) only' and 'Work-limiting disabled only'. DDA disabled (current disability) includes those who have a long-term disability which substantially limits their day-to-day activities. Work-limiting disabled includes those who have a long-term disability which affects the kind or amount of work they might do.

The data on earnings discussed so far in this chapter have been for Scotland as a whole. However, just as there are variations in earnings by industry and occupation, there are variations by regions within Scotland depending on the nature the local

economy, which affects the level and type of employment opportunities available to women and men. Table 5.20 below indicates the variation in earnings by local authority area in 2005, and also provides a comparison with the UK average.

Table 5.20 Employees' gross weekly earnings, UK, Scotland, and local authority area, 2005

Region	All employees (£)		Male employees (£)		Female employees (£)		Female as % of male	
	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean
Aberdeen City	380.4	464.1	513.8	617.4	279.3	328.4	54	53
Aberdeenshire	305.0	367.4	405.8	499.0	200.0	255.1	49	51
Angus	293.0	332.4	357.8	403.9	231.5	277.4	65	69
Argyll & Bute	310.0	370.3	443.3	465.9	267.6	296.4	60	64
Borders	287.8	318.4	331.4	381.9	230.1	268.7	69	70
Clackmannanshire	291.6	325.4	372.2	462.7	243.2	270.0	65	58
Dumfries & Galloway	295.8	341.0	356.9	409.1	218.3	281.5	61	69
Dundee City	336.4	400.8	407.0	485.9	285.3	325.2	70	67
East Ayrshire	325.6	390.2	394.3	433.4	238.3	356.7	60	82
East Dunbartonshire	297.5	342.0	371.2	400.0	249.9	310.1	67	78
East Lothian	336.4	361.7	379.8	424.4	282.3	302.9	74	71
East Renfrewshire	289.4	338.6	..	376.2	253.9	308.6	..	82
Edinburgh	374.7	447.4	458.9	527.7	310.0	372.8	68	71
Falkirk	313.5	376.6	427.3	439.7	264.9	324.3	62	74
Fife	295.8	361.5	409.3	466.4	233.7	278.0	57	60
Glasgow	339.5	410.8	411.5	495.7	293.6	340.1	71	69
Highland	298.9	357.2	380.4	453.6	233.1	278.6	61	61
Inverclyde	316.0	351.9	392.0	417.4	270.9	309.7	69	74
Midlothian	348.7	390.8	399.6	436.4	281.8	337.9	71	77
Moray	295.2	325.6	389.9	418.2	226.7	254.0	58	61
North Ayrshire	347.7	391.3	415.8	506.9	268.4	297.1	65	59
North Lanarkshire	325.8	387.4	385.6	450.2	261.2	324.8	68	72
Orkney Islands	309.1	351.1	..	360.0	..	344.5	..	96
Perth & Kinross	300.6	349.6	388.5	427.6	240.4	290.3	62	68
Renfrewshire	344.4	412.9	440.2	510.5	267.1	321.0	61	63
Shetland Islands	348.7	385.3	417.0	498.4	..	261.2	..	52
South Ayrshire	342.4	384.3	409.6	445.2	270.2	326.4	66	73
South Lanarkshire	342.4	391.5	435.4	495.9	262.9	298.9	60	60
Stirling	322.4	370.9	395.4	463.8	235.7	286.7	60	62
West Dunbartonshire	289.0	336.4	363.2	397.7	256.5	298.5	71	75
West Lothian	331.0	388.8	416.1	473.7	258.7	307.8	62	65
Western Isles	296.0	365.0	371.7	412.0	..	331.9	..	81
Scotland	330.9	393.5	414.4	482.0	268.3	317.6	65	66
United kingdom	349.6	423.2	440.1	525.5	267.8	319.9	61	61

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings. C Young (2006) *Low Pay in Scotland*.

'..' data not available.

<http://www.slp.org.uk/>

It should be noted that the data for some Local Authorities will be based on relatively small sample sizes. This table also illustrates the difference between the median and the mean – the latter being greater because of inclusion of atypical high earners,

though the disparity in earnings ratios calculated using the median and the mean are not great. In the commentary that follows the focus will be on the median comparisons, in line with current ONS practice in interpreting ASHE data. However, it should be noted that mean earnings are used to monitor the gender pay gap internationally (see Scottish Executive, 2006).

A comparison of gross weekly earnings for all male and female employees indicated that in 2005, women in Scotland earned 65% of men's gross weekly earnings on average, compared to 61% for the UK as a whole. The variation across local authority areas ranged from women in Aberdeenshire earning 49% of men's median gross weekly earnings to women in Glasgow earning 71% of men's median gross weekly earnings. The highest level of median gross weekly earnings for women occurred in Edinburgh, where women earned £310 per week, representing 68% of male median gross weekly earnings. The highest male median gross weekly earnings occurred in Aberdeen City, where men earned £513.80 per week, with women in Aberdeen City earning above the Scottish average, £279.30 per week compared to £268.30 per week. This represented, however, only 54% of men's median gross weekly earnings. Such variations are influenced by the nature of the local economy, and it seems likely, for example, that the gender pay gap in Aberdeen and Aberdeenshire is primarily a result of high male average earnings in the oil industry, though further research would be necessary to establish the exact factors at work.

Table 5.20 above has indicated both the variation in levels of women's and men's median earnings across Scotland, and differences in the gender earnings ratio at local authority level, and has indicated that the disparity between women's and men's earnings may be large even where women earn above the average. Low pay, however, remains a significant problem for women workers in Scotland. Table 5.21 below indicates the prevalence of low pay in Scotland, as calculated by the Scottish Low Pay Unit (SLPU). The low pay threshold (LPT) used by the Scottish Low Pay Unit is calculated at the level of two-thirds of male median earnings. This is in contrast to the OECD definition of low pay, which is two thirds of all full time earnings, and it should be taken into account that these different measures give different figures for the proportion of low paid workers, with the SLPU measure suggesting higher levels. Using the SLPU threshold, over 350,000 workers, or 23% of the workforce in Scotland, were low paid in 2005. This represented 17% of all male workers in Scotland and 31% of all women workers in Scotland. Women were therefore almost twice as likely as men to be low paid. The table also indicates the extent of variation across Scotland. In about half of all local authorities in Scotland the numbers of men paid below the LPT are too small to register, while for the remaining areas the proportions of men paid below the LPT range from 9% in Aberdeen City to 32% in South Ayrshire. Substantial proportions of women were paid below the LPT in almost all local authority areas, ranging from 25% in Aberdeen City to 48% in Clackmannanshire.

Table 5.21 Counts and proportions of full-time employees earning less than LPT* per week UK, Scotland and local authority areas, 2005

Region	All employees (£)		Male (£)		Female (£)	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Aberdeen City	15,642	16	5,187	9	10,458	25
Aberdeenshire	9,758	24	6,288	39
Angus	5,313	25	2,610	29
Argyll & Bute	5,060	25	2,889	32
Borders	7,525	30	4,334	39
Clackmannanshire	3,120	31	2,420	48
Dumfries & Galloway	10,545	29	4,452	21	6,128	38
Dundee City	13,629	23	6,105	19	7,540	29
East Ayrshire	5,350	21
East Dunbartonshire	3,330	22
East Renfrewshire	3,113	28
Edinburgh	42,714	19	17,907	14	24,750	25
Falkirk	9,139	25	4,620	22	4,496	28
Fife	25,098	28	9,550	19	15,561	40
Glasgow	57,200	22	24,978	18	32,208	26
Highland	16,008	28	6,204	19	9,875	40
Inverclyde	5,206	27	3,480	35
Midlothian	5,082	23
Moray	6,696	28	4,820	48
North Ayrshire	5,967	22	3,652	33
North Lanarkshire	22,113	24	10,123	19	12,008	32
Perth & Kinross	14,781	32	4,830	23	7,596	42
Renfrewshire	10,608	20	3,960	13	6,666	30
South Ayrshire	8,738	26	4,640	23	4,102	29
South Lanarkshire	15,884	21	6,255	14	9,610	31
Stirling	7,028	25	4,081	37
West Dunbartonshire	5,282	28
West Lothian	12,220	24	5,859	19	6,140	31
Scotland	358,974	23	150,672	17	208,146	31
United kingdom	3,534,708	20	1,592,597	15	1,952,640	29

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings. C Young (2006) *Low Pay in Scotland*.

* Two-thirds of male median earnings, currently £285.71 per week

‘..’ data not available.

<http://www.slp.org.uk/>

Table 5.22 below indicates the distribution of gross hourly earnings by gender and occupation. The occupational group with the highest earners in terms of hourly rates was Managers and Senior Officials, where 10% of all employees earned more than £30.98 an hour, followed by Professionals, of whom 10% earned more than £27.19 an hour. By contrast the lowest earning categories were Sales and Customer Services, where 10% of employees earned more than £8.23 an hour, and Elementary occupations, where 10% of employees earned more than £9.03 an hour. For all occupational categories the top 10% of male earners had higher rates of pay than the top 10% of female earners, while for most categories the bottom 10% of female earners had lower rates of pay than the bottom 10% of male earners, with the exception of Professionals, where the bottom 10% of women earned less than £11.23 an hour compared to £11.09 an hour for men. In the case of Sales and Customer

Services and Elementary occupations the bottom 10% of men and the bottom 10% of women had the same hourly rates.

Table 5.22 Distribution of gross hourly earnings by occupational group, excl. overtime, 2005

Occupational group	All employees		Male		Female	
	10% earned less than (£)	10% earned more than (£)	10% earned less than (£)	10% earned more than (£)	10% earned less than (£)	10% earned more than (£)
Managers & Senior Officials	7.45	30.98	8.12	33.52	6.73	..
Professional	11.11	27.19	11.09	29.69	11.23	24.99
Assoc Professional & Technical	7.78	18.50	7.98	20.00	7.65	17.40
Administrative & Secretarial	5.82	12.34	5.92	15.22	5.80	11.84
Skilled Trades	5.52	13.92	5.88	13.99	4.85	..
Personal Service	5.20	10.14	5.46	..	5.18	9.85
Sales & Customer Service	4.85	8.23	4.85	..	4.85	8.55
Process, Plant & Machine Ops.	5.45	12.71	5.64	12.98	5.00	..
Elementary	4.85	9.03	4.85	9.71	4.85	7.81
All employees	5.25	19.65	5.55	22.07	5.10	17.45

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings. C Young (2006) *Low Pay in Scotland*.

‘..’ data not available.

<http://www.slp.org.uk/>

5.5 INDIVIDUAL AND HOUSEHOLD INCOMES

There are different ways in which incomes and income distribution can be calculated. The above section has discussed one source of income in the form of earnings from paid employment. This section now examines evidence of gender differences based on income from all sources combined. There are various measures of income. The first part of this section examines income which is accrued to the man or woman in their own right, known as individual income. The second section examines household income which can be used as a proxy for living standards if it has been equivalised (adjusted) for the size and composition of the household. The key assumption in such analysis is that all individuals in the household benefit equally from the combined (equivalised) income of the household. Definitions of individual and household incomes used in the data analyses which are included in this section are provided in Appendix III.

5.5.1 Individual incomes

While earnings/pensions are a key element of individual incomes, overall income is an important measure of financial well-being. Analysis of data from a range of sources has been used to provide an indicator of women’s and men’s individual incomes (Women and Equality Unit, 2005). The measures used are Total, Net and Disposable income (see Appendix III). Table 5.23 below shows the trend in median individual incomes over time. In 1996/97-1997/98 women’s individual total income was on average 51% of men’s individual total income. By 2002/03 - 2004/05 this had increased by 9% to 60%. Over the same period women’s net individual income as a proportion of men’s net individual income increased from 58% to 67%, while women’s disposable individual income as a proportion of men’s disposable individual income increased from 54% to 63%.

Table 5.23 Median individual incomes from 1996/97 to 2004/05 (£ per week 2004/05 prices)

Year	All men			All Women			Women's as % of men's		
	Total	Net	Dispos-able	Total	Net	Dispos-able	Total	Net	Dispos-able
1996/97 - 1998/99	266	219	184	135	128	99	51	58	54
1997/98 - 1999/2000	263	218	183	140	133	103	53	61	56
1998/99 - 2000/01	263	220	183	143	136	106	54	62	58
1999/2000 - 2001/02	268	226	188	151	143	112	56	63	60
2000/01 - 2002/03	275	232	192	158	149	116	58	64	60
2001/02 - 2003/04	282	237	197	168	157	122	60	66	62
2002/03 - 2004/05	287	239	199	172	161	125	60	67	63

Source: Women and Equality Unit (2005) *Individual Incomes of men and women 1996/97 to 2004/05*.

Note: Years are combined due to small numbers.

http://www.womenandequalityunit.gov.uk/indiv_incomes/report2005.pdf

As indicated above the distribution of individual incomes varies with gender, with a significant gender gap, greater than that for earnings, though the individual income gender gap, like the earnings gender gap, is narrowing over time. The distribution of individual incomes also differ according to family type. Tables 5.24 and 5.25 below indicate differences between men's and women's individual incomes according to family type, including single men and women and those living in couple households, and those with and without dependent children. Comparisons are not available, however, for female and male lone parents, due to the small numbers of the latter. Table 5.24 indicates that between 1996/97-1998/99 to 2002/03-2004/05 within all family types, with the exception of single adults without children and single pensioners, women's median total individual income increased as a proportion of men's median total individual income, from 51% to 60% overall for all family types. In the case of single men and women without children, where income levels were closest there was a slight decline in women's median total individual incomes as a proportion of men's, from 97% to 94%, while for single pensioners the proportion remained the same at 94%. For those types of family where the gender gap in individual incomes was the greatest there was a decrease in the gap, though it still remained significant. For pensioner couples, where women's median total individual incomes were on average 37% of men's in 1996/97-1998/99 there was an increase to 43% by 2002/03-2004/05, while for couples with children, where women's median total individual incomes were on average 36% of men's in 1996/97-1998/99 there was an increase to 46% by 2002/03-2004/05. It should be noted that in couple households with children it is more likely that women will either be working part-time or not in work due to childcare responsibilities, and that this is likely to be a key factor in the gender income gap within this type of household. In this period the greatest increase in women's individual incomes occurred for lone parents and for women in couples with children. This is likely to have been at least in part a result of benefits and tax credits targeted at families with children. The category of women with the highest level of individual incomes were those in couples without children, who had incomes of £183 a week in 1996/97-1998/99 and of £217 a week in 2002/03-2004/05, while

the category which had the lowest level of individual incomes were women in pensioner couples who had incomes of £66 per week and £89 per week for the same years respectively.

Table 5.24 Median Total Individual Income by sex and family type, 1996/97-1998/99; 2002/03-2004/05

£ per week (2004/05 prices)	Single without Children	Single Pensioner	Single with Children	Couple without Children	Pensioner couple	Couple with Children	All
1996/97 - 1998/99							
Women	161	124	142	183	66	139	135
Men	165	132	-	350	177	382	266
Women's as % of men's	97	94	n/a	52	37	36	51
2002/03-2004/05							
Women	184	159	213	217	89	200	172
Men	196	169	-	376	208	431	287
Women's as % of men's	94	94	n/a	58	43	46	60
% change women's incomes 1996/7-98/99 to 2002/03-04/05	14	28	50	19	35	44	27

Source: Women and Equality Unit (2005) *Individual Incomes of men and women 1996/97 to 2004/05*

http://www.womenandequalityunit.gov.uk/indiv_incomes/report2005.pdf

Table 5.25 Median Disposable Individual Income by sex and family type, 1996/97-1998/99; 2002/03-2004/05

£ per week (2004/05 prices)	Single without Children	Single Pensioner	Single with Children	Couple without Children	Pensioner couple	Couple with Children	All
1996/97 - 1998/99							
Women	111	102	130	122	51	82	99
Men	119	106	-	233	156	245	184
% of male income	93	96	n/a	52	33	33	54
2002/03 - 2004/05							
Women	126	131	165	145	70	125	125
Men	133	142	-	243	179	283	199
% of male income	95	92	n/a	60	39	44	63
% change women's incomes 1996/97-98/99 to 2002/03-04/05	13	28	27	19	37	52	26

Source: Women and Equality Unit (2005) *Individual Incomes of men and women 1996/97 to 2004/05*

http://www.womenandequalityunit.gov.uk/indiv_incomes/report2005.pdf

Table 5.25 above shows median disposable individual incomes across family types for the same period, from 1996/97-1998/99 to 2002/03-2004/05. In this case women's median disposable individual income as a proportion of men's rose in all family types, with the exception of single pensioners. The family type in which there was the greatest increase in the level of women's median disposable individual incomes was couples with children. While there was also an increase in women's median

disposable incomes relative to men's in this type of family, they remained less than half that of men's on average.

The distribution of individual incomes is also subject to regional variation. As Table 5.26 below indicates, women's incomes are more concentrated towards the lower income quintiles⁸ compared to the distribution of incomes for all adults. In 1996/97-1998/99 women's individual incomes in Scotland were less likely to be in the highest quintile compared to women's individual incomes for GB as a whole, 8% compared to 10%. By 2002/03-2004/05, however, this gap had declined slightly with 10% of women's individual incomes in Scotland in the top quintile compared to 11% for GB as a whole.

Table 5.26 Percentage distribution of Total Individual Income, 1996/97-98/99 and 2002/03-04/05, Scotland and Great Britain

	Bottom Quintile	Second Quintile	Third Quintile	Fourth Quintile	Top Quintile
Percentage					
1996/97 - 1998/99					
All Women Scotland	27	26	24	15	8
All Women GB	28	25	21	15	10
All Adults GB	20	20	20	20	20
2002/03 - 2004/05					
All Women Scotland	25	26	23	16	10
All Women GB	27	25	21	16	11
All Adults GB	20	20	20	20	20

Source: Women and Equality Unit (2005) *Individual Incomes of men and women 1996/97 to 2004/05*

http://www.womenandequalityunit.gov.uk/indiv_incomes/report2005.pdf

5.5.2 Household incomes

Just as there are gender differences in the distribution of individual incomes, household incomes vary according to the sex of the adult with the highest income in the household (the Highest Income Householder, or HIH). Analysis of Scottish Household Survey data for 2001/02 and 2005, as shown in Table 5.27 below, indicate the differential distribution of net household income depending on whether the person with the highest income was a man or a woman. This indicates that in 2001/02, where men in households had the highest income the household was much more likely to be at the upper end of income distribution than households where women in households had the highest income. In 2001/02 more than twice as many households with a male HIH had an income of over £20,000 a year than households with a female HIH, 43% compared to 17%. There were correspondingly more households with a female HIH in the lowest income category of £6,000 or less than households with a male HIH, 15% compared to 7%. By 2005, while more households had moved into higher income categories, the overall pattern was similar, with households with a male HIH being more than twice as likely to be in the highest income category, 51% compared to 22%, and households with a female HIH being more almost twice as likely to be in the lowest income category, 9% compared to 5%.

⁸ All men and women together were ranked by total individual income and then divided into quintile groups (i.e. five groups) to provide a quintile distribution for all adults in Great Britain.

Table 5.27 Annual net household income by sex of HiH, 2001/02 and 2005 (£) (percentages)

Annual Net Income (£)	2001/02		2005	
	Male HiH	Female HiH	Male HiH	Female HiH
0-6,000	7	15	5	9
6,000-10,000	15	32	12	26
10,000-15,000	19	25	17	28
15,001-20,000	17	12	15	14
Over 20,000	43	17	51	22
<i>Base</i>	<i>18,551</i>	<i>11,046</i>	<i>8,803</i>	<i>6,022</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey

The tables above on individual incomes and on households according to the sex of the adult with the highest income have indicated that in general men tend to have access to higher incomes than do women. Another way of measuring gender difference in access to incomes is through examination of the position of adults in households below average income (HBAI). More specifically, it is defined as those individuals living in households whose equivalised income is below 60% of GB median income in the same year. This measure assumes that all individuals in the household benefit equally from the combined (equivalised) income of the household. It does not provide any information about the distribution of financial resources within the household.

Table 5.28 Proportion and number of working age adults in relative low income by sex (Before and After Housing Costs), Scotland, 1996/97-2004/05

Year	Males				Females				All Working Age Adults		All Working Age Adults	
	Before Housing Costs		After Housing Costs		Before Housing Costs		After housing Costs		Before Housing Costs		After housing Costs	
	%	(000s)	%	(000s)	%	(000s)	%	(000s)	%	(000s)	%	(000s)
1996/97	16	240	20	310	16	230	20	290	16	470	20	600
1997/98	14	210	16	250	17	250	19	280	15	460	18	530
1998/99	15	240	18	280	15	220	19	280	15	460	19	560
1999/00	15	240	19	290	16	240	21	300	16	480	20	590
2000/01	17	250	20	310	17	260	22	320	17	510	21	630
2001/02	15	230	18	280	16	230	19	280	15	460	19	560
2002/03	17	260	19	300	18	260	21	310	17	520	20	610
2003/04	15	240	18	270	16	230	18	270	15	470	18	540
2004/05	14	220	17	270	15	220	18	270	15	440	18	540

Source: Households Below Average Income, DWP

Note: Individuals in households with an equivalised net disposable income below 60% of the relevant year's GB median.

Table 5.28 above indicates the proportions and numbers of working age adults who were in households below average income from 1996/97-2004/05. In terms of numbers and of proportions the position for men and women was very similar. While in this period there were some fluctuations in absolute numbers of men and women in low income households, with sometimes the number of men being larger and sometimes the number of women being larger, the proportions of male adults of working age in this position were very similar to the proportions of female adults of working age in this position. In general fluctuations in numbers and proportions of

male and female adults in below average income households between 1996/97 and 2004/05 were small, with the position remaining relatively stable.

The situation with regard to pensioner households below average income differs in certain respects from that of working age adults. Table 5.29 below indicates both the numbers and proportions of male and female pensioners in households below average income between 1996/97 and 2004/05. This shows that for all years the number of female pensioners in low income households was far greater than the number of male pensioners in low income households. In 1996/97 there were 190,000 female pensioners in households below average income (After Housing Costs) compared to 70,000 male pensioners. While by 2004/05 the numbers of both female and male pensioners in households below average income (After Housing Costs) had declined, there were still significantly more women in this situation, 90,000 compared to 50,000 men. In 1996/97 there was also a greater proportion of female than male pensioners in households below average income (After Housing Costs), 33% of all female pensioners compared to 25% of all male pensioners. By 2004/05 this proportion had declined for both female and male pensioners to 15% for male pensioners and 16% of female pensioners.

Table 5.29 Proportion and number of pensioners in relative low income by sex (BHC and AHC), Scotland, 1996/97-2004/05

Year	Male pensioners				Female pensioners				All pensioners			
	Before Housing Costs		After Housing Costs		Before Housing Costs		After Housing Costs		Before Housing Costs		After Housing Costs	
	%	000s	%	000s	%	000s	%	000s	%	000s	%	000s
1996/97	24	70	25	70	26	150	33	190	26	220	30	260
1997/98	20	60	25	70	19	110	26	150	19	170	25	220
1998/99	20	60	25	70	22	130	26	150	21	180	25	220
1999/00	22	70	24	70	24	140	27	160	23	200	26	230
2000/01	20	60	21	70	21	120	24	140	20	180	23	210
2001/02	16	50	20	60	19	110	20	120	18	160	20	180
2002/03	18	60	20	60	22	130	22	120	21	180	21	190
2003/04	18	60	18	60	20	110	18	110	19	170	18	160
2004/05	18	60	15	50	18	110	16	90	18	170	16	140

Source: Households Below Average Income, DWP

Note: Individuals in households with an equivalised net disposable income below 60% of the relevant year's GB median.

5.6 BENEFITS AND PENSIONS

In addition to measures such as the Households Below Average Income measure, information on recipients of state benefits is an important source of data indicating the prevalence of poverty and low incomes among women and men, though such data do not always present a clear picture of the gender distribution of claimants. Furthermore, in recent years there have been a number of changes to the benefits system, including the introduction of new benefits and the modification or cessation of others. For this reason it is not possible to track precisely the changing gender balance in the population in receipt of state benefits. The tables in this section provide data on key state benefits only. With respect to other benefits such as Widow's Benefit and Bereavement Benefit, numbers of recipients are relatively small, with the

former being paid exclusively to women, and women being the majority of recipients of the latter.

Table 5.30 below provides an indication of the gender differences in the types of benefits men and women received in 2000. Men were three-quarters of all Job Seeker's Allowance recipients, though this figure includes men claiming on behalf of a dependent partner (and in some cases vice versa, though probably a small number), so the extent to which women are also reliant on this benefit is unclear. Women made up the majority of those in receipt of Severe Disablement Allowance (59%), while men were the majority of Incapacity Benefit recipients (64%).

5.30 Recipients of key benefits by sex, 2000

Recipients by type of benefit	Men (000s)	Women (000s)	Women as % of total
All Jobseeker's Allowance claimants	104.4	30.6	23
Severe Disablement Allowance	17.3	24.4	59
Incapacity Benefit	129.5	141.2	36

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

Historically, women have tended to be the majority of those dependent on benefits, with previously, for example, women being the majority of those dependent on Income Support. Because of changes to the benefits system in recent years, it is not possible to make direct comparisons with data for earlier periods. In particular Income Support figures have been affected by the introduction of Pension Credit from November 2003. This replaced the Minimum Income Guarantee, and extended Income Support entitlement to those aged 60+.

The gender distribution of claimants of Jobseeker's Allowance, Severe Disablement Allowance and Incapacity Benefit, remained similar for 2006, as indicated in Table 5.31 below. Data for 2006 also indicate that women were the majority of those dependent on Income Support (61%), and in particular made up 95% of lone parents dependent on Income Support. Taking together all recipients of key benefits listed in Table 5.31 above, it can be seen that men make up a majority, 53% as compared to 47% women.

Table 5.31 Recipients of key benefits, 2006

	Men (000s)	Women (000s)	Women as % of total
All Jobseeker's Allowance claimants	72.74	23.91	25
All recipients of Income Support	86.07	135.81	61
Of which:			
Carer	5.08	4.46	47
Incapacity benefits	74.73	64.72	46
Lone parents	3.40	62.33	95
Other	2.87	4.29	60
Severe Disablement Allowance	13.31	18.08	58
Incapacity Benefit	107.87	69.99	39

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study.

Note: Since October 2003, Income Support figures are affected by the introduction of Pension Credit which replaced Minimum Income Guarantee.

Women are the majority of those in receipt of state pensions and of pension credits as Tables 5.32 and 5.33 below show. In both cases women make up around two-thirds of recipients of State Pensions and of Pension Credit. Women are more likely than men to be dependent on state benefits in retirement, and overall are less likely to have access to occupational pensions schemes, especially where they are in low paid part-time employment. Women's greater dependency on benefits in their later years is an important contributory factor to their overall greater vulnerability to poverty.

Table 5.32 State Pension Caseload, 2002-2005

	000s			Women as % of total
	Total	Female	Male	
Aug-02	918.28	592.22	326.05	65
Aug-03	926.61	596.42	330.19	64
Aug-04	936.06	601.33	334.84	64
Aug-05	942.74	603.70	339.27	64

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study.

Table 5.33 Pension Credit Caseload, 2004-2005

	Thousands			Women as % of total
	Total	Female	Male	
Aug-04	270.85	175.6	95.25	65
Aug-05	280.25	180.25	100.00	64

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study.

Table 5.34 below indicates the types of pension scheme membership of male and female employees in 2004/05.

Table 5.34 Current pension scheme membership by age, 2004/05

Pension scheme members	000s						All	% with pension
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55 and over			
Women full-time								
Occupational pensions	20	100	110	110	50	390	59	
Personal pensions*	-	10	10	10	10	40	6	
None	50	50	60	50	20	230	35	
Total	80	160	180	170	80	660	100	
Women part-time								
Occupational pensions	-	20	50	40	20	130	32	
Personal pensions*	-	10	10	10	-	30	8	
None	60	30	60	40	50	240	60	
Total	60	60	110	90	70	400	100	
Men full time								
Occupational pensions	20	100	170	140	80	520	53	
Personal pensions*	-	20	40	30	20	110	11	
None	90	100	80	60	50	370	37	
Total	110	220	290	230	150	990	100	

Source: Family Resources Survey, DWP

"-" means numbers are nil or negligible

*Adults with both a 'personal' and an 'occupational' pension have been added into 'personal pensions' due to the small number of adults having both pension schemes.

This shows that women full-time workers were the most likely to be in occupational pension schemes - 59% of women full-time workers compared to 53% of male full-time workers. Women part-time workers were the least likely to have access to occupational pension schemes, with only 32% of this group being members of such schemes. Women part-time workers were correspondingly most likely not to have any pension provision, with 60.0% being in this position, compared to 35% of women full-time workers and 37% of male full-time workers having no provision. Of all women workers, full-timers and part-timers taken together 44% were without pension provision.

5.7 FINANCIAL ASSETS AND MANAGEMENT

Access to financial assets and products is also a measure of levels of income and wealth, as are concerns about finances and their management. This section examines evidence of differences between men and women in access to various financial resources and in their attitudes to financial matters.

Analysis of data from the Scottish Household Survey, as shown in Table 5.35 below, indicates that in 1999/2000 households where the man was the highest income earner were more likely to have access to bank accounts, savings and investments, and home contents insurance than those households where the highest income earner was a woman. The differences in access to such facilities or assets were greater for male and female HIH householders of working age than for such households throughout the population as a whole. In particular, of HIH householders of working age 58% of males had savings and investments compared to 41% of females.

Table 5.35 Possession of financial products by sex of HIH, 1999/2000 (percentages)

	All households			Households with HIH of working age		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Bank account	89	81	86	90	81	87
Savings and investments	58	46	54	58	41	52
Home contents insurance	85	76	81	84	71	80
<i>Base</i>	<i>13,871</i>	<i>8,068</i>	<i>21,939</i>	<i>10,948</i>	<i>4,948</i>	<i>15,896</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2001) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin*, No 5.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

Analysis of data from the Family Resources Survey, as shown in Table 5.36 below, indicates that in both 1999/2000 and 2004/2005 the types of accounts and savings used by men and women were very similar overall. Men were slightly more likely to have stocks and shares, 19% of men compared to 15% of women in 1999/2000 and 16% of men compared to 13% of women in 2004/05. In general, the proportions of both men and women who had some type of account and who had some savings had increased between 1999/2000 and 2004/05.

Table 5.36 Percentage of adults by sex and type of saving, 1999/2000 and 2004/2005

Type of account	1999/2000		2004/2005	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Current Account	78	76	86	86
Post Office Account	3	4	2	3
TESSA	8	9	4	3
ISA	7	7	23	26
Other bank/building society accounts	45	49	38	40
Stocks and Shares	19	15	16	13
PEPs	9	8	5	4
Gilts	-	1	-	-
Unit Trusts	4	4	3	2
Premium Bonds	11	12	11	11
National Savings Bonds	2	3	2	2
Save as you earn	1	1	-	-
Any type of account	86	86	93	94
No account	14	14	7	6

Source: Family Resources Survey

Table 5.37 Proportion of savings by family status, 2004/05 (percentages)

Capital	Pension -er couple	Male pension -er single	Female pension -er single	Couple with children	Couple without children	Lone parent	Male single without children	Female single without children	All
No savings	20	33	31	34	23	66	55	50	39
Less than £1,500	14	9	19	22	20	22	19	23	20
£1,500 to less than £3,000	7	10	7	8	8	5	7	9	8
£3,000 to less than £8,000	17	17	15	15	17	4	9	8	13
£8,000 to less than £10,000	5	3	6	3	4	1	2	2	3
£10,000 to less than £16,000	9	9	8	6	8	1	3	3	6
£16,000 to less than £20,000	5	1	2	3	4	1	-	1	2
£20,000 and over	23	18	11	9	16	2	4	4	10

Source: Family Resources Survey, DWP

The Family Resources Survey also provides information on the levels of savings to which different types of families have access. As Table 5.37 above shows, of all family types lone parents are least likely to have savings, with 66% of lone parent families having no savings compared to an average of 39% for all family types in 2004/05. By contrast pensioner couples and couples without children were most likely to have savings, with 80% of the former and 77% of the latter having savings. Of those having savings, the biggest group overall had only small savings of less than £1500, with 20% of all families falling into this category. The most disadvantaged groups in terms of access to no or only low savings were lone parent families (88%) followed by single men without children (74%) and single women without children

(73%), though age is likely to be a factor for the latter groups, since they are likely to be relatively young.

Use of credit is also indicative of levels of access to financial resources, though may also be indicative of attitudes to debt and to financial risk. As Table 5.38 below indicates in 2005 a higher proportion of men than women used credit cards, 59% compared to 43%. Men were also slightly more likely than women to use store cards, 18% compared to 16%, and equally likely to use catalogues or mail order schemes. Women were more likely than men not to use any type of credit arrangement, 39% compared to 29%.

Table 5.38 Use of credit by sex, 2005 (percentages)

	Male	Female
Credit Cards	59	43
Charge Cards NOT Switch	7	4
Shop or store cards	18	16
Catalogues or mail order schemes	20	20
Hire Purchase Agreements	9	7
Shopping vouchers or cards	2	3
None of these	29	39
Refused	4	4
<i>Base</i>	<i>9,103</i>	<i>6,285</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

Note: Columns add up to more than 100% due to multiple response

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

Where credit methods had been used to borrow money in 2005, there was little difference in the methods used by men and women, as Table 5.39 below indicates. Men were slightly more likely than women to use bank overdrafts or to have a loan from a bank, building society or credit union, but the majority of men (71%) and women (72%) had not used any credit methods to borrow money.

Table 5.39 Use of credit methods to borrow money in the last 12 months, 2005 (percentages)

	Male	Female
Bank overdraft	13	11
Loan from bank, building society or credit union	10	7
Loan from a finance company	3	3
Loan from a money lender or 'tally man'	-	0
Loan from friend or relative	2	3
Loan, or advance on wages, from employer	0	-
A (DSS) Social Fund loan	1	3
Cheque-cashing service	0	0
Pawnbroker	0	0
Other borrowing	1	1
None of these	71	72
Refused	4	4
<i>Base</i>	<i>9,103</i>	<i>6,285</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

Note: Columns add up to more than 100% due to multiple response

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

The different levels of income and wealth that men and women have access to appears to be reflected in their concerns about managing money. As Table 5.40 below indicates, women were more likely than men to worry a lot about money, with 17% of female Highest Income Householders in 2000 saying that they worried about money almost all the time compared to 11% of male Highest Income Householders. By contrast, 27% of men said they never worried about money compared to 19% of women saying this.

Table 5.40 Frequency of worrying about money by sex of HIH, 2000 (percentages)

	Male	Female	Total
Almost all the time	11	17	13
Quite often	20	22	20
Only sometimes	39	38	39
Never	27	19	24
Don't know/refused	1	5	4
<i>Base</i>	<i>10,938</i>	<i>4,945</i>	<i>15,883</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2001) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

Similarly there is a gender difference in men's and women's perception of how well the household is managing financially. As Table 5.41 below shows for 2000, though there was no difference in the proportions of male and female Highest Income Householders who said they managed very well and who said they got by alright, male HIHs were more likely than females to say that they were managing quite well, 26% compared to 22%, while females were more likely than males to say they had some financial difficulties, 10% compared to 5%.

Table 5.41 How household is managing financially by sex of HIH, 2000 (percentages)

	Male	Female	Total
Manage very well	12	12	12
Manage quite well	26	22	25
Get by alright	40	40	40
Don't manage very well	16	15	16
Have some financial difficulties	5	10	6
Are in deep financial trouble	1	2	1
Don't know/refused	0	0	0
<i>Base</i>	<i>10,938</i>	<i>4,945</i>	<i>15,883</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2001) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

5.8 OTHER ASSETS

This chapter has been concerned primarily with earnings and financial income and assets of various kinds. However, there are other significant assets indicating levels of income and wealth, with the main such assets being housing and cars. Gender differences with respect to home ownership and other forms of housing tenure and quality of housing are discussed in Chapter Nine on Housing, while gender differences in car ownership and access to cars are discussed in Chapter Ten on Transport. Access to a range of other consumer goods may also be an indicator of levels of income and wealth. Discussed below are gender differences in access to and

use of the internet, which are likely to be at least partly related to income levels given the cost of computers and computer services such as internet links. Access to computers also has a part to play in the capacity of individuals to participate in various aspects of civic and public life, though this does not provide any precise measure of civic engagement.

Table 5.42 below indicates that while there had been an increase between 2002 and 2005 in the percentages of both men and women who had access to the internet, a higher proportion of men than women had access to the internet in both years, 41% of men compared to 34% of women in 2002, and 55% of men compared to 48% of women in 2005.

Table 5.42 Access to the internet , 2002 and 2005 (percentages)

	2002		2005	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Yes	41	34	55	48
No	58	66	45	52
Don't know	1	0	0	0
Base	5,681	7,733	5,968	8,102

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2003) *Scotland's People 2001-02*; Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2003/08/17928/24700>;

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

Table 5.43 Current uses of the internet by sex, 2005 (percentages)

	Male	Female	All
Using email	86	87	86
General browsing or surfing	79	73	76
Finding information about goods/services	72	67	69
Buying or ordering tickets and services	63	63	63
Finding information related to education	42	48	45
Non-grocery shopping	44	44	44
Personal banking/financial investment activities	42	38	39
Using or accessing government/official sites	39	32	35
Playing or downloading music	39	26	32
Looking for work	31	28	29
Playing or downloading games	27	17	22
On-line learning	21	19	20
Grocery shopping	13	20	17
Using chat rooms or sites	15	10	12
Voting	2	1	1
Paying rent	1	1	1
None of these	1	1	1
Base	3,033	3,533	6,566

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006) *Scotland's People 2005*.

Columns add to more than 100% since multiple responses allowed.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

There were some gender differences in the types of uses made of the internet in 2005, as Table 5.43 above shows. With reference specifically to finances and making purchases by internet, men were more likely than women to use the internet for personal banking or financial investment activities, with 42% of men doing so

compared to 38% of women. Women were more likely than men to use the internet for grocery shopping, with 20% of women doing so compared to 13% of men.

5.9 SUMMARY

This chapter has looked at statistical evidence of gender differences in access to incomes from earnings, and from assets, savings and benefits, and of differences in financial management and attitudes to this. The statistical evidence indicates that women's access to incomes from earnings and other sources is persistently lower than men's, that women tend to be more vulnerable to poverty than are men and that some groups of women are particularly vulnerable to poverty.

The gap in the average earnings of women and of men has been slowly declining over time, but is still significant. Over a lifetime the gender pay gap means that there is a significant financial penalty for women, and in particular for mothers (see Rake, 2000). There are a number of factors which contribute to the gender pay gap, and these might interact in a complex way, with different factors being more significant within different occupations and industries. Among factors which contribute to the gender pay gap are differences in qualifications and experience, patterns of working hours, industrial and occupational segregation, and interruptions to paid work to look after children or other dependants (for a detailed discussion of these factors, see Anderson et al, 2001). However, discrimination also continues to play a role, as is evident from the numbers of equal pay and sex discrimination employment tribunal cases. It has also been argued that differences in measurable labour market characteristics, such as qualifications, do not explain the gender pay gap for full-time women workers, and that their pay should be on a par with that of full-time male workers. The pay of part-time women workers is, however, significantly influenced by differences in characteristics such as lower levels of qualifications, which explain most of the gap in earnings of full-time and part-time women workers. Interruptions to employment for childcare or other forms of caring, and/or working in low paid employment, in turn contribute to the disadvantaged position of older women, as they are excluded from occupational pension schemes, or fail to build up a sufficient National Insurance contribution record. The complexity of factors contributing to the continuing gender pay gap suggests that policy responses also need to be complex, and that different strategies may be required for different sectors of the economy (see, for example, Dignan, 2003). There has been no in-depth analysis of gender and labour market participation and patterns of earnings in Scotland to date, and yet, as the selected tables presented in this chapter and in Chapter Four on the Labour Market indicate, there are existing data sets which would permit of much more in-depth analysis and of detailed analysis of changes over time. Such analyses should be regarded as a priority area for research and as providing the basis for further research studies.

The data on individual incomes used in this chapter has been drawn from the Women and Equality Unit's regular publication on *Women's Individual Incomes*, which has included a breakdown for Scotland. At the time of writing a review of the regular publication of data on women's individual incomes was being carried out, and it is unclear whether such data will continue to be available for Scotland. The analysis is significant in underlining that the gap in the average individual incomes of women and men is even greater than the gap between earnings, and suggests that many women do not have access to incomes which are sufficient to maintain themselves

and their children. Within couple households, though women's individual incomes may be low they may enjoy a high standard of living. However, in situations where relationships break down, women are often vulnerable to poverty. Furthermore, as research in Northern Ireland has pointed out, though material standards of living may be little affected by lack of access to personal income, access to this is important not only in meeting basic needs, but also in allowing people to engage in social and other activities outside the home (McLaughlin et al, 1999). Lack of access to income can therefore result in lack of capacity to engage in civic and public life, and can result in social exclusion.

Data on low pay and on individual incomes contained in this chapter have indicated the degree of disadvantage that women experience compared to men in their access to income. Data on low income households indicate that there are similar proportions of men and women living in low income households. However, women are more likely to be reliant on state benefits and this is particularly true for groups such as lone women pensioners and lone parents, as has been noted in previous research (see, for example, Brown et al, 2002). An analysis carried out by Bradshaw et al (2003) of Scottish Household Survey data for 1999/2000 concluded that there were statistically higher poverty rates for women than for men in Scotland both before and after housing costs, though the differences were not great. In particular, higher poverty rates were found for the following groups: single female pensioners; lone parents (both lone mothers and lone fathers); non-white men compared with non-white women; women with children compared to men with children; female heads of household who were 18 or under; female pensioners over 80; and single female pensioners without an occupational pension.

A further dimension to the gendered experience of poverty is that of distribution of income within households. This is a complex issue to investigate, and there does not appear to have been any Scottish based research carried out on this topic. GB research has indicated, however, that couples use different systems to organise household resources and that there are different degrees of sharing involved in this (see Glendinning and Millar, 1992; Bradshaw et al, 2003). Consequently, it cannot be assumed that women have equal access to resources within couple households. Furthermore, in lower income households women may have very little access to personal income as such, as they often tend to have responsibility for managing household finances, and also tend to put the needs of other family members before their own.

As indicated above, available data on earnings and income indicate that overall women are significantly disadvantaged compared to men, and are more vulnerable to poverty. Existing data sets could be analysed further to explore the extent and nature of this problem, and how it is changing over time. More research on the gender dimensions of poverty in Scotland would also be helpful, since apart from the work of the Scottish Poverty Information Unit, and the study by Bradshaw et al, gender has tended to be neglected in research on this topic in Scotland. With respect to the Gender Equality Duty, public bodies responsible for economic development and for regeneration and anti-poverty strategies will need to pay due regard to evidence of gender inequalities in earnings and incomes, and public bodies as employers will also be required to take account of data on earnings and the gender pay gap.

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CHAPTER SIX

CARE AND CARING

This chapter looks at childcare provision and patterns of use and demand for childcare, and at who are the users of other types of care services. It also looks at who are the informal carers and at the composition of care workforces. The data on childcare provision, unlike most other data in this report, are not gender disaggregated i.e. providing comparisons between men and women, boys and girls. The purpose of reporting these here is not to indicate gender differences in use of provision, but rather to indicate the extent to which provision has increased, since this is regarded as providing support to mothers in particular, whether married or lone mothers, to take up education, training and employment opportunities. Childcare provision is therefore important to the promotion of gender equality.

6.1 POLICY CONTEXT

In addition to the informal care provided by individuals for relatives, friends and neighbours, the government provides a range of types of formal care provision, including childcare provision, services for older children who require residential care, services for disabled people where the nature of their impairment makes such care desirable, and services for older people. Such care services are provided in a range of forms, including home based care, and support for independent living through such methods as direct payments to disabled people to enable them to purchase the type of care they want. Support for care and the provision of care services is a complex area of policy and service provision, which involves a mixture of types of care, supported and/or facilitated by a range of measures by government at UK, Scottish and local authority level.

At UK level policies to support people in their caring roles include measures to support working parents, such as flexible working policies, maternity and paternity pay and leave, and tax credits such as Working Families Tax Credit and Childcare Tax Credit, subsequently replaced by the Working Tax Credit. The Work and Families Act 2006 has extended the right to request flexible working to carers of adults, and this will come into force from April 2007.

The Scottish Executive has adopted a number of major policies on childcare and care provision, and has provided resources for a range of initiatives. The Scottish Office launched a Childcare Strategy in 1998, which recognised that good quality childcare has benefits for children by promoting their development and learning, and benefits for parents, by enabling them to work. It also recognised that while there was a range of types of childcare provision available in Scotland, there was a need to fill gaps in formal provision of childcare. The strategy aimed to improve the level and quality of childcare provision in Scotland in a number of ways: to address the issue of quality by new regulatory measures for care and national standards for childcare; to set up Childcare Partnerships in every local authority area to bring together interested parties in order to promote the expansion of childcare in line with parental demand; and to set up a Childcare Information Service in every local authority area. The strategy includes pre-school and out-of-school care. Financial support for childcare initiatives has been provided through, for example, Sure Start funding and the Working for Families fund. Support is also provided for children and families through regeneration funding. The Childcare Strategy launched in 1998 has been taken forward by the Scottish Executive since 1999.

The Strategy for Carers in Scotland (Scottish Executive, 1999) outlined the aims of the Scottish Executive in: promoting the development of services for carers; setting standards for care and respite services; the development and monitoring of local authority Community Care

plans; the need for carers' legislation; and providing better information for carers. Resources have been made available to local authorities to meet the needs of carers, and respite services have been expanded.

The Community Care and Health (Scotland) Act 2002 provided for free personal and nursing care to be available for everyone in Scotland aged 65 and over who needs it, whether at home, in hospital or in a care home. The Act also emphasised the need for carers to be supported and recognised both by the NHS in Scotland and by local authorities. Unpaid carers are now formally recognised as partners in care provision, and carers have a right to have a formal and independent assessment of their support needs. Measures have also been introduced to make it a duty for local authorities to offer direct payments to all eligible disabled people, and this eligibility has been extended to people aged 65 or over who are assessed as needing care services due to infirmity or age.

With respect to the childcare workforce a national review of the early years and childcare workforce in Scotland has taken place (Scottish Executive, 2006a), and in response to this the Scottish Executive is proposing to upgrade the skills of the workforce through new qualifications and continuing professional development, to create a genuine career structure for the workforce, and to support private and voluntary sector providers of pre-school education to invest in their workforces. The review's proposals are set out over a 10 year timescale.

6.2 CARE PROVISION AND CARERS

Key points:

- In 2006, 96% of all children eligible for the ante-pre-school year were registered for provision, and 99% of all children eligible in the pre-school year were registered for provision.
- In 2004, there were 12.4 childcare places per 1,000 children (0-14), provided in a range of different forms, including nurseries, play groups, out of school clubs, family centres and childminders.
- In 2004, the average weekly cost of nursery provision was £73 and the average weekly cost of a childminder was £109.
- In 2003/04, of children aged 1-16 receiving childcare, 58% received informal care only, 14% received both informal and formal care, and 28% received formal care only.
- In 2005, women made up 98% of pre-school education and childcare staff, and men made up 2%.
- In 2006, boys made up 56% of children looked after by Social Work services, and girls made up 44%.

- In 2006, boys were 76% of young people in secure accommodation, and girls were 24%.
- In 2005, women were 59% of those providing care to people in their own homes, and men were 41%.
- In 2005, women were 64% of those providing care to people outwith their home, and men were 36%.
- In 2005, women were 62% of those requiring regular help and care, and men were 38%.
- In 2005, women were 70% of those receiving home care services, and men were 30%.
- In 2005, women were 74% of long stay residents in care homes, and men were 26%.
- In 2005, of all staff working in local authority social work services staff 84% were female and 16% were male. Of those working in adult community care, 88% were female and 12% were male.

6.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

6.3.1 Key sources of data

The key sources of data on childcare provision, other forms of care provision, and care workforces are administrative data, e.g. returns from local authorities, childcare census, etc, regularly published in Scottish Executive statistical bulletins. Data on the impact of dependent children on women's labour market participation are drawn from the Labour Force Survey. Data on unpaid carers are drawn from the Scottish Household Survey, while data on parents' uses and demand for childcare are drawn from one-off surveys or survey modules. While data on use of childcare and on unpaid carers have not been regularly published, the data included in this chapter indicate the value of the Scottish Household Survey in relation to information about care, both through the capacity to run specific modules such as the childcare module, and through analysis of routinely collected data on unpaid carers.

6.3.2 Possible uses of data

Data on childcare provision is particularly relevant to patterns of women's participation in the labour market, and in particular specific groups such as lone parents. Public bodies concerned with economic development, such the enterprise network and local authorities, might use this data to look at patterns of participation in the labour market in the local economy and at levels and types of childcare provision, and to identify areas where there is clearly unmet need, as well as improving the dissemination of information about existing services. With respect to the childcare workforce such gender disaggregated data might inform the Scottish Executive's strategy on improving skills and career structure, including the aim of recruiting more men to this workforce. Data on unpaid carers are also relevant to labour market participation, and government departments and public sector employers might use this to inform strategies to publicise new rights to flexible working for carers of adult dependants, as well as developing

support strategies for carers, such as respite services. Employers of care staff should use data on the workforce to inform gender equality schemes, and seek to address gender imbalances in particular at senior levels.

6.4 CHILDCARE PROVISION

Childcare in Scotland is provided in a variety of forms, and for pre-school children and school age children. Types of formal childcare provision include nurseries, playgroups, out of school clubs, creches, children/family centres, breakfast clubs, and holiday play schemes. Formal care is also provided by registered childminders. Many parents prefer to use informal childcare, such as that provided by relatives, neighbours or friends, or a combination of formal and informal childcare. This section outlines the types of provision that are currently available and the numbers of children provided for, and indicates the increase in formal provision in recent years. It also indicates what are the patterns of use of childcare in Scotland, and discusses evidence of parents' demand for childcare.

In January 2006 there were 4,306 registered childcare and pre-school education centres in Scotland, of which 37% were run from schools and 28% had their own premises (Scottish Executive, 2006b). Just under 60% of all centres provided a nursery service of which the majority (62% of all nurseries) were public sector nurseries. While centres can be categorised by the main service they provide, a substantial proportion provide more than one type of childcare service. Childcare services are provided by public, private and voluntary sector services, and the balance of these can vary greatly in different areas of Scotland. There were also 6,051 registered childminders in Scotland in January 2006, and at the time of the childcare census 90% of these were active. Overall, then, there is a complex pattern of provision of childcare services, provided in a range of forms by a range of providers, and provision is not uniformly distributed across Scotland. In general, a greater proportion of pre-school children are benefiting from some form of childcare provision.

In 2006, 96% of all children eligible for the ante-pre-school year and 99% of all children eligible in the pre-school year were registered for provision. As Table 6.1 below indicates there has been a significant increase in provision of pre-school education in Scotland between 1979 and 2003. Of all children aged three, 83% were in pre-school education in 2003 compared to 28% in 1979, while of all children aged four, 99% were in pre-school education in 2003 compared to 35% in 1979. This increase has been particularly pronounced since 1997. The proportion of 3 year olds in pre-school education was fairly stable between 1979 and 1997, and thereafter increased rapidly. The proportion of 4 year olds in pre-school education increased steadily but slowly between 1979 and 1997, and thereafter increased much more rapidly.

Table 6.1 Children attending pre-school education by age Scotland, 1979-2003

	Children aged 3 ¹		Children aged 4		Children aged 5+	Total in pre-school
	Number	% of popn	Number	% of popn		
1979	18,584	28	23,319	35	168	42,071
1980	18,684	31	24,084	37	146	42,913
1981	18,931	31	24,722	42	149	43,802
1982	19,369	30	26,081	43	218	45,668
1983	18,723	28	28,834	45	213	47,770
1984	19,079	29	29,992	45	211	49,282
1985 ²	18,893	29	30,390	46	235	49,518
1986	18,982	30	30,789	48	259	50,030
1987	18,392	29	31,991	51	349	50,732
1988	19,184	30	33,044	53	544	52,772
1989	19,392	30	34,742	54	340	54,474
1990	19,827	30	36,144	55	607	56,578
1991	20,334	31	37,303	57	543	58,179
1992	20,255	32	39,196	60	738	60,189
1993	22,173	35	39,229	62	644	62,045
1994	21,335	33	40,601	63	830	62,767
1995	20,826	32	40,987	62	886	62,699
1996	20,844	33	42,169	65	953	63,966
1997	22,502	37	44,588	71	997	68,086
1998	22,220	38	54,240	90	2901	79,361
1999	28,406	49	57,326	97	3067	88,799
2000 ²	33,757	57	56,934	98	3128	93,818
2001	39,107	68	56,541	97	3189	98,837
2002	41,186	73	54,068	94	3515	98,769
2003	45,046	83	55,608	99	4424	105,078

Source: Population figures from General Register Office For Scotland, mid-year population estimates and 2000 based population projections - adjusted to end January base. Scottish Executive (2003) *Summary Results of the 2003 Pre-School and Daycare Census*.

Note 1: Figures for 3 year olds in years prior to 1997 include a small number of 2 year olds

Note 2: No data collected in these years. Figures estimated using average of surrounding years.

Note: Figures for 1979-1997 and 1999 are from September in these years. The figure for 1998 was taken from survey in February 1999. From 2001, the survey was in January.

Note: Figures prior to 1998 were only collected from local authority centres. An assumption was made that the proportion of centres which were LA run was the same in 1979-1997 and in 1998

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2003/07/17813/23590>

Table 6.2 below indicates the age and sex of children receiving childcare provision, whether from a childminder or at a registered centre) in January 2006. Of all childcare provision, around 24,000 children (around 11% of the total using childcare) were being looked after by childminders, while 197,000 children (almost 90% of the total using childcare) were using a daycare or pre-school centre (it should be noted that a child may be using both types of childcare). Use of pre-school and childcare provision was particularly high for 3 and 4 year olds, though also involved substantial numbers for younger children, while for school age children there is a steady decline in the numbers using provision as they get older.

Table 6.2 Age and sex of children on the register of pre-school or daycare centres, or attending a childminder, during census week, January 2006

Age	Childminders			Centres		
	boys	girls	total	boys	girls	total
0	750	690	1,440	2,600	2,270	4,870
1	1,520	1,530	3,040	6,150	5,530	11,680
2	1,950	1,340	3,300	11,670	10,960	22,630
3	1,720	1,330	3,050	26,200	25,410	51,610
4	1,430	1,410	2,840	28,710	26,980	55,690
5	770	930	1,690	6,220	4,810	11,030
6	800	860	1,660	3,950	3,390	7,340
7	880	730	1,610	3,940	3,380	7,320
8	510	890	1,400	3,790	3,150	6,950
9	630	510	1,140	3,440	2,890	6,340
10	460	890	1,350	2,750	2,560	5,310
11	320	500	820	1,890	1,730	3,620
12+	270	270	540	750	510	1,270
age unknown	0	0	0	770	720	1,490
TOTAL	12,000	11,870	23,880	102,850	94,293	197,140

Source: Pre-school and childcare census; childminder survey. Scottish Executive (2006b) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics 2006*.

Note: All figures are rounded to the nearest 10 and for this reason totals do not always equal the sum of their parts. Childminders were asked to provide the age and sex of children attending sessions during census week. Centres were asked to provide the age and sex of children on the books during census week.

If children attend more than one centre or childminder they will be counted more than once.

781 centres did not provide any information about the number of children attending. Where possible information from the 2005 census was used (311 centres). Where this was not possible, the average numbers according to main service type, based on responses to the 2006 census, were applied (470 centres).

The total numbers of children receiving the forms of childcare listed in the table are based on: a sample survey of childminders; estimates of the percentages of children eligible for ante-pre school care, pre-school care, and deferred entry places. Centres providing pre-school education but not doing so in partnership with a local authority are excluded. These figures are not directly comparable to those for previous years.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/13155926/0>

As noted above there is some variation across Scotland in the level of childcare provision available in different areas. Table 6.3 below provides information on the number of centres in each local authority area, the maximum number of childcare places available within each local authority area, and the number of places available in relation to the population of children aged 0-4 in each local authority area. This indicates that Aberdeen City had the highest level of provision, with places being available for 89 out of every 100 children in the 0-4 age group, followed by Edinburgh, with places available for 82 out of every 100 children in this age group. At the other end of the spectrum were North Lanarkshire, with places available for 43 out of every 100 children in the 0-4 age group, and West Lothian with places available for 46 out of every 100 children in the 0-4 age group. Within six local authority areas (Dumfriess and Galloway, East Ayrshire, Falkirk, North Lanarkshire, South Lanarkshire, and West Lothian) childcare places are available for less than half of 0-4 year olds. While the table below excludes childminders, overall their share of childcare provision is relatively small. This variation in provision does not simply reflect urban/rural divisions (though use of childminders tends to be higher in rural areas), as some rural areas have very high levels of provision.

Table 6.3 Total number of centres, places, places filled, by Local Authority (excluding childminders), 2005

	Total number of centres	Sum of all maximum number of places	Number of places per 100 children aged 0-4
Aberdeen City	242	8,267	89
Aberdeenshire	287	7,574	60
Angus	122	3,220	58
Argyll & Bute	111	2,723	67
Clackmannanshire	41	1,500	60
Dumfries & Galloway	115	3,267	49
Dundee City	94	3,455	50
East Ayrshire	81	2,904	47
East Dunbartonshire	87	3,517	69
East Lothian	91	3,415	68
East Renfrewshire	67	3,068	63
Edinburgh City	472	17,392	84
Eilean Siar	45	894	70
Falkirk	112	3,958	49
Fife	286	10,603	57
Glasgow City	481	19,505	65
Highland	294	6,245	59
Inverclyde	71	2,270	55
Midlothian	77	2,824	64
Moray	108	2,694	62
North Ayrshire	121	3,502	50
North Lanarkshire	211	8,042	43
Orkney Islands	27	608	71
Perth & Kinross	145	4,254	62
Renfrewshire	131	5,297	59
Scottish Borders	137	3,130	56
Shetland Islands	47	1,013	82
South Ayrshire	88	3,190	63
South Lanarkshire	221	7,782	48
Stirling	93	2,856	62
West Dunbartonshire	68	2,829	60
West Lothian	136	4,617	46
unknown	8	358	..

Source: Pre-school and childcare census. Scottish Executive (2005a) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics, 2005*.

Note: Maximum number of places is at any one time (term time, evening, weekend, holiday).

Total number of children on register is during census week and may include children who did not attend childcare that week
Number of children on books is not equal to total number of children attending childcare, as one child can attend multiple centres.

Number of children on books can be greater than the maximum number of places at any one time because not all children will attend all sessions and children can be on the books of more than one centre.

'..' data not available.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/13155926/0>

Table 6.4 Pre-school education or childcare providers per 1,000 children in population: type of service by local authority, Scotland, January 2004

Local authority area	Type of facility/service ⁵								
	Nursery ¹	Play group ¹	Holiday play scheme ²	Out of School Care Club ²	Creche ¹	Family Centre ¹	Child-minders ³	Other	All providers ⁴
Scotland	9.6	4.0	1.1	3.3	1.4	0.9	11.2	0.8	12.4
Aberdeen City	12.2	4.5	3.7	6.5	4.5	1.4	13.3	0.8	17.5
Aberdeenshire	9.2	8.3	0.7	2.7	1.9	0.9	13.6	1.1	14.8
Angus	12.5	5.2	0.3	3.1	0.6	0.4	17.9	0.5	17.6
Argyll & Bute	17.0	9.5	1.2	3.0	3.2	1.5	14.8	1.4	17.2
Clackmannanshire	10.6	5.1	1.6	4.2	3.1	1.6	9.8	2.7	11.4
Dumfries & Galloway	9.6	5.9	0.4	2.3	0.6	0.6	8.9	0.5	10.1
Dundee City	8.9	1.5	0.8	3.3	0.6	1.9	9.4	0.4	10.3
East Ayrshire	6.7	3.3	0.4	1.6	0.8	0.7	14.3	1.0	12.3
East Dunbartonshire	8.3	3.3	0.9	4.4	1.0	0.4	11.7	1.1	11.6
East Lothian	8.9	3.8	1.2	3.3	0.6	0.8	13.8	0.8	14.0
East Renfrewshire	5.9	3.0	0.7	3.4	0.4	0.2	14.5	0.5	12.7
Edinburgh, City of	11.7	3.5	1.8	5.0	2.4	1.4	6.9	0.9	11.6
Eilean Siar	5.8	27.2	1.0	3.6	0.8	1.6	17.7	0.7	20.8
Falkirk	8.7	2.3	0.4	2.3	0.6	0.4	17.0	0.3	14.8
Fife	8.1	3.3	1.0	2.6	1.2	0.7	13.8	0.7	13.0
Glasgow City	8.5	1.9	1.7	4.9	2.1	1.6	4.7	1.5	8.1
Highland	16.9	8.6	1.0	2.2	0.9	0.6	21.0	1.1	21.0
Inverclyde	9.2	1.7	2.6	3.4	2.9	2.4	8.7	0.4	10.6
Midlothian	8.3	2.8	0.9	2.9	0.4	1.5	10.7	1.0	11.6
Moray	7.3	11.8	1.1	2.2	0.7	0.5	13.9	0.6	15.2
North Ayrshire	9.2	3.3	1.0	3.9	0.4	0.1	8.8	0.7	10.3
North Lanarkshire	7.5	2.6	0.7	2.2	0.8	0.8	5.0	0.7	7.0
Orkney Islands	24.5	4.7	0.8	2.2	1.2	0.0	14.8	0.0	17.2
Perth & Kinross	11.3	5.0	0.7	3.2	0.6	0.3	16.5	0.6	16.5
Renfrewshire	8.3	1.0	1.1	3.4	0.9	0.6	7.3	0.2	8.7
Scottish Borders	12.3	6.3	0.5	3.9	0.4	0.9	16.0	0.8	16.3
Shetland Islands	19.5	8.1	1.3	6.2	1.6	0.8	21.0	1.4	23.8
South Ayrshire	9.2	3.7	0.7	3.4	0.8	0.2	15.6	0.3	14.5
South Lanarkshire	8.1	2.8	0.8	2.2	1.0	0.4	9.5	0.7	10.1
Stirling	10.2	5.3	1.0	4.0	1.6	0.7	19.8	0.6	18.4
West Dunbartonshire	7.5	1.7	0.8	2.8	0.8	0.4	6.0	0.4	7.6
West Lothian	7.3	3.4	0.6	2.5	0.8	0.6	13.0	1.0	12.8

Source: Scottish Executive (2004a) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics 2004*.

Note 1: Nursery, playgroup, creche and family centre attendance is as a proportion of children aged 0-4

Note 2: Holiday playscheme attendance is as a proportion of children aged 5-14

Note 3: Childminder attendance is as a proportion of children aged 0-9

Note 4: Overall attendance is as a proportion of children aged 0-14

Note 5: All centres providing each type of service are included, but the table includes availability of that service only

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/08/19686/40520>

Table 6.4 above covers provision for children aged 0-14 and it similarly indicates the variation in provision across Scotland in 2004, outlining the differences in the mix of type of

childcare provision by local authority area. Taking all forms of provision together, the highest levels of provision were in Shetland (23.8 places per 1000 children), Highland (21.0 places per 1000 children), and Eilean Siar (20.8 places per 1000 children) compared to a Scottish average of 12.4 places per 1000 children. The areas with the lowest levels of provision were North Lanarkshire (7.0 places per 1000 children), West Dunbartonshire (7.6 places per 1000 children) and Glasgow (8.1 places per 1000 children). This table also illustrates the higher use of childminders in rural areas, such as Highland (21.0 places per 1000 children), Shetland (21.0 places per 1000 children) and Scottish Borders (16.0 places per 1000 children) compared to a Scottish average of 11.2 places per 1000 children. High use of childminders can also be found in small towns or areas with an urban/rural mix, such as Perth and Kinross (16.5 places per 1000 children) and Stirling (19.8 places per 1000 children).

Childcare places in Scotland are provided by a mix of public, private and voluntary sector providers, as well as being provided in a mixture of forms of provision. In 2006 most nurseries were in the public sector, 63%, compared with 26% in the private sector (Scottish Executive, 2006b). Most playgroups were in the voluntary sector – 89%, as are most out of school clubs – 58%. Similarly most holiday play schemes were voluntary – 60%, while most children’s/family centres were in the public sector – 58%. Public childcare provision is relatively even across all areas (Scottish Executive, 2004a), while there is significantly more private provision in affluent areas. While it is not clear why there is such a variation in levels of provision or in the mix of types of provision across Scotland, it is likely that one key factor is the nature of the local economy, including women’s participation in the labour market and levels of pay, both factors which influence demand for childcare. In 2006, the majority of childcare services were registered with the local Childcare Information Service: 77% of public centres; 68% of private centres; 92% of childminders; and 67% of voluntary sector services (Scottish Executive, 2006b). However, considerably fewer providers had their services listed on the childcare link website.

Just as there is a variation in the type of childcare provision available, there is a variation in the cost of this. The types of care listed in Table 6.5 below may not be strictly comparable in terms of hours covered. However, of those types of care which are likely to be full-time i.e. nurseries, childminders and holiday playschemes, the most expensive type of care is generally that provided by the private sector. For example, in 2004 the weekly costs of private sector nurseries was £136 compared to £24 for local authority nurseries, while the average weekly cost of a childminder was £109, a significant sum in relation to the average wage (in 2004 the average weekly wage for women full-time workers was £341.60 and for men it was £427.30, while for part-time women workers it was £134.30). The costs of types of care which are typically for much shorter hours, such as out of school care, playgroups and creches, are considerably less as total weekly costs, but may be comparable in terms of hourly rates. The data provided in the table also indicates that costs of nursery provision are higher in urban areas than in rural areas. This is likely to reflect the greater demand for and use of private nursery provision in these areas.

Table 6.5 Costs to parents of services by service type, Scotland, January 2004

	Average weekly cost (£) ¹				Average sessional cost (£) ¹	
	Nursery	Child-minders	Out of school care club	Holiday play-scheme	Playgroup	Creche
All providers	73	109	26	85	3.1	4.3
Management arrangements						
Local authority run providers	24	-	22	54	2.4	3.3
Private sector providers	136	109	31	95	4	6
Voluntary run providers	57	-	25	81	3.1	3.5
Other providers	93	-	30	186	3.3	5
Level of rurality						
Large Urban Areas	85	114	24	88	4.1	4.2
Other Urban Areas	78	104	28	91	2.6	4.3
Accessible Small Towns	52	108	27	64	3.1	4.3
Remote Small Towns	73	112	29	80	2.7	2.6
Accessible Rural	57	110	26	87	2.9	5.6
Remote Rural	34	110	26	64	2.8	4.9

Source: Scottish Executive (2004a) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics, 2004*.

Note 1: Costs are the maximum charged by providers (before any concessions/discounts);

Note 2: Weekly figures for nurseries and playschemes are based on 15 sessions of 3 hours of care

Note 3: Weekly figures for childminders are based on 10 half-days of care.

Note 4: Weekly figures for out of school care are based on 5 sessions of care.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/08/19686/40520>

The tables above indicate the extent to which childcare provision has increased in Scotland. They also indicate that this provision consists of a mix of types of care that meet differing needs of parents and of children. Variations in levels and costs of provision are also apparent. The picture of current childcare provision in Scotland is therefore a complex one. The ways in which parents make choices about childcare and in which they use it are also complex. It is recognised that, as indicated in Chapter Four on the labour market, women with pre-school children are the least likely to be in employment, and where they are in employment the presence of children affects the number of hours they work.

6.5 PARENTS' DEMAND FOR AND USE OF CHILDCARE

In the context of government commitments to facilitate women's greater participation in the labour market and to support parents in achieving a satisfactory work life balance, research has been commissioned to investigate how parents' demands for childcare are being met, and how childcare is currently being used. Two recent studies commissioned by the Scottish Executive have indicated that many parents have a preference for informal childcare arrangements, such as having their children looked after by grandparents, other relatives, friends or neighbours (NFO Social Research/DTZ Pieda Consulting, 2004; Scottish Executive, 2006c). Where parents use formal childcare they may also use this together with informal childcare. For example, in 2003/04 of all children aged 1-16 receiving childcare, 58% received informal care only, 14% received both formal and informal childcare, and 28% received formal care only (Scottish Executive, 2006c).

A survey on parents' access to and demand for childcare in Scotland carried out in 2004 (NFO Social Research/DTZ Pieda Consulting, 2004) found that in the week previous to the survey 37% of respondents (parents in households containing any children aged 0-14) had

used no form of childcare, 32% had used grandparents, and 8% had used a childminder, while 25% used a range of other forms of formal provision. As might be expected, there was a strong relationship between childcare use and the structure of the household i.e. lone parent or two parent family and employment status. Of lone parents working full-time 93% used childcare; of two parent families in which both parents worked full-time 78% used childcare; and of lone parents working part-time 74% used childcare. Compared to a survey carried out in 2000 data from the 2004 survey indicated an overall increase in childcare usage.

The issue of trust in the childcare provider was cited by a majority of parents (64%) as the main reason for their choice of main childcare provider. The main reason for which parents had made childcare arrangements with the main provider was to enable them to go out to work, with 54% giving this reason. Of the reasons for going out to work, financial reasons were the most important, cited by 68% of parents. The survey suggested that overall the level of unmet demand for childcare was not high, with 14% of parents saying they had not been able to afford suitable childcare. However, the lack of childcare providers, or of the right type of provider was a major issue for particular groups of parents, especially single parents, parents of children with special needs, those with older children, and those living in rural areas.

While this survey indicated that parents made choices about childcare after considering quality of care available, the amount of hours of childcare desired, and their work circumstances, it also suggested that there was a limited awareness of the range of childcare options that might be available to parents. Most parents either used no information sources (48%) or word of mouth (35%), with only 15% getting information from the local authority. Only 9% of parents indicated that they had heard of the Scottish Executive's Childcare Link service. Furthermore, parents' perceptions of the costs of childcare were not necessarily accurate. This suggests that for some parents lack of awareness of childcare options and of costs may be limiting demand. Although there did not appear to be a high level of unmet demand, a substantial proportion of parents surveyed (46%) believed that there were not enough childcare places available in the local area.

Of the parents surveyed, 65% did not pay for childcare. Parents of pre-school children were more likely to have paid for childcare compared to those with children at school (49% compared to 29%). There was a common feeling amongst parents paying for childcare that the cost was far too high, which came out in in-depth interviews carried out by the researchers. For non-working parents the costs of childcare appear to be a barrier to going back to work, as childcare would consume all or most of their wages. For middle and lower income families the costs of childcare are a significant issue, and are likely to be a barrier to working for many. Of those parents paying for childcare, 26% said that they found it difficult to meet the costs, and a further 2% said they found it very difficult. Though cost of childcare may not be the main factor in choosing childcare for most parents, for some it is a key factor. As might be expected, high income households purchase the highest amounts of formal care, while low income households need greater additional childcare. In particular single parents would like more hours of childcare. The survey also indicated in general that there was support for more flexibility in working arrangements.

Attitudes to the need for children to be at home when they are young also influence demand for childcare. Of the parents surveyed 40% thought that a pre-school child was likely to suffer if both parents went out to work, compared to 46% who did not, while 22% thought that a primary school child was likely to suffer if both parents went out to work, compared to 60%

who disagreed with this. Only 29% of respondents agreed that mothers of young children should stay at home and look after their children, while 45% disagreed.

The research concluded that the frequently expressed preference for informal care needed to be taken into consideration in the context of childcare policies seeking to increase formal provision, and that there was a limited demand for this. However, specific groups have a demand for greater amounts of formal childcare, in particular single parents and low-income households. There are also benefits to formal provision, such as their impact on child development and educational benefits, and these benefits could be more strongly emphasised. The report also suggested that consideration should be given to measures which assist informal provision, such as flexible working arrangements, tax/benefit changes to assist this, and raises the question as to whether informal providers such as grandparents should be paid. The researchers also suggest that there should be more research into incentives and barriers e.g. lack of information, inflexible working arrangements, inadequate transport, and affordability.

Analysis of the childcare module in the Scottish Household Survey for 2003/04, which covered childcare arrangements for children aged 0-16, indicated that 45% of all children were receiving some form of childcare, while almost two-thirds of children aged up to 4 years received some kind of childcare (Scottish Executive, 2006c). Informal care was more commonly used than formal care. The most common single reason for use of childcare was to enable the respondent or their partner to work, cited by 62% of parents, followed by the child's development cited by 43%. There were some differences in reasons for using childcare relating to different types of provision, however, with the most common reason for playgroup or nursery care being the child's development. Parents indicated a high level of satisfaction with their care arrangement, and this was also evident in the previous study. While the research did not provide any data about parents not using childcare (questions were asked only of those using childcare), the fact that around a fifth of parents said that it had not been easy to get a place with the childcare provider they used suggests that a significant minority had problems finding suitable childcare. Given the exclusion of non-users from the survey, the real extent of difficulties experienced in finding childcare places is likely to be greater. A quarter of households stated that they found it hard to pay for the childcare they used, which suggests that costs of childcare are a problem for many families. Around a fifth (19%) of parents using informal care also indicated that they paid for this, and this was particularly the case in higher income households. Given the nature of the survey, the SHS provides no information on the number of households using no childcare, or informal rather than formal because they are unable to meet the costs of care. Around a fifth (21%) of parents found that it was not easy to get a place in the childcare they use, and for some parents, it was difficult for them to get to the childcare they used, with 12% saying this was the case. Around a third of parents (31%) also said it was difficult to get information about what childcare was available locally. Difficulties in getting information were more commonly reported by non-working single parents and those living in social rented accommodation.

Table 6.6 below indicates that some types of household are more likely than others to be receiving childcare for their children. Children were most likely to receive childcare where there were working adults in the household, with working single-parents and couple households where both parents worked being most likely to use childcare, at 61% and 58% respectively.

Table 6.6 Children receiving childcare by household type, 2003/04

Type of household	% of children receiving childcare
All single parent households	48
Working single-parent households	61
Non-working single parent households	29
Couple households – both parents working	58
Couple households – one parent working	31
Couple households – non-working parents	19

Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2003/04. Table compiled from data reported in Scottish Executive (2006c) *Scottish Household Survey Analytic Topic Report 2006: Childcare Module*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/06/14093747/0>

Types of care received, as might be expected, varied with age, with only 5% of the 12-16 age group receiving formal childcare. Overall, 8% of children received out of school care (OSC). Those living in Glasgow and Edinburgh were more likely to do so, as were children from single parent households compared to other types of household, and children from households with higher incomes.

Costs of childcare were an issue for a significant minority of parents, though it must also be taken into consideration that many parents will have made choices on the basis of what was affordable and arranged their working hours and patterns accordingly. Of parents using childcare in order to enable them to work 28% said that they found it hard to pay for childcare. In particular working single parents found it hard to pay for childcare compared to other types of families, with 37% saying this.

Analysis of the SHS module further indicated that 84% of children from minority ethnic backgrounds who received childcare received informal childcare only, compared to 58% for the population as a whole. The report puts forward as an explanation for this the language and cultural difficulties minority ethnic groups experience when considering formal childcare options. The group classified as ‘White –other’ (as distinct from ‘White – Scottish) are the highest users of formal care of all ethnic groups, with 50% using formal care. This group was also the most likely to be satisfied with their childcare, with 72% of parents in this group saying they were satisfied. By contrast only 48% of parents from ethnic groups other than ‘White-other’ or ‘White-Scottish’ said they were satisfied with their childcare.

6.6 THE DIVISION OF LABOUR IN CHILDCARE AND DOMESTIC TASKS

The way in which households allocate responsibility for childcare and other domestic tasks has an impact on patterns of participation in the labour market. The division of labour within the household remains gendered, both with respect to childcare and with respect to housework, and the disproportionate share of this work that women continue to undertake is likely to influence attitudes to work outside the home and the amount of hours worked. As Table 6.7 below indicates, in 1999, in couple households women remained responsible for most of the childcare, with 64% of women saying they were mostly responsible for childcare and only 2% of men saying this. Similarly 63% of men said their partner was mostly responsible for childcare, and only 2% of women said this of their partners. Around a third of both women and men (34% and 33% respectively) said that childcare was shared. Of all household tasks, grocery shopping was most likely to be shared with 42% of men and 35% of women saying this, followed by childcare. All other tasks were primarily women’s responsibility. It is also interesting to note that in the case of childcare men’s and women’s

responses indicate the same division of labour, whereas in the case of other tasks there is a discrepancy between men's and women's responses, which suggests that men perceive themselves to be doing more than women perceive them to be doing, and vice versa.

Table 6.7 Division of household tasks between couples in Scotland (1), 1999

Household Task	Percentage of each sex with responsibility for particular household tasks (couples only)							
	Mostly Self		Mostly partner		Shared		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Who does the grocery shopping?	14	53	43	11	42	35	1	1
Who does the cooking?	20	63	55	14	25	22	1	1
Who does the cleaning?	9	64	57	8	29	24	5	4
Who does the washing/ ironing?	9	77	71	5	19	15	2	2
Who is responsible for childcare?	2	64	63	2	33	34	1	1

Source: British Household Panel Survey 1999, produced by the Institute for Social and Economic Research at the University of Essex. Scottish Executive (2001) *Men and Women in Scotland: a Statistical Profile*, 2001.

1 The data were collected between Sept 1998 and Mar 1999 and were published in Dec 1999. They are unweighted.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/mnw-00.asp>

Attitudes to gender roles have been changing, and the proportion of men and women who support 'traditional' gender roles of the male breadwinner out at work and the female homemaker at home with the children now being relatively small. Of the working parents surveyed in the NFO/DTZ Pieda research, 70% disagreed with the statement that fathers cannot look after their children as well as mothers do, while 21% agreed with this (NFO/DTZ Pieda, 2004). Almost half (45%) of respondents disagreed with the statement that mothers with young children should stay at home and look after their children, while 29% agreed with this, and the remaining 25% neither agreed nor disagreed. A large majority, however, agreed that fathers should take more responsibility for looking after their children, almost three quarters (72%) of all respondents. In a recent analysis of attitudes towards the division of labour in the family (as yet unpublished data from the Scottish Social Attitudes Survey, 2005, in Dey et al, forthcoming) it was found that just over 90% of women and almost 90% of men said that both partners should be equally responsible for ensuring that housework is done, while 9% of women and 11% of men thought that the woman should be mainly responsible.

Table 6.8 Division of labour within the household, 2005

	Column percentages	
	Men	Women
My partner does all or almost all of the housework	11	1
My partner does most of the housework, but not all	48	1
We share the housework equally	37	22
I do most of the housework, but not all	4	43
I do all or almost all of the housework	1	33

Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey, 2005. (Dey et al, forthcoming)

Despite such egalitarian attitudes, however, actual practice reflects a gender imbalance in responsibility for household tasks and a gender imbalance in perceptions of how responsibility is shared, as Table 6.8 above illustrates. A majority of men (58%), in contrast to the attitudes towards sharing expressed, say that in practice their partner does almost all or most of the housework, while 77% of women say this of themselves. There is a similar

discrepancy in perceptions of equal sharing, with 37% of men saying that housework is equally shared, compared to 22% of women. While the analysis of the division of labour in housework does not specifically identify childcare as part of this, the continuing imbalance in responsibility for such work, and the likely continuing imbalance in responsibility for childcare (any shift from the 1999 position outlined above is likely to have been relatively small) will continue to have an impact on mothers' participation in the labour market.

6.7 THE CHILDCARE WORKFORCE

Like most public sector workforces, and care workforces in particular, the childcare workforce is made up largely of women. In the case of the childcare workforce the dominance of women is particularly pronounced. Table 6.9 below indicates that in 2005 women made up 98% of pre-school education and childcare staff and men only 2%. The gender distribution of the Scottish workforce in childcare is very different from the gender distribution throughout the Scottish workforce as a whole, as Table 6.9 also indicates. The gender distribution of the workforce in childcare is very different from the gender distribution throughout the Scottish workforce as a whole, as also indicated in Table 6.9. Disabled people are also under-represented in the childcare workforce compared to the workforce as a whole (10% compared to 21%).

Table 6.9 Profile of pre-school education and childcare staff, 2005

	Pre-school education and childcare workforce		Total Scottish Workforce
	number	percentage of all staff	percentage of all staff
Age and sex			
All staff	30,640	100	100
16-24	4,750	16	15
25-34	5,800	19	20
35-49	12,650	41	39
50+	4,670	15	26
Age not known	2,770	9	n/a
Male	640	2	53
16-24	200	1	8
25-34	170	1	11
35-49	180	1	20
50+	90	0	15
Age not known	-	0	n/a
Female	29,910	98	47
16-24	4,550	15	7
25-34	5,630	18	10
35-49	12,440	41	19
50+	4,560	15	11
Age not known	2,730	9	n/a
Unknown gender	90	0	n/a
Ethnicity			
White - Scottish and other	30,050	98	98
Asian, Black, Mixed or Other Ethnicity	360	1	2
Not disclosed or not known	230	1	n/a
Full or part time work			
Full-time	13,720	45	76
Part-time	15,660	51	24
Not known	1,260	4	n/a
Workers with disability or health problem lasting one year or more			
Has a disability or health problem	3,030	10	21
No disability or health problem	27,280	89	79
Not known	330	1	n/a
Workers with disability or health problem that effects type of work done			
Effects work done	400	1	7
Does not effect work done	23,750	78	14
Not known	6,480	21	n/a
Workers with disability or health problem that effects amount of work done			
Effects amount done	320	1	5
Does not effect amount done	23,320	76	16
Not known	6,990	23	n/a

Source: Pre-School and Childcare Workforce Statistics, 2005, and Labour Force Survey, Summer (June-August) 2005. Levels are rounded to the nearest thousand. Totals may not equal the sum of individual components due to rounding. Scottish Executive (2005a) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics, 2005*.

Note: Percentages may not always equal 100 due to rounding. 'n/a' data not available

* figures based on sample sizes of between 0 and 5 are suppressed to protect confidentiality.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/13155926/0>

Table 6.10 Characteristics of childcare workforce, Scotland, January 2004

		Childminders ¹		Childcare workforce ²	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Totals		6,165	100	28,150	100
Sex					
	Men	80	1	1,000	4
	Women	6,080	99	27,140	96
Age					
	34 or under	1,050	17	13,390	48
	35-44	2,700	44	7,560	27
	45-54	1,770	29	5,450	19
	55 or over	640	10	1,740	6
Experience - years in childcare					
	< 1 year	450	7	3,150	11
	1-2 years	410	7	2,050	7
	2-5 years	2,190	35	7,420	26
	6-10 years	1,320	21	5,280	19
	10+ years	1,790	29	10,250	36
Highest childcare qualifi					
	No qualifications	4,600	75	9,190	33
	SVQ1 ³	250	4	420	1
	SVQ2 ³	230	4	2,750	10
	SVQ3 ³	850	14	7,080	25
	SVQ4+ ³	250	4	8,710	31
Highest non-childcare qualifica					
	No qualifications	3,460	56	15,600	55
	SVQ1 ³	600	10	2,380	8
	SVQ2 ³	680	11	3,880	14
	SVQ3 ³	950	15	4,100	15
	SVQ4+ ³	470	8	2,190	8
Whether training for further childcare qualifications					
	None	5,420	88	22,650	80
	SVQ1 ³	60	1	340	1
	SVQ2 ³	210	3	1,570	6
	SVQ3 ³	390	6	2,190	8
	SVQ4+ ³	80	1	1,410	5
Hours spent on childcare work per week					
	Under 10 hours	140	2	3,270	12
	10-20 hours	410	7	7,050	25
	20-30 hours	1,090	18	4,060	14
	30-40 hours	1,840	30	9,930	35
	40-50 hours	2,000	32	3,530	13
	50-60 hours	680	11	220	1
	Average number of hours worked	35 hours	-	27 hours	-
Childminders with jobs other than childminding⁴					
	No other jobs	5,130	83	-	-
	Other childcare jobs	330	5	-	-
	Jobs other than childcare	700	11	-	-

Cont'd...

		Childminders ¹		Childcare workforce ²	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Weekly income⁵					
	Under £50	410	7	2,610	9
	£50-£99	1,300	21	5,480	19
	£100-£149	1,260	20	4,620	16
	£150-£199	970	16	4,060	14
	£200-£249	930	15	5,170	18
	£250-£299	470	8	2,320	8
	£300+	820	13	3,880	14
Average weekly income		£173/week	-	£201/week	-

Source: Scottish Executive (2004a) *Pre-School and Childcare Statistics, 2004*.

Note 1: Information on childminders was collected as part of the 2004 childminders survey

Note 2: Information on staff working in other childcare centres is from the 'Preschool and childcare workforce statistics 2003'. Figures have been scaled up to represent total staff numbers at January 2004

Note 3: Or qualifications equivalent to the level of SVQ

Note 4: Information on other jobs was only collected from the survey of childminders

Note 5: Weekly income will vary according to charges, the number of children cared for, and hours worked

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/08/19686/40520>

Table 6.10 above provides an analysis of experience, pay and qualifications, and while no gender breakdown is provided of these categories, since the childcare workforce is overwhelmingly made up of women, it is effectively the characteristics of women workers that are being described. The table indicates that the majority both of childminders and of the childcare workforce have 6 or more years experience in childcare, 50% of childminders and 55% of the childcare workforce respectively. The majority of childminders (75%) have no childcare qualification compared to 33% of other childcare workers. Almost a third of the childcare workforce (31%) has a childcare qualification at SVQ4+ level, which includes a degree or equivalent. The majority of both childminders and childcare workers have no qualifications in a subject other than childcare, 56% and 55% respectively, with childcare workers being slightly more likely than childminders to have higher levels of qualification in non-childcare subjects. The vast majority of childminders and other childcare workers were not training for further childcare qualifications, 88% and 80% respectively. With respect to working hours, childminders were likely to be working longer hours, with 73% working 30 hours or more, compared to 49% of childcare workers. Average pay for childminders was lower than that for other childcare workers, at £173 per week compared to £201 per week.

It is recognised by the Scottish Executive that it is important to address the issues of qualifications and pay among the childcare workforce in Scotland, and the recent National Review of the Early Years and Childcare Workforce sets out the long term aim for this sector of increased levels of qualifications and a proper career structure. It is also recognised that this is necessary to provide high quality, flexible early years and childcare services which will assist child development effectively, and therefore that childcare cannot remain low-skill, low-status employment. These developments will be in line with the preferences of parents, which have emerged from recent surveys, for high quality childcare that fosters social and educational development in children and which is provided by workers who inspire high levels of trust.

6.8 OTHER FORMS OF CARE FOR CHILDREN

The pre-school childcare provision and provision for school age children described in the section above refers to services which parents may choose to use for their children for a range of reasons, whether to enable them to work or to benefit children educationally and socially or both. There are other forms of care provision and services for children, for which the need arises because family care arrangements have broken down or are inadequate, or where

children are at risk. A small number of young people are also admitted to secure accommodation each year. The tables below indicate the gender breakdown of looked after children, young people in secure accommodation, and children on child protection registers. Table 6.11 indicates that between 2000 and 2006 there has been an increase on the numbers of children looked after. In 2006, of looked after children boys made up 56% and girls made up 44%. This represented around 1% of both boys and girls in the relevant age group.

Table 6.11 Number of children looked after 2000-2005 by sex

Age/gender	Children looked after on 31st March....							% of 2006 total	Children looked after as a % of the population
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006		
Male	6,572	6,291	6,486	6,483	6,571	6,736	7,220	56	1
Female	4,737	4,606	4,755	4,905	5,104	5,448	5,746	44	1

Source: Scottish Executive (2006d) *Looked After Children, 2005-06*.

Note: Table excludes children who are on a planned series of short term placements

Table records episodes of care which have begun. A child may start to be looked after more than once in a year and so may be counted more than once here.

Changes between 2003-04 and 2004-05 are partly due to improved recording.

Rates per population based on GROS June 2004 population estimates.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/bulletins/00542>

Table 6.12 below indicates the total numbers of young people in secure accommodation at 31st March each year between 2000 and 2006. The table also shows that boys are much more likely than girls to be admitted to secure accommodation. In 2005-2006 the total number of admissions to secure accommodation was 251 (for the majority of young people in secure accommodation the length of stay is less than 6 months, though individuals may also be admitted more than once in any one year period). Half of children admitted in 2006 were aged 15 at the time of admission.

Table 6.12 Young people in secure accommodation at 31st March 2000-2006

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Boys	71	63	69	69	67	54	62
Girls	16	23	27	21	24	29	20
Boys as % of total	82	73	72	77	74	65	76
Girls as % of total	18	27	28	23	26	35	24

Source: Scottish Executive (2006e) *Secure Accommodation Statistics 2005-06*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/31160332/0>

Tables 6.11 and 6.12 above indicate that of vulnerable children who cannot be cared for by parents or other family members boys make up the majority. Similarly those who require to be admitted to secure accommodation because of behavioural problems or offending behaviour are more likely to be boys. With regards to Child Protection, as Table 6.13 below shows, in 2006 girls were slightly more likely than boys to be referred for a child protection inquiry (girls were 52% of all referrals compared to 48% for boys). However, boys were slightly more likely than girls to be placed on the child protection register, with 52% of children placed on the register being boys compared to 48% being girls.

Table 6.13 Children referred for child protection inquiries, and on child protection registers, 2000-2006

Referred for child protection inquiries	Year ended 31 March.....							% of total 2006	% of Scottish population
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006		
Boys	3,477	3,239	3,345	3,746	3,990	4,257	4,990	48	1.0
Girls	3,724	3,380	3,827	4,287	4,376	4,643	5,396	52	1.0
On child protection registers									
	2,000	2,001	2,002	2,003	2,004	2,005	2,006		
Boys	1,080	1,035	1,013	1,137	1,163	1,098	1,179	52	0.2
Girls	970	965	1,005	1,152	1,082	1,059	1,109	48	0.2

Source: Scottish Executive (2006f) *Child Protection Statistics, 2005-06*.

Note: Aberdeen City recorded an increase in the number of referrals, from 383 in 2001-02, to 701 in 2002-03. This was due to a clarification of what is counted as a referral.

In 2005 Inverclyde and Stirling were unable to provide information on referrals so 2004 data were used.

% of population based on 2004 mid-year estimates from General Register Office for Scotland. Population of 16 and 17 year olds was used for 16+.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/27110441/0>

6.9 CARE GIVERS AND CARE RECEIVERS

As indicated above, the division of labour with respect to childcare remains gendered and this has a significant impact on women's participation in the labour market, with consequences for their career and pay prospects, and for their income in retirement. Many people also have caring responsibilities at other points in their lives than that of the period of family formation and child rearing. These include responsibilities for adult dependants, whether disabled people or older people. Patterns of care giving for such dependants are also gendered.

Women are the majority of those who provide informal care to people within their own home. As indicated in Table 6.14 below, in 2002 women made up 57% of those caring for someone in their own home, and in 2005 made up 58% of such carers. In particular women of working age (i.e. 16-54, and 55-64 age groups) are most likely to have such caring responsibilities, though those in the 65-74 age group are still caring for substantial numbers of people. In the 75-84 age group there is a greater proportion of men caring for people in their own home than in other age groups, with 48% of carers in this age group in 2002 being women, and 56% in 2005 being men.

Table 6.14 Carers providing care to people within their own home, 2002 and 2005

Age group	2002			2005		
	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total
0-15	2,400	2,400	50	1,900	2,600	58
16-54	33,100	48,500	59	29,400	46,800	61
55-64	16,100	20,700	56	14,700	21,700	60
65-74	12,800	14,600	53	13,900	17,000	55
75-84	6,300	6,900	52	7,000	5,600	44
85+	500	200	29	800	1,300	62
Total	71,300	93,300	57	67,700	95,000	58

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Notes: Figures are grossed up to reflect population levels and rounded to the nearest 100.

Women are also more likely than men to provide care for people outside the home. Of those providing care to people outwith their own home, women made up 64% in 2002, and 63% in 2005, as Table 6.15 below shows. The majority of carers are in the 16-54 age group, with

women making up 65% of such carers in 2002, and 64% in 2005. However, substantial numbers of people are being cared for by those in the 55-64 and 65-74 age groups, with women being a majority of carers in these age groups in both 2002 and 2005. As in the case of people caring for others in their own home, men form a bigger proportion of those caring for people outwith their own home in the 75-84 age group than in other age groups, with 54% of such carers in 2002 being men, and 51% in 2005 being men. The groups of people most likely to be cared for outwith the home are parents and parents in law, and other relatives. Data from the 1999 Scottish Household Survey indicated the following breakdown of people being cared for outside the household: parents/parents in law 55%; other relatives 26%; friends or neighbours 14%; and other 4% (Scottish Executive, 2001).

Table 6.15 Carers providing care to people outwith their own home, 2002 and 2005

Age group	2002			2005		
	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total
16-54	113,500	209,300	65	116,900	206,400	64
55-64	38,100	64,700	63	46,100	71,400	61
65-74	20,400	38,700	66	17,600	36,100	67
75-84	9,000	7,600	46	10,500	10,000	49
85+	200	900	82	600	1,500	71
Total	181,200	321,200	64	191,600	325,300	63

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Notes: Figures are grossed up to reflect population levels and rounded to the nearest 100.

A recently published analysis of the Scottish Household Survey (Harkins and Dudleston, 2006) has provided a more detailed picture of the position of unpaid carers. Analysis of SHS data for the period 1999 to 2004 found that one in eight adults in Scotland provided some kind of unpaid care to another person or persons. In 2004, 62% of unpaid carers were female and 38% were male, with these proportions remaining similar throughout the period from 1999 to 2004. The most common profile of a carer was of a woman, aged over 35 years old, married and living in a non-working household. Of those carers providing care within the household, men were more likely than women to be caring for a spouse or partner, 65% of male carers compared to 49% of female carers, while women were more likely than men to be caring for a parent, 32% of female carers compared to 13% of male carers.

As noted, in general women are more likely than men to be carers. However, this difference reduces with age, with men making up 44% of carers aged 60-74 and women making up 56%, and with equal proportions of men and women being carers in the 75 + age group. It should also be noted that because of women's greater longevity compared to men's, women are a majority in older age groups. Thus, while women may remain the majority of carers, this may not be proportionate to their share of the population. For example, 65% of those providing care to people within their own home aged 85+ in 2005 were female, but 72% of the population aged 85+ were female.

Caring tends to be concentrated among slightly older adults, with almost a third of all carers being aged 60 or over. Women are more likely than men to be carers of another person in the household, with women making up 58% of such carers, and men making up 42%. Women are also more likely than men to provide care outside the household, with women making up 63% of such carers, compared to men making up 37%. Of those caring for another household member, 53% were sole carers. Sole carers were more likely to be female (64%) than male (36%), and they also tended to be older.

It was also found that half of all carers were in paid employment, and that just under a third of all carers of working age were not in employment, though no gender breakdown is provided of those groups. Those carers who provided care in the household tended to live in lower income households, and sole carers were less likely than other carers to be in paid employment. There were some differences in the economic position of carers by age group, with younger carers (16-24 years old) being more likely to live in lower income households than other adults in this age group, and older carers being more likely than other adults in their age group to have savings and investments.

Women were more likely than men to be in receipt of care, with women making up 61% of those receiving care compared to men making up 39%. Of adults receiving care, 32% were widowed, compared to 10% of adults not receiving care, and adults receiving care were less likely than other adults to be married, 39% compared to 53%. The typical characteristics of a person in receipt of care was a woman, aged 60 or over, living in a smaller or single pensioner household, and retired or unable to work. Around 0.3% of households contained someone reporting an unmet need for care, with men making up 51% of those with an unmet need, and women making up 49%.

This analysis illustrates that the provision of unpaid care remains gendered, with women being more likely than men to be unpaid carers. It also illustrates that women are more likely than men to have care responsibilities for a wider range of people, including other family members as well as spouses or partners, while men are more likely to be carers of spouses or partners than of other family members. Care responsibilities can produce and/or compound economic disadvantage, with sole carers providing continuous care within the household being particularly disadvantaged.

There are also gender differences among those requiring care and using care services. Of all those requiring regular help and care, women make up the majority as Table 6.16 below shows. In 2002, women made up 58% of those requiring regular help and care, and in 2005 made up 61% of this group. The gender distribution of those requiring help and care varies with age, though for most age groups women are the majority. Of those in the 0-15 age group, males are the majority of those requiring regular help and care, 65% in 2002 and 59% in 2005. This perhaps reflects a difference in the gender pattern of particular types of disability. The proportion of those requiring regular help and care who are women grows with age, and is particularly pronounced for the 85+ age group, where in 2002 women made up 70% of this group, and in 2005 made up 81% of this group. This reflects women's greater longevity, and the deterioration in health that many experience at this age.

Table 6.16 People requiring regular help and care, 2002 and 2005

Age group	2002			2005		
	Male	Female	Female as % of total	Male	Female	Female as % of total
0-15	13,900	7,400	35	11,300	7,800	41
16-54	30,400	38,200	56	31,200	39,000	56
55-64	22,200	26,300	54	18,600	28,000	60
65-74	22,000	35,800	62	22,800	33,000	59
75-84	22,400	38,300	63	21,400	40,400	65
85+	8,000	18,900	70	6,400	27,500	81
Total	118,900	165,000	58	111,700	175,700	61

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Notes: Figures are grossed up to reflect population levels and rounded to the nearest 100.

A significant proportion of disabled adults require regular help and care, with 44% of requiring this in 2001/2002, and 23% of those with a limiting long term illness also requiring regular help and care (Scottish Executive, 2004b). Of disabled adults requiring regular help and care, 64% were female and 36% were male, while of those with a long term limiting illness requiring regular help and care 65% were female, and 35% were male.

6.10 CARE SERVICES

Consistent with the gendered pattern of those requiring regular help and care are the patterns of gender usage of care services. As Table 6.17 below indicates, the majority of those receiving home care services are women, who made up 67% of those in receipt of such care in 2006 compared to 33% of men. Women were in the majority of receivers of home care services for all age groups, with this becoming more pronounced with age. Among disabled adults, and those with a limiting long term illness, women were more likely than men to have a home help (Scottish Executive, 2004b). Of adults with a disability in 2001/2002, 23% of women had a home help compared to 15% of men, while of those with a limiting long term illness, 14% of women had a home help compared to 8% of men. Age is a contributory factor to this share of provision, since there are a greater number of older women than men with a disability or long term limiting illness.

Table 6.17 Clients receiving home care services, 2002 and 2006

Age group	2002			2006		
	Male	Female	% female	Male	Female	% female
0-64	4,547	6,151	56	6,225	7,245	54
65-74	3,318	6,544	66	4,605	6,393	58
75-84	6,288	17,018	73	7,324	17,760	71
85+	4,081	15,594	79	4,823	16,282	77
Total	18,234	45,307	71	22,977	47,680	67

Source: Home Care Statistical Return, H1. Scottish Executive (2002) *Home Care Services Scotland, 2002*; Scottish Executive (2006g) *Home Care Services Scotland, 2006*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2002/11/15804/13904>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/24134412/1>

Table 6.18 Long stay residents in care homes: March 2003 - September 2005 (percentages)

Gender	Age	Mar-03	Sep-03	Mar-04	Sep-04	Mar-05	Sep-05
Male	Under 65	8	8	8	8	8	9
	65 - 74	17	17	17	14	16	17
	75 - 84	38	39	40	38	40	38
	85+	37	37	35	40	36	36
	Total number	8,833	8,622	8,793	8,514	8,850	9,000
Female	Under 65	3	3	3	3	3	4
	65 - 74	9	9	9	9	9	9
	75 - 84	34	35	35	35	36	35
	85+	54	53	53	53	52	52
	Total number	24,683	24,605	23,896	25,025	24,425	23,893
Total	Under 65	4	4	5	4	4	5
	65 - 74	11	11	11	10	11	11
	75 - 84	35	36	36	35	37	36
	85+	50	49	48	50	48	48
	Total number	33,516	33,227	32,689	33,539	33,275	328,935

Source: SCHC2A September 2005. Scottish Executive (2006h) *Care Homes Scotland, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/14105932/0>

Similarly, as Table 6.18 above indicates, women make up the majority of those receiving care as long stay residents in care homes. In September 2003 of all long stay residents in care homes men made up 26% and women made up 74%, while in September 2005 men made up 27% and women made up 73%. There are some gender differences in the age distribution of those requiring long term residential care, with there being proportionately more men in long term care in the under 65 age group compared to women, around 8% compared to around 3%. Correspondingly the proportions of women in long stay care are greater for the older age groups. Among women in long stay residential care over half are in the 85+ group, compared to just over a third for men.

Women are also the majority of those attending day care services, making up 59% of all those attending such services in 2005, as Table 6.19 below shows. There are some gender differences in the reasons for receiving day care services, with females being the majority of those receiving care because of dementia (69% compared to 31% for males), physical disability (66% compared to 34% for males), and mental health problems (60% compared to 40% for males). By contrast males were in the majority of those receiving care for learning disabilities (53% compared to 47% for females) and for drug or alcohol problems (73% compared to 27%).

Table 6.19 Sex and age profile of Day Care Service attendees, 2005

Individual Client Group	Under 65 Years Old		Over 65 Years Old		Total	% of Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female		Male	Female
Dementia	147	238	1,037	2,410	3,832	31	69
Learning Disabilities	3,721	3,199	219	287	7,426	53	47
Physically Disabled People	1,021	1,117	1,808	4,403	8,349	34	66
Mental Health Problems	320	350	118	297	1,085	40	60
Drug/Alcohol Problems	164	46	25	24	259	73	27
Other Client Groups	190	171	112	258	731	41	59
TOTAL	5,563	5,121	3,319	7,679	21,682	41	59

Source: Day Care Services Census Return D1-B. Scottish Executive (2006i) *Day Care Services, Scotland 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/01/23160354/0>

As well as data provided about use of the care services detailed above, data are regularly published on the numbers of adults with learning disabilities, and the numbers of registered blind people, with a gender breakdown. Of adults with learning disabilities known to local authorities in 2005, men made up 56% (Scottish Executive, 2006j). The majority of registered blind persons in 2005 were women, 62% (Scottish Executive, 2005b). This overall majority is accounted for by the larger numbers of women who are registered blind in older age groups (65-74, and 75 and over), as in all younger age groups men make up the majority of registered blind persons.

The data included in this section above indicate that there are gendered patterns both in care giving and in care receiving. Women are the majority of carers for others both inside and outside the home, though the gender balance in caring changes with age, and is more equal in some older age groups. This is likely to reflect the care provided by older men primarily for spouses and partners, while women are more likely to provide care for a wider range of people, including spouses/partners, relatives, friends and neighbours. Women are also in the majority as receivers of formal care services: home care services; long stay residential care;

and day care services. The gender differences in the need for such forms of care reflect different patterns of disability and health, and in particular the fact that women tend to live longer than men and to require a greater level of care in their later years.

6.11 THE CARE WORKFORCE

As in the case of the childcare workforce, women make up the majority of the social care workforce, though are not so predominant. As Table 6.20 below shows women make up 84% of Social Work Services staff compared to 16% of men (this comparison is of actual numbers of staff, rather than Whole Time Equivalents). The majority of all Social Work Services staff work in Adult Community Care, 61%, and of these 89% are women. The client group which has the largest proportion of male staff is Offenders, where 37% of staff are men. This group, however, accounts for only 4% of all Social Work Services Staff.

Table 6.20 Staff of Scottish Social Work Services, 2005: Numbers and WTEs by client group and sex

Client Group	Number of staff ⁽³⁾				% of staff		% by client group
	Males	Females	Total	WTE	Males	Females	WTE
Children	1,741	6,495	8,236	7,227	21	79	17
Adults (Community Care)	4,083	31,348	35,435	26,130	11	89	61
Older People (1)	897	6,767	7,664	6,029	12	88	14
People with Physical Disabilities ⁽¹⁾	149	370	519	403	29	71	1
People with Mental Health Problems ⁽¹⁾	64	213	277	213	23	77	0.5
People with Learning Disabilities ⁽¹⁾	1,279	3,333	4,615	3,739	28	72	9
Adults (not separately identified) ⁽²⁾	1,694	20,665	22,360	15,744	8	92	37
Offenders	693	1,164	1,857	1,694	37	63	4
Generic provision	960	3,728	4,691	4,089	21	79	10
Management/Administration	941	2,653	3,594	3,280	26	74	8
Unknown	60	135	195	173	31	69	0.4
Total	8,478	45,523	54,008	42,593	16	84	100

Source: Scottish Executive (2006k) *Staff of Scottish Local Authority Social Work Services, 2005*.

Notes: (1) Staff in day centres, residential establishments and special locations providing services to specific client groups.

(2) Fieldwork staff providing services to adults and home care staff.

(3) Totals do not equal the sum of components due to 7 genders unknown.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/06/27091022/0>

Table 6.21 below indicates the gender distribution of Social Work Services Staff by category of staff and services. This indicates that in a number of service areas, women make up the overwhelming majority of staff: 96% of domiciliary staff; 93% of day care staff in services for children and families; 91% of residential staff in services for people with physical disabilities; and 89% of residential staff in services for older people. Men make up almost half of residential staff in services for offenders (44%), and a majority of area managers of fieldwork staff (65%). It should be noted, however, that in a number of staff groups the total numbers are relatively small, and that therefore the percentages of men and women can vary greatly with even a small change in the numbers of men and women in each group. In such cases, percentage figures therefore need to be treated with caution.

Table 6.21 Staff of Social Work Services, 2005 (Number of persons)

	Female	Male	Total	Women as % of total
Strategic/Central staff	2,614	932	3,546	74
Fieldwork staff - area managers	12	22	34	35
Fieldwork staff - services for children	4,184	964	5,148	81
Fieldwork staff - services for adults	3,463	936	4,399	79
Fieldwork staff - services for offenders	1,135	670	1,805	63
Fieldwork staff - generic provision	3,716	938	4,657	80
Day care staff - services for children and families	729	54	783	93
Day care staff - services for older people	964	192	1,156	83
Day care staff - services for people with mental health problems	170	51	221	77
Day care staff - services for people with learning disabilities	2,213	957	3,172	70
Day care staff - services for people with physical disabilities	322	144	466	69
Domiciliary staff	17,202	758	17,961	96
Residential staff - services for children and young people	1,582	723	2,305	69
Residential staff - services for older people	5,803	705	6,508	89
Residential staff - services for people with mental health problems	43	13	56	77
Residential staff - services for people with learning disabilities	1,120	322	1,443	78
Residential staff - services for people with physical disabilities	48	5	53	91
Residential staff - services for offenders	29	23	52	56
Total	45,349	8,409	53,765	84

Source: Scottish Executive (2006k) *Staff of Scottish Local Authority Work Services, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/06/27091022/0>

Women make up the majority of local authority Social Work Services Staff Managers overall, with 72% of all managers in 2005 being women, as Table 6.22 below shows. This contrasts with their overall share of the social work workforce of 84%. There is a considerable variation in the gender balance of managers across different service areas, ranging from fieldwork managers made up of 65% men and 35% women to Home Care Managers, Assistant Care Managers, and Supervisors, a category made up of 95% women and 5% men. There is currently an equal gender balance at the most senior levels in Strategic and Central Staff, with women making up 50% of Directors, Heads of Service, and Service Managers in 2005. As with Table 21 above, where overall numbers are small, percentages should be treated with caution.

Table 6.22 Social Work Staff - Managers, 2005

	Female	Male	Total	% Female
Strategic/Central staff				
- Directors, Heads of Service, Service Managers	172	169	341	50
Fieldwork staff - area managers	12	22	34	35
Fieldwork staff - services for children				
- Service Managers, Team Leaders/Managers	200	133	333	60
Fieldwork staff - services for adults				
- Service Managers, Team Leaders/Managers	241	119	360	67
Fieldwork staff - services for offenders				
- Service Managers, Team Leaders/Managers	38	59	97	39
Fieldwork staff - generic provision				
- Team Leaders/Managers	144	70	214	67
Day care staff - services for children and families				
- Early Education and Child Care Manager	22	3	25	88
Day care staff - services for older people				
- Head of Adult Day Care unit/Assistant Unit Managers	74	14	88	84
Day care staff - services for people with mental health problems				
- Head of Adult Day Care unit/Assistant Unit Managers	8	7	15	53
Day care staff - services for people with learning disabilities				
- Head of Adult Day Care unit/Assistant Unit Managers	150	93	243	62
Day care staff - services for people with physical disabilities				
- Head of Adult Day Care unit/Assistant Unit Managers	47	14	61	77
Domiciliary staff				
Home Care Managers/Asst Home Care Managers/Supervisors	749	36	786	95
Residential staff - services for children and young people				
- Head of Residential Home	79	47	126	63
Residential staff - services for older people				
- Head of Residential Home	161	39	200	81
Residential staff - services for people with mental health problems				
- Head of Residential Home	2	3	5	40
Residential staff - services for people with learning disabilities				
- Head of Residential Home	37	16	53	70
Residential staff - services for people with physical disabilities				
- Head of Residential Home	1	1	2	50
Residential staff - services for offenders				
- Head of Residential Home	1	1	2	50
Total	2,138	846	2,985	72

Source: Scottish Executive (2006k) *Staff of Scottish Local Authority Work Services, 2005*.

Note: Total numbers of staff do not always equal the sum of males and females, due to a small number of genders unknown.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/06/27091022/0>

6.12 SUMMARY

The statistical data examined in this chapter indicate that care remains a gendered sphere, with women taking the major share of responsibility for this whether as unpaid carers or as paid workers. In general childcare provision has increased, but the pattern of provision is both complex and varied across Scotland, and there is evidence of continuing unmet need. Women are the majority of unpaid carers of adults, though the gender differences in the share of caring decrease with age. Care responsibilities often have an economic cost as they reduce the capacity of carers to participate in paid work. Women are also the majority of those being cared for, with the tendency for women to live longer than men being a key contributory

factor to this. The childcare workforce is overwhelming made up of women, and women are also a large majority of the workforce in other care services.

With respect to childcare provision, the findings from the survey on parents' use of and demand for childcare and the analysis of the Scottish Household Survey childcare module complement each other, confirming that many parents have a preference for informal care, and that the desire to work is the most important factor in parents' deciding to use childcare. This research also confirms that there is an increased use of childcare in Scotland, and that satisfaction levels with childcare provision are generally high. However, for some parents costs remain a barrier and lack of awareness of available provision is also a problem for some. The research makes clear that for some groups of parents there still exists an unmet need, and the extent of this is likely to have been underestimated because of the nature of the surveys.

While such analyses of parents' demand for and use of childcare provide detailed information indicating the complexity of arrangements used and the factors affecting the choices made by parents, the analyses themselves are not gendered i.e. they do not tell us about differences between mothers' and fathers' childcare practices or involvement in the organisation of childcare, apart from groups which are overwhelmingly made up of women, such as lone parents. As indicated in Chapter Four on the labour market, working mothers are far more likely to work part-time than working fathers, and this is likely to mean that women take more responsibility for the organisation of childcare than men, and that they spend more time on childcare. Research elsewhere in Britain has also indicated that childcare costs tend to be assessed not in relation to household income, but in relation to the mother's potential earnings, and are therefore seen as costs of her employment, for which she should be responsible (Himmelweit and Sigala, 2004).

As illustrated by the statistical data in this chapter, women make up the majority of paid workers in the care sector, both in childcare and other care services. The pay and status of such workers has been a matter of concern, as evidenced by the recent review of early years and childcare workforce in Scotland. Recent research on childcare provision in Scotland (Campbell et al, 2003) emphasised the diversity of the childcare sector in Scotland in terms of pay, employment, stability and funding sources. A survey of childcare providers in Glasgow identified a vibrant level of demand for childcare services, but also staff recruitment problems in the independent sector. In general, the researchers found that the UK (and Scottish) childcare sector was characterised by low pay, high staff turnover, recruitment problems and insecure funding, and they argued for the need to improve pay rates and to reduce disparities between different types of providers.

With respect to minority ethnic communities in Scotland, the difference in age profile compared to the White population has an impact on care needs and use of care services. Since this profile is younger, there are more likely to be childcare needs, but fewer pensioners proportionately compared to the White population, and therefore less need for care for older people. There is little statistical data in relation to care needs and provision for minority ethnic groups, though research has suggested that there are barriers to the use of formal childcare provision in terms of lack of awareness of provision and lack of cultural sensitivity in childcare services. Research on older people from minority ethnic communities has suggested that there is unmet need for care provision, that there are low levels of knowledge of the services available, that there are difficulties in accessing services, and that there is a lack of culturally sensitive services (Netto et al, 2001). The audit of research on minority ethnic issues also noted a lack of research on minority ethnic people who are disabled. In general,

however, as shown by the analysis of data in *Social Focus on Disability* (Scottish Executive, 2004b), it is apparent that disabled people and those who have a limiting long term illness have a high level of need of care services, and that women are the majority of those requiring and receiving care services.

Although both women and men provide care to others, both children and adult dependants, over the course of their lives, there remain significant differences in the time devoted to this as well as differences in the type of care provided. That these patterns of caring are shaped by particular conceptions of gender roles within marriage and partnerships, and within the family, can be seen from the gender differences in the division of labour in childcare, and in who is cared for both within and outwith the household, with women having a wider caring role in terms of family members than do men, whose caring is more likely to be for a spouse or partner. This unequal responsibility for care is widely regarded as a major factor in the unequal access of women and men to the labour market and to the rewards of paid work in terms of promotion and pay. Improved levels of childcare provision and other forms of support for parents therefore help both to facilitate women's participation in the labour market and to facilitate the greater involvement of fathers in childcare. Furthermore, childcare provision is important, not only for the support it provides to working parents, and in particular working mothers, but also because of its benefits to children in terms of educational development and social interaction. Good quality childcare provision also plays a particular role in anti-poverty strategies, both by assisting parents, and in particular lone parents (over 90% of whom are women) to take up employment, education or training opportunities, and by assisting children's social and educational development. The introduction of the Carers Strategy also provides recognition that unpaid care provided by individuals for other members of their households and for people outside their households is an important resource to society.

Developments in childcare provision and community care policies have resulted in the production on a regular basis of a much wider range of data on childcare provision, on other forms of caring, and on care givers and care receivers, and this has also been complemented by analyses of the Scottish Household Survey specifically focussing on childcare and on unpaid carers. Other research on this topic in Scotland that has a gender focus appears to be very limited. Thus, while the availability of data has been much improved, there remain further research questions to be investigated. In particular, it would be useful to explore more closely the links between patterns of care and patterns of labour market participation for both men and women over time, and therefore longitudinal data on this topic would be particularly helpful. Data for Scotland on sharing of care, types of care, and time spent caring, on the model of the UK Time Use study would also be useful in identifying the extent to which change in the care division of labour is occurring.

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<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/13155926/0>

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Scottish Executive (2006d) *Looked After Children, 2005-05*
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<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/31160332/0>

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<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/27110441/0>

Scottish Executive (2006g) *Home Care Services Scotland, 2006*
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/24134412/1>

Scottish Executive (2006h) *Care Homes Scotland, 2005*
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/14105932/0>

Scottish Executive (2006i) *Day Care Services, Scotland 2005*
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/01/23160354/0>

Scottish Executive (2006j) *Adults with Learning Disabilities Implementation of 'The Same as You?', Scotland 2005*
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/05/22101802/0>

Scottish Executive (2006k) *Staff of Local Authority Social Work Services, 2005*
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/06/27091022/0>

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<http://www.archive.official-documents.co.uk/document/cm39/3958/3958.htm>

CHAPTER SEVEN HEALTH

Within this chapter statistical evidence of women's and men's health and health behaviours is examined. There is a large volume of health data which are disaggregated by gender and/or are relevant to gender specific health issues produced for Scotland, and for smaller areas within Scotland, both health board areas and local authority areas. Most of these data are produced by the Information Services Division of NHS Scotland (ISD), which has a long history of health data production with the consequence that Scotland is very well resourced in terms of information about health. This chapter includes only a small selection of health data, including data on mortality and illness, perceptions of health, health behaviours, uses of selected health services, and the NHS Scotland workforce. In addition it includes some data which is gender specific, since biological differences mean that women and men have different health needs in some respects, in particular in relation to reproductive health. Though such data cannot provide the basis for gender comparisons, they are included as they provide information about significant gender specific health issues.

7.1 POLICY CONTEXT

Health is one of the major areas of policy and service provision which is devolved to the Scottish Parliament. The Scottish Executive set out its high level commitments on health in its 2003 Partnership Agreement, *A Partnership for a Better Scotland*. As well as commitments on the reduction of waiting times, improved service provision, and development of the workforce, the Agreement gave a commitment to step up action on health improvement. This included:

- Improving health through Local Health Improvement Plans;
- Tackling the problem of alcohol abuse in Scotland;
- Improving diet;
- Preventing ill health;
- Promoting safer lifestyles;
- Redesigning health service provision;
- Reducing the number of people who are in hospital longer than they should be;
- Addressing inequalities in health provision.

In 2005, the Scottish Executive published *Delivering for Health*, which set out their vision for the NHS in Scotland and proposals for the reshaping of delivery mechanisms to meet the objective of improving health across Scotland. The overall aim of the Scottish Executive is to improve the health of the people of Scotland, with a shift towards preventive medicine and more continuous care in the community. The current differences in healthy life expectancy of different communities in Scotland is regarded as unacceptable, and there is a strong emphasis in *Delivering for Health* on tackling health inequalities. To this end targets for health improvement for the most disadvantaged communities have been set across a range of health indicators: the incidence of coronary heart disease, cancer, smoking, teenage pregnancies, and suicide.

It is also recognised in *Delivering for Health* that a central theme for future health care policy in Scotland is the recognition of unpaid carers as key partners and providers of care. The NHS and local partners will be expected to provide carers with information and training relevant to their caring role, and also to ensure that awareness of the role of carers is incorporated into the professional training of NHS staff.

7.2 WOMEN'S AND MEN'S HEALTH AND HEALTH BEHAVIOURS

Key points:

- In 2005, women's life expectancy was 79.5 years, compared to 74.5 years for men.
- In 2005, cancer was the major cause of death for both women and men (for all ages), with men being more likely than women to die of cancer. Of the other major causes of death, coronary heart disease and strokes, men are more likely than women to die of the former, and women are more likely than men to die of the latter.
- In 2003, breast cancer was the most frequently diagnosed cancer among women, and prostate and lung cancers were the most frequently diagnosed cancers among men.
- The incidence of cervical cancer has declined significantly from the early 1990s, and was at a rate of around 9 per 100,000 of the female population in 2003.
- The incidence of prostate cancer has risen from 41.1 per 100,000 of the male population in 1980 to 78.4 per 100,000 of the male population in 2003.
- Women are more likely than men to suffer from anxiety and depression, while men are more likely than women to commit suicide.
- The rate of teenage pregnancies has tended to decline since the early 1990s. The teenage pregnancy rate for ages 13-19 overall for the year 2003/04 was 42.4 per 1,000, compared with 50.1 per 1,000 in 1991/92.
- The abortion rate has been stable since the early to mid 1990s at around 11 per 1000 women aged 15-44.
- The prevalence of smoking among both women and men has declined from around 30% in 1999 to 26% in 2005.
- The proportion of men whose consumption of alcohol was over the recommended limit declined from 33% in 1995 to 27% in 2003, while the proportions of women whose consumption of alcohol was over the recommended limit has increased very slightly from 13% in 1995 to 14% in 2003.
- The proportion of men who were overweight or obese increased from 56% in 1995 to 65% in 2003, while the proportion of women who were overweight or obese increased from 47% in 1995 to 60% in 2003.

- In 2003, women were less likely than men to have a high level of physical activity, 30% of women compared to 42% of men.
- In 2005, women were 46% of GPs and men were 54%. Women were 90% of Nursing and Midwifery staff and men were 10%.

7.3 KEY SOURCES OF DATA AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

7.3.1 Key sources of data

The General Register Office for Scotland regularly publishes data on mortality and key causes of death in its Vital Events Reference Tables. Information Services Division (ISD) Scotland collates and publishes data from administrative returns on a wide range of aspects of health including patterns of mortality and morbidity, births, infant mortality, abortion, contraceptive services, inpatient episodes, mental health, use of GP services, cervical screening services, breast screening services, and the NHS workforce in Scotland. Gender disaggregated data on health behaviours are available from the Scottish Health Survey, the Scottish Household Survey, and the Health Education Population Survey. There is a much greater volume of gender disaggregated data on health issues available than included in this chapter, at local level as well as Scottish level. There is however a lack of publications which collate gender disaggregated data, or which provide detailed commentary from a gender perspective.

7.3.2 Possible uses of data

Public bodies concerned with health behaviours and use of health services, might use gender disaggregated data in setting targets for health behaviours, and in evaluating the responsiveness of services to the health needs of men and women. Data on the composition of workforces might inform strategies on recruitment and promotion, for example, encouraging men into certain sectors of the health workforce such as nursing, and addressing gender imbalances at senior levels. Improving health is an important objective of regeneration strategies, and Community Planning Partnerships might use gender disaggregated data to inform their strategies and to set targets. Local authorities might also use data on health behaviours in relation to strategies on the use of sports and leisure facilities.

7.4 PATTERNS OF MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

In Chapter One on Population, Households and Families, it was indicated that women continue to have greater life expectancy than men. In 2005 women had a life expectancy of 79.5 years and men had a life expectancy of 74.5 years (Scottish Executive, 2006). As also noted in Chapter One, age-specific mortality rates indicate that the vast majority of deaths occur within the older age groups in the population.

Table 7.1 below indicates the changing pattern of death rates in Scotland between 1946 and 2005. This shows that infant mortality has typically been higher for male than for female children, especially those aged under one year, but also that the rates of infant deaths have declined dramatically in this period. Thus in 1946-50 there were 57.2 deaths per 1,000 for male children aged under 1 and 43.5 deaths per 1,000 for female children aged under 1, while in 2001-2005 this had declined to 5.8 per 1,000 and 4.6 per 1,000 for males and females respectively. The declining death rates for all age groups and both sexes in this period reflect both improvements in the general health of the population and the extension of life expectancy. As might be expected death rates become progressively higher as age increases

for both sexes, though death rates for males are consistently higher than for females. Thus in 2001-2005, for example, in the 65-74 age group, there were 32.8 per 1,000 deaths for males compared to 20.5 per 1,000 for females, while for the oldest age group of 85+ there were 192.8 deaths per 1,000 for males and 165.8 deaths per 1,000 for females.

Table 7.1 Death rates per 1,000, by sex and age, Scotland, 1946-2005

Year	Sex	Age group											
		Rates per 1,000											
		0	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75-84	85+
1946-50	M	57.2	2.7	1.2	0.9	2.0	2.5	4.3	10.6	25.0	54.5	127.7	277.5
	F	43.5	2.2	0.9	0.8	2.2	2.8	3.3	6.6	15.6	40.6	103.7	243.4
1951-55	M	38.7	1.6	0.7	0.5	1.2	1.8	3.4	9.6	25.6	57.0	130.4	278.1
	F	30.0	1.3	0.5	0.4	0.9	1.5	2.7	6.0	14.4	39.5	104.6	240.6
1956-60	M	33.3	1.2	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.5	3.1	9.2	25.3	58.9	127.7	268.6
	F	25.3	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.5	1.0	2.3	5.4	13.5	37.0	99.3	239.8
1961-65	M	29.4	1.1	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.3	3.2	9.3	25.9	59.8	128.7	266.8
	F	22.3	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.9	2.2	5.4	13.1	35.1	93.8	217.4
1966-70	M	24.4	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.3	3.0	8.8	24.4	57.7	122.3	256.3
	F	18.8	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.7	2.0	5.4	12.4	32.4	85.8	212.4
1971-75	M	21.0	0.9	0.5	0.4	1.0	1.2	3.0	8.9	23.8	57.3	122.7	246.4
	F	16.4	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	1.9	5.3	12.6	30.3	80.1	198.5
1976-80	M	15.7	0.7	0.4	0.3	1.0	1.3	2.8	8.6	22.7	54.2	119.0	243.5
	F	12.1	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.7	1.9	5.2	12.5	29.6	75.8	190.1
1981-85	M	11.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.1	2.4	7.6	21.2	51.8	113.3	229.7
	F	9.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	1.5	4.5	12.0	29.5	71.4	183.0
1986-90	M	9.7	0.5	0.2	0.3	1.0	1.2	2.3	6.6	19.3	47.8	107.0	223.0
	F	7.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.3	3.9	11.3	27.9	68.4	172.0
1991-95	M	7.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.0	1.3	2.1	5.8	16.8	44.0	100.7	210.9
	F	5.6	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	1.3	3.5	9.9	26.3	66.2	166.8
1996-00	M	6.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.1	1.4	2.2	5.4	15.0	39.1	90.6	200.4
	F	4.8	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	1.3	3.4	8.7	23.8	60.9	167.1
2001-05	M	5.8	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.9	1.5	2.3	5.1	13.0	32.8	80.6	192.8
	F	4.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	1.2	3.1	7.8	20.5	56.9	165.8

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006) *Vital Events Reference Tables, 2005*.

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>

As well as gender differences in overall death rates, there are gender differences in the distribution of causes of death. Table 7.2 below shows death rates from the three main types of disease that are causes of death, cancers, coronary heart disease (ischaemic heart disease), and stroke (cerebrovascular disease). Between 1970-72 and 2005 death rates from all cancers have increased for both men and women, from 272 per 1,000 for men and 218 per 1,000 for women in 1970-72 to 312 per 1,000 for men and 283 per 1,000 for women in 2005. With respect to cancers to which both women and men are susceptible, in all cases in 2005 men had higher death rates than women. However, between 1970-72 and 2005 there were some changes: the death rate for cancer of the intestine, previously higher for women had declined to a lower rate than for men; the gap between the death rate for cancers associated with smoking (trachea, bronchus and lung) has narrowed greatly. With regard to gender specific cancers, the death rate for prostate cancer has steadily increased from 14 per 1,000 to 31 per 1,000, while the death rate from breast cancer increased between 1970-72 and 1990-92 from 40 per 1,000 to 48 per 1,000 but had declined to 43 per 1,000 by 2005.

With respect to the other two major causes of death, men are more likely than women to die of coronary heart disease, though death rates from this cause have significantly declined for both sexes. Conversely, women are more likely than men to die of strokes, though the death rates from this cause have also significantly declined for both sexes.

Table 7.2 Death rates from selected causes: selected years, 1970-72 to 2005.

	Sex	1970-72	1980-82	1990-92	2005
All cancers	M	272	291	314	312
	F	218	247	278	283
Oesophagus	M	8	12	15	20
	F	7	9	11	11
Stomach	M	29	24	20	14
	F	23	18	14	9
Intestine (exc. Rectum)	M	20	20	22	21
	F	29	26	24	19
Rectum	M	12	11	13	15
	F	10	10	10	9
Trachea, bronchus and lung	M	112	119	111	89
	F	24	41	57	69
Leukaemia	M	7	6	6	8
	F	5	5	5	6
Prostate	M	14	19	27	31
Breast	F	40	45	48	43
Ischaemic Heart Disease	M	407	408	367	229
	F	289	304	297	178
Cerebrovascular Disease	M	158	139	119	85
	F	226	210	191	139

Source: General Register Office for Scotland (2006) *Vital Events Reference Tables, 2005*.

<http://www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/statistics/library/vital-events/vital-events-reference-tables-2005/index.html>

As indicated above, of the three main types of disease that cause death, cancer (of all types taken together) gives the highest death rates for both men and women. Table 7.3 below shows that the most frequently diagnosed cancers for men between 1997 and 2003 were cancer of trachea, bronchus and lung, prostate cancer, and cancer of the large bowel. For the same period, the most frequently diagnosed cancers for women were breast cancer, cancer of the trachea, bronchus and lung, and cancer of the large bowel. The frequency of breast cancer is greater among women than is prostate cancer among men, though both are among the most frequently diagnosed cancers. Cancers of the trachea, bronchus and lung, and of the large bowel, are slightly more frequently diagnosed for men than for women, but in general the statistics suggest that both smoking and dietary habits are a significant cause of illness and death for both sexes.

Table 7.3 Most frequently diagnosed cancers in Scotland, 1997, 2000, 2003

Males									
Cancer Site	1997			2000			2003		
	Number	Rank	Freq.	Number	Rank	Freq.	Number	Rank	Freq.
Trachea, bronchus and lung	2,762	1	0.22	2,535	1	0.2	2,472	1	0.19
Prostate	1,967	2	0.16	2,079	2	0.17	2,377	2	0.19
Large bowel	1,805	3	0.14	1,873	3	0.15	1,875	3	0.15
Head and neck	653	5	0.05	690	4	0.06	707	4	0.06
Bladder	810	4	0.06	510	6	0.04	503	5	0.04
Oesophagus	436	7	0.03	454	7	0.04	501	6	0.04
Stomach	595	6	0.05	580	5	0.05	497	7	0.04
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	408	8	0.03	396	8	0.03	463	8	0.04
Leukaemias	347	9	0.03	362	9	0.03	399	9	0.03
Kidney	329	10	0.03	337	10	0.03	349	10	0.03
Other malignant neoplasms	2,489		0.2	2,650		0.21	2,669		0.21
All malignant neoplasms excluding non-melanoma skin cancer	12,601		1	12,466		1	12,812		1
Females									
Cancer Site	1997			2000			2003		
	Number	Rank	Freq.	Number	Rank	Freq.	Number	Rank	Freq.
Breast	3,453	1	0.25	3,703	1	0.27	3,845	1	0.28
Trachea, bronchus and lung	1,954	2	0.14	2,037	2	0.15	1,987	2	0.15
Large bowel	1,608	3	0.12	1,689	3	0.12	1,524	3	0.11
Ovary	671	4	0.05	642	4	0.05	626	4	0.05
Corpus uteri	462	5	0.03	444	6	0.03	461	5	0.03
Malignant melanoma of skin	421	8	0.03	376	7=	0.03	456	6	0.03
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	426	7	0.03	445	5	0.03	406	7	0.03
Pancreas	334	11	0.02	325	9	0.02	361	8	0.03
Stomach	429	6	0.03	376	7=	0.03	329	9	0.02
Head and neck	286	14	0.02	276	13	0.02	316	10	0.02
Leukaemias	332	12	0.02	290	12	0.02	303	11	0.02
Oesophagus	319	13	0.02	293	11	0.02	299	12	0.02
Cervix uteri	363	10	0.03	303	10	0.02	259	13	0.02
Bladder	388	9	0.03	240	15*	0.02	251	14	0.02
Other malignant neoplasms	2,129		0.16	2,144		0.16	2,081		0.15
All malignant neoplasms excluding non-melanoma skin cancer	13,575		1	13,583		1	13,504		1

Source: Scottish Cancer Registry, ISD (Data extracted September, 2006).

Notes: * The cancer ranked 14 for the years 2000 and 2002 is not listed as it is not one of the top 10 cancer sites for any of the years 1997-2003.

Table 7.4 below indicates that the incidence of the gender specific cancer, cervical cancer, has declined significantly in recent years. The figures below show that there was an increase in

the incidence of cervical cancer between 1975 and the late 1980s, and that since then there has been a steady decline. In 2003 the incidence of cervical cancer was around 9 per 100,000 of the female population.

Table 7.4 Incidence of cervical cancer, European Age Standardised Rates: females in Scotland, 1975-2003

Year	EASR per 100,000
	All ages
1975	14.6
1976	16.0
1977	15.1
1978	14.4
1979	14.2
1980	14.7
1981	16.2
1982	14.7
1983	15.3
1984	16.0
1985	16.3
1986	17.0
1987	16.8
1988	17.2
1989	13.5
1990	18.0
1991	16.9
1992	14.1
1993	13.8
1994	12.3
1995	11.9
1996	12.9
1997	12.4
1998	12.6
1999	10.7
2000	10.3
2001	10.7
2002	10.1
2003	8.9

Source: ISD Scotland (2006a) *Cervical Screening*.

Notes: Incidence rates have been age-standardised to the European Standard Population and cover females of all ages.

Calculated using Poisson regression.

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/servlet/FileBuffer?namedFile=change_in_incidence_0606.xls&pContentDispositionType=inline

Table 7.5 below provides figures for prostate cancer, which is specific to men, for the period 1980 to 2003. This indicates that both the numbers of men being diagnosed with this cancer, and its rate of incidence, have risen throughout this period. In 2003 the incidence of prostate cancer was 78.4 per 100,000 of the male population.

Table 7.5 Cancer of the prostate trends in incidence 1980-2003

Year	Numbers	EASR per 100,000 All ages
1980	917	41.1
1981	965	41.3
1982	972	41.0
1983	1,066	44.2
1984	1,097	45.1
1985	1,124	45.9
1986	1,166	47.8
1987	1,217	48.6
1988	1,229	49.0
1989	1,273	49.7
1990	1,344	52.4
1991	1,358	52.0
1992	1,449	55.7
1993	1,768	67.5
1994	1,859	70.0
1995	1,959	73.1
1996	2,184	80.4
1997	1,967	71.1
1998	1,993	71.2
1999	2,015	72.3
2000	2,073	72.7
2001	2,173	75.7
2002	2,422	83.0
2003	2,318	78.4

Source: ISD

EASR : age-standardised incidence rate per 100,000 person-years at risk (European standard population)

The above tables have outlined the major causes of death of men and women in Scotland, and have indicated the prevalence of serious life-threatening diseases. Table 7.6 below indicates the assessments that individuals have given of their levels of health in response to questions asked in the Scottish Health Survey. In all three years of the survey, 1995, 1998 and 2003, there was very little difference in the responses of men and women, with the percentages stating that they had very good or good health, fair, and bad or very bad health, being almost identical. Similarly, self-assessed levels of long-standing illness were very similar. In the case of self-assessed acute sickness, women were slightly more likely than men to say they were suffering from this in all three years of the survey.

Table 7.6 Self-assessed general health, prevalence of long-standing illness and acute sickness by sex, 1995, 1998, 2003

All aged 16+	1995	1998	2003
	%		
Men			
Self-assessed health			
Very good/good	77	79	78
Fair	17	16	15
Bad/very bad	6	5	6
Long-standing illness	34	37	35
Acute sickness	13	12	14
Women			
Self-assessed health			
Very good/good	77	80	78
Fair	18	15	16
Bad/very bad	5	5	6
Long-standing illness	36	37	36
Acute sickness	17	17	16
All adults			
Self-assessed health			
Very good/good	77	80	78
Fair	18	16	16
Bad/very bad	9	8	6
Long-standing illness	33	34	36
Acute sickness	16	15	15
<i>Bases (weighted):</i>			
<i>Men</i>	<i>3,902</i>	<i>3,953</i>	<i>3,187</i>
<i>Women</i>	<i>3,998</i>	<i>3,992</i>	<i>3,329</i>
<i>Adults</i>	<i>7,900</i>	<i>7,945</i>	<i>6,516</i>

Source: Scottish Health Survey.

Notes: The values for men and women were taken from the Scottish Health Survey 2003, Volume 2, Table 6.6. Percentages for adults were calculated from these. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Scottish Health Survey*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/12/02160336/03367>

7.5 MENTAL HEALTH

The section above has discussed evidence of differences between men and women in physical health and patterns of disease and mortality. This section looks at statistical information relevant to mental health and well-being. Table 7.7 below is based on a system for scoring psychological well-being which is used as part of the Scottish Health Survey, with lower scores reflecting better levels of such well-being and higher scores reflecting poorer levels. This indicates that for the three years of the survey, 1995, 1998, and 2005, more men than women reported high levels of psychological well-being, and that, conversely, more women than men reported low levels of psychological well-being. In 2003, 68% of men reported high

levels of psychological well-being compared to 61% of women, and for both men and women the proportions reporting this had increased since 1995. In the same year, 17% of women reported poor levels of psychological well-being compared to 13% of men, with the proportions of both women and men reporting this having decreased since 1995.

Table 7.7 Psychological well-being scores, 1995, 1998, 2005

All aged 16-64	1995	1998	2003
	%		
Men			
0	60	62	68
1-3	27	25	20
4 or more	13	13	13
Women			
0	55	55	61
1-3	26	26	22
4 or more	19	19	17
All			
0	57	58	64
1-3	26	26	21
4 or more	16	16	15
<i>Bases (weighted)</i>			
<i>Men</i>	3,825	3,900	3,007
<i>Women</i>	3,924	3,955	3,203
<i>Both</i>	7,749	7,855	6,210

Source: Scottish Health Survey.

Notes: The values for men and women were taken from Scottish Executive (2005b) *Scottish Health Survey 2003*, Volume 2, Table 6.6. Percentages for adults were calculated from these.

In the Scottish Health Survey, the mental health indicator used is the twelve-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ12) which consists of a list of symptoms of mental distress and is scored on a scale from zero to twelve, with higher scores reflecting the reporting of more symptoms. This questionnaire has been widely used in general population surveys in order to assess levels of potential psychological morbidity (Bowling, 1991). The generally recommended threshold score for detecting potential psychiatric morbidity is two (Goldberg and Williams, 1988). A score of four or more has been used to indicate the presence of a possible psychiatric disorder. A score of zero could be an indicator of psychological well-being.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/12/02160336/03367>

While the data from the Scottish Health Survey on self-reported psychological well-being detailed above suggest some gender differences in mental health, prevalence rates of anxiety and depression recorded by GPs suggest even greater gender differences in mental health. As Table 7.8 below shows, in 2005 female patients were more than twice as likely as male patients to be recorded as suffering from anxiety and depression. The prevalence rate for women of all ages was 90.3 per 1,000 population for anxiety and 80.0 per 1,000 population for depression, compared to 43.8 per 1,000 population and 37.4 per 1,000 population respectively for men. Both anxiety and depression were more likely to be experienced by the age groups, 25-34 years, 35-44 years, and 45-54 years, and this was true of both men and women.

Table 7.8 Anxiety and depression(1) – GP annual prevalence rates (2) per 1,000 population (3), by age, standardised for deprivation, year ending 31 March 2005 (p)

	Anxiety		Depression	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
14 years & under	5.2	7.4	0.8	1.3
15-24 years	38.5	90.4	32.1	80.1
25-34 years	65.6	122.6	54.6	124.4
35-44 years	64.6	132.8	54.9	125.2
45-54 years	54.4	120.4	49.3	107.6
55-64 years	45.9	101.6	44.0	83.2
65-74 years	33.3	77.9	30.0	62.1
75 years and over	41.1	70.2	33.4	49.4
All ages	43.8	90.3	37.4	80.0

Source: ISD Scotland, Practice Team Information (PTI).

Notes: 1. Based on ISD's Standard Morbidity Grouping (SMG) 'Anxiety and other neurotic, stress-related, and somatoform disorders' + 'Depression and other affective disorders'.

2. Based on 44 practices that provided GP data, year ending March 2005.

3. Source of population figures: Community Health Index as at 1 Sept 04.

p. Figures for 2004/05 are provisional because of the suspected changes in data recording practices of clinicians coinciding with the introduction of the new GMS contract, which may require changes in PTI data processing by ISD.

Prevalence rates (expressed as rates per 1,000 population) of both anxiety and depression have tended to increase, though with some fluctuations, as Table 7.9 below shows. This has been true for both men and women, though it has consistently been the case that anxiety and depression are more common among women.

Table 7.9 Anxiety and depression(1) - GP annual prevalence rates (2) per 1,000 population (3), by age, standardised for deprivation, year ending 31 March 2005 (p)

	Anxiety		Depression	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1998-1999	37.8	84.9	33.4	79.6
1999-2000	39.9	85.4	35.8	83.6
2000-2001	41.8	87.9	37.0	87.1
2001-2002	44.3	91.8	36.9	86.4
2002-2003	43.3	90.6	37.9	87.5
2003-2004 ^P	44.2	93.7	40.4	87.2
2004-2005 ^P	43.8	90.3	37.4	80.0

Source: ISD Scotland, Practice Team Information (PTI).

Notes: 1. Based on ISD's Standard Morbidity Grouping (SMG) 'Anxiety and other neurotic, stress-related, and somatoform disorders' + 'Depression and other affective disorders'.

2. Based on 47, 52, 60, 67, 45, and 44 practices that provided GP data, year ending 31 March 1999 to 31 March 2005 respectively.

3. Source of population figures: Community Health Index (as at 1 Sept 99, 00, 01, 02, 03, 04).

p. Figures for 2004/05 are provisional because of the suspected changes in data recording practices of clinicians coinciding with the introduction of the new GMS contract, which may require changes in PTI data processing by ISD.

[All figures for 2003/2004 & 2004/05 are provisional only, because the datasets for these years are currently under review.]

While women are more prone to affective disorders, such as anxiety and depression as noted above, men are more likely to commit suicide, as Table 7.10 below indicates. In 2005, the suicide rate for males was 21.5 per 100,000 compared to 7.8 per 100,000 for females. This

was a decrease of 3.3 per 100,000 for males compared to 1995, though in the intervening period the male suicide rate had reached a peak of 27.1 per 100,000 in 2002. The fluctuations in the female suicide rate were much smaller over this period, remaining between 7.5 per 100,000 and 8.2 per 100,000.

Table 7.10 Suicide mortality rate per 100,000 all age (standardised to the European population), 1995-2005

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Males											
all ages	24.8	24.4	26.0	25.7	26.4	27.0	25.8	27.1	22.9	23.8	21.5
Females											
all ages	7.7	8.1	8.0	8.2	7.6	7.5	8.7	8.1	8.0	8.1	7.8
Both sexes											
all ages	16.2	16.2	17.0	16.9	17.0	17.3	17.3	17.6	15.4	15.9	14.6

Source: GRO Scotland, SEHD-ASD.

Note that the figures below (calculated by the Scottish Executive Health Department Analytical Services Division) differ slightly from those published on the Scottish Public Health Observatory (ScotPho) website. The differences are observed only for the rates for both sexes combined.

7.6 REPRODUCTIVE AND SEXUAL HEALTH

The majority of data in this section on reproductive and sexual health are specific to women, with the exception of data on sexually transmitted infections. While this means, of course, that there are no gender comparisons as such to be made, these data are included here because they are relevant to significant aspects of women's health and of health service provision for meeting women's needs.

The changing age profile of women at the time of first birth has been discussed in Chapter One on Population, Households and Families, which outlined both the overall decline in fertility and the tendency for births to be delayed until an older age. Table 7.11 below similarly illustrates these trends, with the absolute number of births in any one year reaching a peak at 68,848 in 1981 and declining to 52,974 in 2005. At the same time the shift towards older motherhood is discernible, with the absolute number of births to mothers aged between 35-39 being 3176 in 1976 compared to 8856 in 2005, and for mothers aged between 40-44 being 744 in 1976 compared to 1643 in 2005. Births to the oldest age group of mothers, those aged 45+, in the period between 1976 experienced a decline until the mid 1990s and then have increased again, though actual numbers are very small. While there is continuing concern about rates of teenage pregnancy in Scotland, the absolute numbers of births to teenage mothers in any one year have declined from 8080 in 1976 to 4113 in 2005.

Table 7.11 All births ^{1,2} by age of mother, year ending 31 March, 1976 to 2005

Year	All ³	Under 20	20 - 24	25 - 29	30 - 34	35 - 39	40 - 44	45 +
1976	66,481	8,080	22,277	23,173	8,962	3,176	744	69
1977	62,300	7,204	20,296	22,342	8,982	2,781	649	46
1978	62,199	7,013	20,609	21,439	9,770	2,721	609	38
1979	64,904	7,072	21,214	22,194	10,994	2,834	564	32
1980	67,319	7,122	21,580	23,118	11,785	3,069	606	39
1981	68,848	7,080	22,896	23,101	12,026	3,140	574	31
1982	67,453	6,775	22,322	22,709	11,833	3,210	573	31
1983	64,974	6,703	21,557	21,598	11,123	3,447	516	30
1984	64,398	6,247	20,891	22,062	11,173	3,483	523	19
1985	65,287	6,421	20,785	22,982	11,057	3,468	543	31
1986	65,489	6,489	20,281	23,007	11,526	3,641	523	22
1987	65,490	6,352	19,747	23,189	12,046	3,599	529	28
1988	66,577	6,464	19,519	23,722	12,617	3,715	512	28
1989	64,962	6,015	18,235	23,493	12,765	3,889	541	24
1990	63,712	5,711	17,072	23,017	13,397	3,880	605	30
1991	65,937	5,664	16,732	24,149	14,516	4,227	625	24
1992	66,709	5,473	16,438	24,068	15,357	4,627	710	36
1993	64,437	5,007	14,977	23,115	15,714	4,873	729	22
1994	62,762	4,679	13,464	22,467	16,302	5,107	721	22
1995	60,671	4,280	12,438	21,338	16,476	5,394	718	27
1996	59,344	4,333	11,567	19,914	16,819	5,809	874	28
1997	58,323	4,561	10,821	19,053	16,878	6,139	845	26
1998	58,389	4,855	10,229	18,218	17,360	6,727	965	29
1999	56,589	4,851	9,704	17,057	16,937	6,972	1,024	39
2000 ^r	54,114	4,739	9,270	15,503	16,458	7,012	1,100	32
2001 ^r	52,595	4,579	8,954	14,430	16,069	7,386	1,141	36
2002 ^r	50,858	4,233	8,977	13,081	15,844	7,471	1,209	43
2003 ^r	51,010	4,219	9,351	12,565	15,795	7,785	1,255	40
2004 ^r	52,657	4,146	9,700	12,866	16,035	8,388	1,482	40
2005 ^p	52,974	4,113	9,689	12,894	15,720	8,856	1,643	59

Source: SMR02. ISD Scotland. (2006b) *Births and Babies*, 2006.

Notes: 1. Excludes home births and births at non-NHS hospitals.

2. Where four or more babies are involved in a pregnancy, birth details are recorded only for the first three babies delivered.

3. Includes births where age of mother is unknown.

r – revised

p – provisional

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/info3.jsp?pContentID=1018&p_applic=CCC&p_service=Content.show&

Breastfeeding is regarded as being beneficial for the health of infants and as conferring long term protection in terms of immunities on children. Historically, Scotland has experienced low levels of breastfeeding compared to England and Wales, and it is an aim of health policy to encourage more women to breastfeed. Table 7.12 below indicates the levels of breastfeeding recorded at the first visit to mothers from 1999 to 2005. This shows that for all health boards in Scotland overall there was an increase from 42.7% of babies being breastfed in 1999 to 45.1% in 2005. There are significant regional variations in the levels of breastfeeding across Scotland, from 58.2% of all babies in Lothian to 33.4% of all babies in Lanarkshire in 2005.

Table 7.12 Percentage recorded as breastfed¹ at the first visit² by NHS Board of residence and year of birth, 1999 to 2005

Year of Birth	Argyll & Clyde	Ayrshire & Arran	Borders	Dumfries & Galloway	Fife	Forth Valley	Greater Glasgow	Lanarkshire	Lothian	Tayside	All HBs on System ³
1999	38.8	38.0	56.3	-	44.6	38.7	39.5	32.0	53.3	48.8	42.7
2000	38.6	40.1	54.4	-	42.2	40.0	41.3	31.4	56.3	48.9	43.7
2001	39.4	38.4	57.3	44.0	41.9	38.5	40.2	30.0	54.3	48.5	42.6
2002	39.4	39.0	56.0	45.8	45.8	41.1	42.9	33.4	56.9	48.8	44.6
2003	39.4	37.8	56.1	45.8	46.1	41.7	41.6	32.7	57.7	48.5	44.5
2004	38.3	39.1	57.6	46.2	45.4	40.6	42.2	32.9	57.2	46.7	44.1
2005 ^p	37.4	41.6	54.6	43.9	47.0	44.1	43.0	33.4	58.2	48.0	45.1

Source: ISD Scotland. CHSP-PS. February 2006. ISD Scotland (2006c) *Breastfeeding*, 2006.

Notes: 1. Exclusively breast fed or fed mixed breast and bottle.

2. Missing or unknown data excluded.

3. There are a small number of children who are resident outwith the 10 NHS Boards shown however they are registered with a practice who participates in the pre-school system and have therefore been included in the total.

p - provisional

<http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/1761.html>

Table 7.13 below indicates both the numbers of pregnancies of teenagers (at age of conception) and the rate of teenage pregnancies between 1991/92 and 2003/04. As might be expected the numbers increase with age, with the number of conceptions occurring in young teenagers being very small, and much greater for those aged 17-19. (It should be noted that statistics on teenage pregnancies in Scotland include miscarriage, unlike statistics for England and Wales). For all age groups, except 14 year olds, the number of conceptions was lower in 2003/04 than in 1991/92, though there were some fluctuations in numbers in particular groups rather than a steady decline. Similarly, the rates of teenage pregnancies for all age groups except 14 year olds were lower in 2003/04 than in 1991/92, again with some fluctuations in the intervening period. The teenage pregnancy rate for ages 13-19 overall for the year 2003/04 was 42.4 per 1,000, with there being very little change from the rate of 42.1 in 2002/03, which was the lowest rate since 1995/96, when it stood at 42.0, having fallen from 50.1 per 1000 in 1991/92 (ISD Scotland, 2006d).

Table 7.13 Teenage pregnancies by age of mother at conception, 1991/92 to 2003/04 by age of mother at conception (Numbers and rates per 1,000 population)

Year end March	Age of mother at conception						
	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	Numbers						
1991/92	22	141	566	1,533	2,361	3,057	3,508
1992/93	31	165	603	1,397	2,217	2,771	3,126
1993/94	37	166	525	1,315	2,113	2,612	2,887
1994/95	38	179	629	1,358	1,835	2,438	2,688
1995/96	27	192	600	1,348	1,874	2,337	2,681
1996/97	45	231	651	1,505	2,105	2,407	2,551
1997/98	29	156	627	1,575	2,176	2,539	2,595
1998/99	32	160	649	1,575	2,225	2,673	2,718
1999/00	15	166	534	1,374	2,277	2,676	2,835
2000/01	38	187	559	1,343	2,066	2,664	2,852
2001/02	27	139	526	1,378	2,022	2,513	2,874
2002/03	26	148	529	1,427	2,036	2,447	2,611
2003/04 ^p	15	164	527	1,353	2,076	2,489	2,698
	Rates¹						
1991/92	0.8	5.0	18.3	48.5	73.5	89.7	94.2
1992/93	1.0	5.7	21.3	45.4	70.4	87.1	89.5
1993/94	1.2	5.4	18.1	46.5	68.9	83.3	87.6
1994/95	1.2	5.6	20.5	46.8	64.9	79.5	82.3
1995/96	0.9	5.9	18.7	44.0	64.9	82.6	83.4
1996/97	1.5	7.4	20.1	47.0	69.0	83.7	86.4
1997/98	1.0	5.1	20.1	48.9	68.1	83.7	86.3
1998/99	1.0	5.3	21.2	50.6	69.4	84.5	85.6
1999/00	0.5	5.2	17.6	45.1	73.6	83.7	85.2
2000/01	1.2	5.9	17.4	44.2	68.0	86.2	85.6
2001/02	0.9	4.4	16.5	42.9	66.7	83.3	90.1
2002/03 ^p	0.8	4.7	16.7	44.7	63.8	81.7	84.4
2003/04 ^p	0.5	5.3	16.6	42.7	65.2	78.3	87.1

Source: Source: SMR01 & SMR02. ISD Scotland (2006d) *Teenage Pregnancy*, 2006.

1 - Rates per 1,000 women in each age or age group in each year.

p - Provisional.

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/info3.jsp?pContentID=2071&p_applic=CCC&p_service=Content.show&

Table 7.14 below indicates the numbers and rates of abortions between 1968 and 2005 by age group. The abortion rate (per 1000 women aged 15-44) has risen from 1.5 in 1968 (the year after the Abortion Act was passed) to 11.9 in 2005, and has been fairly stable from the mid 1990s onwards. In 2005, the largest numbers of abortions were in the age groups of under 20, 20-24 and 25-29, though considerable numbers of older women were also having abortions.

Table 7.14 Abortions(1) by age group: 1968-2005

Year End March	Total Number	Rate ²	Age Group						Not Known Number
			Under 20	20 - 24	25 - 29	30 - 34	35 - 39	40+	
1968	1,544	1.5	226	306	278	309	287	123	15
1970	5,254	5.1	936	1,233	887	915	821	408	54
1980	7,905	7.3	2,366	2,193	1,256	1,013	714	363	-
1990	10,219	9.1	2,779	3,242	2,063	1,161	700	274	-
1995	11,143	10.1	2,481	3,399	2,438	1,609	887	329	-
1996	11,978	10.9	2,685	3,571	2,603	1,801	960	358	-
1997	12,109	11.1	2,720	3,444	2,651	1,854	1,093	347	-
1998	12,485	11.5	2,993	3,426	2,749	1,807	1,149	361	-
1999	12,168	11.2	2,886	3,354	2,554	1,810	1,180	384	-
2000	11,997	11.1	2,884	3,355	2,403	1,769	1,177	409	-
2001	12,128	11.3	2,998	3,462	2,322	1,818	1,127	401	-
2002	11,870	11.1	2,926	3,453	2,172	1,736	1,171	411	1
2003 ^r	12,306	11.6	3,103	3,690	2,233	1,726	1,113	441	-
2004 ^r	12,461	11.8	3,218	3,703	2,269	1,666	1,186	417	2
2005 ^p	12,603	11.9	3,304	3,761	2,329	1,684	1,101	424	-

Source: Notifications (to the Chief Medical Officer for Scotland) of abortions performed under the Abortion Act 1967. ISD Scotland (2006e) *Abortions (terminations of pregnancy)*, 2006.

Notes: 1. Refers to therapeutic abortions notified in accordance with the Abortion Act 1967.

2. Rate per 1000 women aged 15-44.

r - Revised.

p - Provisional.

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/info3.jsp?pContentID=1918&p_applic=CCC&p_service=Content.show&

Sexual health is a growing area of public health concern, as the incidence of sexually transmitted infections has been increasing in recent years. Table 7.15 below indicates the prevalence of different types of sexually transmitted infections for men and women. This suggests that conditions such as Chlamydia and Genital Warts are particularly common, with men in the 20-24 and 25-34 age groups and women in the 15-19 and 20-24 age groups being most likely to have these infections.

Table 7.15 Sexually Transmitted Infections diagnosed at Scottish GUM clinics; by diagnostic group and sex, 2005

	All ages ¹	Age group				
		15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-64
Males						
Acute STIs						
Infectious syphilis	178	6	25	57	65	24
Gonorrhoea	649	71	185	200	139	50
Chlamydia	4,112	741	1,846	1,113	311	93
Genital herpes, first episode	505	37	132	168	107	56
Genital warts, first episode	3,454	437	1,295	1,080	431	195
NSGI(non-chlamydial)	1,740	204	538	556	299	135
Trichomoniasis	47	2	3	12	14	15
HIV infection, newly diagnosed	94	-	11	34	36	12
Other acute STI	718	85	268	228	89	43
Other STI's						
Other acquired syphilis	37	-	-	10	10	11
Congenital syphilis	-	-	-	-	-	-
Genital herpes, recurrence	417	4	45	147	128	89
Genital warts, recurrence/reregistered	2,112	88	583	869	408	156
Females						
Acute STIs						
Infectious syphilis	10	-	-	-	-	-
Gonorrhoea	185	52	72	41	14	5
Chlamydia	3,983	1,646	1,600	605	90	19
Genital herpes, first episode	827	197	241	213	113	59
Genital warts, first episode	2,997	912	1,016	679	278	94
NSGI(non-chlamydial)	273	74	106	58	26	6
Trichomoniasis	80	14	15	25	10	14
HIV infection, newly diagnosed	17	-	-	-	11	-
Other acute STI	269	64	111	71	18	4
Other STI's						
Other acquired syphilis	10	-	-	5	-	-
Congenital syphilis	-	-	-	-	-	-
Genital herpes, recurrence	419	34	87	139	100	56
Genital warts, recurrence/reregistered	1,291	171	423	436	193	63

Source: ISD Scotland – STISS. ISD Scotland (2006f) *Sexual Health*, 2006.

Notes: 1. Includes cases where age was not recorded.

Data in this table relates either to a count of diagnoses or patient episodes. It is possible for more than one diagnosis to be reported for any single patient episode.

Totals may not add up as there are also a small number of diagnoses made for patients in the under 15 and over 65 age groups.

'-' less than 5.

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/info3.jsp?pContentID=358&p_applic=CCC&p_service=Content.show&

7.7 HEALTH BEHAVIOURS

Health behaviours are also a prominent area of policy concern, since there are considerable costs associated with certain forms of behaviour in terms of the health of individuals and in terms of service provision required to provide treatments for illnesses associated with these behaviours. In particular, smoking, alcohol consumption, diet and physical exercise, are crucial in terms of their impact on the health of individuals. This section examines evidence of gender differences relevant to these behaviours.

Data from the Scottish Health Survey for 1995, 1998 and 2003, shown in Table 7.16 below indicate gender differences in patterns of smoking and changes over time. Women were more likely than men never to have smoked at all, with 48% of women saying this compared to 43% of men in 2003. Men were more likely to have been regular smokers, with 24% saying this compared to 20% of women in 2003. However, the proportions of men and women saying they were current smokers were almost the same in 2003, 29% compared to 28%. For men and women there was an increase in the proportion saying they had never smoked and an increase in the proportion saying they used to be regular smokers between 1995 and 2003, and a decrease for both men and women in the proportion who were current smokers in the same period.

Table 7.16 Cigarette smoking status by sex, 1995, 1998, 2003

All aged 16+	1995	1998	2003
	%		
Men			
Never smoked cigarettes at all	31	34	43
Used to smoke cigarettes occasionally	12	8	3
Used to smoke cigarettes regularly	18	20	24
Current cigarette smoker	39	38	29
Women			
Never smoked cigarettes at all	38	42	48
Used to smoke cigarettes occasionally	10	8	5
Used to smoke cigarettes regularly	16	18	20
Current cigarette smoker	36	33	28
All adults			
Never smoked cigarettes at all	35	38	46
Used to smoke cigarettes occasionally	11	8	4
Used to smoke cigarettes regularly	17	19	22
Current cigarette smoker	37	35	28
<i>Bases (weighted):</i>			
<i>Men</i>	3,902	4,406	3,819
<i>Women</i>	3,992	4,550	4,267
<i>All adults</i>	7,894	8,956	8,086

Source: Scottish Health Survey.

Notes: The values for men and women were taken from the Scottish Health Survey 1995, 1998 and 2003. Percentages for adults were calculated from these.

Table 7.17 below, drawn from the Scottish Household Survey (the preferred data source for national smoking prevalence rates), similarly indicates the decline in the proportions of both men and women who smoke, with this decreasing from 31% in 1999 for men to 26% in 2005, and from 30% to 26% for women in the same period.

Table 7.17 Prevalence of smoking, 1999-2005

All aged 16+	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
	%						
Men	31	30	29	28	28	28	26
Women	30	28	28	28	28	26	26
Both	30	29	28	28	28	27	26
<i>Bases</i>							
<i>Men</i>	6,250	6,624	6,476	6,193	6,227	6,495	6,255
<i>Women</i>	7,530	7,928	8,155	7,839	7,729	8,277	7,795
<i>Both</i>	13,781	14,552	14,631	14,032	13,956	14,772	14,050

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Data from the Scottish Health Survey on alcohol consumption levels, shown in Table 7.18 below, indicates that for men there has been a decline in the proportion of men consuming over the recommended weekly limit of 21 units, from 33% in 1995 to 27% in 2003. In the same period there has been a very slight increase in the proportion of women consuming over the recommended weekly limit of 14 units, from 13% in 1995 to 14% in 2003.

Table 7.18 Estimated usual weekly alcohol consumption level, 1995, 1998, 2003

All aged 16+	1995	1998	2003
	%		
Men			
Over 21 units	33	32	27
Over 50 units	8	7	6
Mean units per week	21.3	19.1	17.2
Women			
Over 14 units	13	14	14
Over 35 units	1	2	2
Mean units per week	7	6.5	6.5
All adults			
Over 14/21 units	23	23	20
Over 35/50 units	4	4	4
Mean units per week	12.4	11.9	10.9
<i>Bases (weighted):</i>			
<i>Men</i>	3,884	4,363	3,780
<i>Women</i>	3,985	4,527	4,209
<i>All adults</i>	7,869	8,890	7,988

Source: Scottish Health Survey.

Notes: The values for men and women were taken from the Scottish Health Survey 1995, 1998 and 2003. Percentages for adults were calculated from these. Mean units per week for all adults were calculated from raw data files for 1998 and 1995. In the UK a 'unit of alcohol' is 10 ml of pure alcohol. Some examples of what units of alcohol are equal to are: half a pint of ordinary beer, lager or cider (3-4% alcohol by volume) are equal to one unit; a glass (175 ml) of wine at 12% is about 2 units; a standard pub measure (35ml) of spirits (40% alcohol by volume) is one and a half units.

Both men and women reported improvements to their diets in terms of increased consumption of fruit and vegetables between 1996 and 2004, as indicated in Table 7.19 below. The proportion of men saying they ate at least 5 portions of fruit and vegetables a day increased from 14% in 1996 to 27% in 2004, while for women the proportion increased from 22% in 1996 to 39% in 2004. This represents a faster rate of increase for women, as well as a significantly greater proportion of women and men consuming the recommended levels of fruit and vegetables.

Table 7.19 Percentage eating at least 5 portions of fruit and vegetables per day, 1996-2004

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Men	14	17	16	22		16	21	21	27
Women	22	25	28	27		29	36	36	39
Both sexes	18	21	22	24		23	28	29	33
<i>Base (all respondents)</i>	<i>1,810</i>	<i>1,795</i>	<i>1,794</i>	<i>880</i>		<i>1,757</i>	<i>1,742</i>	<i>1,720</i>	<i>1,784</i>

Source: Health Education Population Survey.

Notes: No survey results for 2000.

While Table 7.19 above indicates a trend towards improvement in diet for both women and men, data from the Scottish Health Survey (the preferred data source for national information on diet) indicate lower levels of consumption of fruit and vegetables, as shown in Table 7.20 below. These data also suggests that the differences between women and men are much smaller than indicated by the Health Education Population Survey, although women are slightly more likely than men to consume the recommended number of portions of fruit and vegetables per day.

Table 7.20 Fruit and vegetable consumption (portions per day) by sex, 2003 (percentages)

All aged 16+	Men	Women	All adults
None	11	9	10
Less than 1	5	5	5
1>2	20	19	20
2>3	18	17	18
3>4	15	16	16
4>5	11	12	11
5+	20	22	21
<i>Mean</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3.2</i>	<i>3.1</i>
<i>Bases (weighted):</i>	<i>3,857</i>	<i>4,291</i>	<i>8,148</i>

Source: Scottish Health Survey 2003

Although the Health Education Population Survey data on diet indicate that this is improving for both women and men, at the same time the proportion of people who are overweight or obese has been increasing. The proportion of men who were either overweight or obese increased from 55.6% in 1995 to 65.4% in 2003, compared to the proportion of women who were either overweight or obese increasing from 47.2% in 1995 to 59.7% in 2003, as

indicated in Table 7.21 below. In 2003, 22.4% of men were classified as obese, compared with 26% of women. While overall a greater proportion of men were overweight or obese, the rate of increase in the proportions of those being overweight or obese in this period was faster for women.

Table 7.21 Body mass index (BMI), 1995, 1998, 2003

All aged 16+ with valid BMI measurement	1995	1998	2003
Column Percentages			
Men			
All over 25 (overweight, including obese)	56	62	65
All over 30 (obese)	16	20	22
Mean BMI	26	26.5	27
Women			
All over 25 (overweight, including obese)	47	54	60
All over 30 (obese)	17	22	26
Mean BMI	25.7	26.5	27.2
All adults			
All over 25 (overweight, including obese)	51	58	62
All over 30 (obese)	17	21	24
<i>Bases (weighted):</i>			
<i>Men</i>	3,672	4,080	3,217
<i>Women</i>	3,632	4,074	3,458
<i>All adults</i>	7,304	8,154	6,675

Source: Scottish Health Survey

Table 7.22 Physical activity, walking, and sedentary, 1996-2004

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Percentage achieving recommended levels of physical activity									
All	36	39	36	39	-	36	42	43	39
Men	41	50	41	46	-	43	50	49	46
Women	31	29	31	32	-	30	36	37	32
Percentage walking at least 30 minutes per day, by sex									
All	63	64	63	56	-	64	61	59	63
Men	65	67	68	56	-	69	64	62	66
Women	61	60	59	55	-	60	59	57	61
Percentage who are sedentary, by sex									
All	35	34	35	34	-	35	29	30	30
Men	34	28	33	27	-	35	26	26	29
Women	35	39	37	40	-	36	31	34	32

Source: Health Education Population Survey.

Notes: No survey results for 2000.

Related to levels of obesity are the levels of physical exercise achieved by women and men. Table 7.22 above indicates that between 1996 and 2004, the proportions of both men and women who are sedentary have declined, from 34% to 29% for men and from 35% to 32% for women. The proportions of those walking at least 30 minutes a day had fluctuated somewhat over this period though were at similar levels in 1996 and 2004. Men were more likely than

women to walk at least 30 minutes a day, 66% compared to 61% in 2004. Thus women are slightly more likely to be sedentary and less likely to walk at least 30 minutes a day. The most striking difference between men and women, however, is in respect of the proportions achieving recommended levels of physical activity, with 46% of men doing so in 2004 compared to 32% of women.

Data from the Scottish Household Survey (the preferred data source for national information on physical activity), as shown in Table 7.23 below, also indicates the differences between men and women in levels of physical activity. In 2003, women were less likely than men to have a high level of physical activity, 30% of women compared to 42% of men, while they were more likely than men to have a medium or low level of physical activity, 35% compared to 28% and 35% compared to 30% respectively.

Table 7.23 Summary physical activity levels(1), by sex, 2003 (percentages)

All aged 16+	Men	Women	All adults
Low	30	35	32
Medium	28	35	32
High	42	30	36
<i>Bases (weighted):</i>	<i>3,857</i>	<i>4,291</i>	<i>8,148</i>

Source: Scottish Health Survey, 2003.

1. Summary measures of physical activity level have been created to classify informants in line with current physical activity guidelines. According to these, adults should accumulate 30 minutes or more of moderate to vigorous physical activity on at least five days a week. This summary classification employs the following three levels for activity in the past four weeks:
 Low activity: Up to three occasions of moderate or vigorous activity of at least 30 minutes' duration in the last four weeks (less than once a week);
 Medium activity: 4 to 19 occasions of moderate or vigorous activity of at least 30 minutes' duration in the last four weeks (one to four days a week);
 High activity: 20 or more occasions of moderate or vigorous activity of at least 30 minutes' duration in the last four weeks (at least five days a week).

7.8 USE OF SELECTED SERVICES

Given that there are gender specific health needs related to biological differences, there are gender specific services to meet these needs. Of particular significance for women are those screening services designed to detect signs of cervical cancer and of breast cancer. Data on screening services indicates the proportion of the eligible population who take up the service. Table 7.24 below indicates that percentage uptake for cervical screening for women aged 20-60, for screening 3.5 years and 5.5 years after their first smear test. This shows that there is a generally high level of uptake, with a large majority of eligible women taking up this service, though with some fluctuations in take up over time. While levels of take up are generally high there are also regional variations in take up across Scotland.

Table 7.24 Percentage uptake for cervical screening by Health Board: females aged 20-60(1), Scotland: 1995, 2001/02, 2005/06

Screened in the Last:	1995		2001/2002		2005/2006	
	3.5 Years	5.5 Years	3.5 Years	5.5 Years	3.5 Years	5.5 Years
	%					
Scotland ³	78	86	82	87	78	84
NHS Board of Residence						
Argyll & Clyde	77	85	81	86	76	82
Ayrshire & Arran	81	88	85	89	80	86
Borders	87	92	87	90	86	89
Dumfries & Galloway	87	92	88	92	85	89
Fife	79	84	79	85	75	83
Forth Valley	78	86	83	88	78	85
Grampian	84	89	85	90	81	86
Greater Glasgow	72	81	78	82	75	81
Highland	88	98	86	89	83	87
Lanarkshire	74	84	81	85	78	83
Lothian ⁴	..	87
Orkney	89	93	91	93	85	89
Shetland	86	91	89	92	86	90
Tayside	78	84	81	87	75	83
Western Isles	78	86	84	88	83	87

Source: ISD Scotland. ISD Scotland (2006a) *Cervical Screening*, 2006.

'..' not available

Notes: 1. Based on adjusted Community Health Index (CHI) population denominator (20-59 years, excluding medically ineligible women, for years 1995 to 1996 and 20-60 years, excluding medically ineligible women, for year 1997/1998 onwards).

2. From 1998, data are for year ending 31 March.

3. Excludes Lothian NHS Board (data unavailable/calculated on a different basis).

4. Figures are derived from GP self-reporting claim forms submitted to Primary Care Finance in support of claims for target payments.

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/servlet/FileBuffer?namedFile=change_in_incidence_0606.xls&pContentDispositionType=inline

Data on take up of breast screening programmes, as shown in Table 7.25 below, also indicate high levels of take up of this service, with three-quarters of all eligible women taking up the service in 2004/05. The proportion of eligible women taking up the service had increased from 69% in 1994/95.

Table 7.25 Breast screening programme: attendance by appointment type (1),(2),(3),(4) : Scotland, 1999/00, 1994/95, 2004/05.

		1999/00	1994/95	2004/05
Routine appointments	Number invited	146,490	140,804	191,418
	Number screened	107,681	97,568	143,773
	% uptake	74	69	75
Early Recall	Number screened	673	1,488	114
Self / GP Referral	Number screened	12,026	4,040	11,697
All Appointment Types	Number screened	120,380	103,096	155,584

Source: SBSP Information System, KC62 returns and Revised KC62 returns. ISD Scotland (2006g). *Breast Screening*, 2006.

1. Figures are for women of all ages.
2. Early recalls and self/GP referrals are non-routine appointments and so number invited and % uptake have not been given.
3. In the calculation of the uptake rates, figures for returned post are included in the denominator.
4. During 2003/04, a phased extension of the age range for routine invitation (from 50-64 to 50-70 years) began.

<http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/1622.html>

There are some gender differences in the use made of health services. Table 7.26 below indicates the numbers and rates of hospital admissions and appointments for women and men for selected years. Men were slightly more likely than women to be inpatients in hospital, at 169 per 1000 of the male population compared to 166 per 1000 of the female population in 2005, a pattern similar to that for 1995 and 2000. Women were more likely than men to be day patients, at 79 per 1000 of the female population compared to 69 per 1000 of the male population in 2005, also a similar pattern to 1995 and 2000. Women were also more likely than men to be outpatients, at a rate of 317 per 1000 of the female population compared to 242 per 1000 of the male population in 2005, a pattern also similar to the previous years of 1995 and 2000.

Table 7.26 Hospital admissions and appointments (1), 1995, 2000, 2005

	1995		2000		2005	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Number						
Admissions						
Inpatients	409,612	428,571	404,508	418,006	415,254	436,911
Rate per 1,000 pop ⁽²⁾	167	162	166	159	169	166
Day cases	143,147	163,974	185,811	218,097	169,408	208,882
Rate per 1,000 pop ⁽²⁾	58	62	76	83	69	79
Appointments						
First outpatient appointment ^{(3), (4)}	551,866	769,996	596,958	823,689	594,195	836,693
Rate per 1,000 pop ⁽²⁾	225	291	245	313	242	317

Source: For Admissions - SMR1 & SMR01; for Appointments - SMRO & SMR00.

1. Data applies to calendar years for 1995, 2000 & 2005.
2. Population numbers used are mid-year population estimates.
3. Appointments are for New Outpatients only.
4. Appointment numbers are for all patients seen, those who could not wait and those who did not attend.

Women are more likely than men to consult their GPs, as Table 7.27 below indicates. This shows that for 2004/05 the overall consultation rate for all female patients was 3,300 per 1,000 population, or 3.3 consultations with a GP in the year, compared to a rate for all male patients of 2,150 or 2.15 consultations with a GP in the year. The pattern of women making more frequent consultations with GPs is consistent for all years from 1998/99 to 2004/05. There are also some differences in rates of consultation by age. For males the frequency of consultation is greatest for children aged 0-4 and for older age groups, from 55 years and over. For females the frequency of consultation is greatest for the older age groups, from 65 years and over, but there is also a relatively high frequency of consultations for women in the 25-34 age group.

Table 7.27 GP annual consultation rates per 1000 population (1),(2), and estimated number of consultations for Scotland (3), by age group and standardised by deprivation, 1998/1999-2004/2005

	Age group	1998/1999		2000/2001		2002/2003		2004/2005(p)	
		Scottish estimate	Rate	Scottish estimate	Rate	Scottish estimate	Rate	Scottish estimate	Rate
Males	0-4	608,100	4,100	540,700	3,800	498,850	3,600	436,250	3,200
	5-14	547,800	1,650	502,200	1,500	444,450	1,350	380,300	1,200
	15-24	619,850	1,850	600,100	1,750	555,200	1,600	504,100	1,450
	25-34	780,700	1,850	753,700	1,850	712,850	1,800	627,800	1,650
	35-44	825,350	1,950	870,450	2,050	848,250	1,950	797,600	1,800
	45-54	862,650	2,400	871,550	2,400	841,750	2,300	765,600	2,050
	55-64	886,800	3,250	874,250	3,150	882,950	3,000	860,850	2,800
	65-74	811,700	3,950	822,900	4,000	789,600	3,800	762,100	3,650
	75+	611,400	4,850	618,950	4,800	628,800	4,750	613,850	4,550
	All ages⁴	6,554,300	2,500	6,454,800	2,450	6,202,750	2,350	5,748,500	2,150
Females	0-4	524,600	3,750	467,950	3,450	429,750	3,250	371,250	2,850
	5-14	602,600	1,900	536,400	1,700	481,950	1,550	414,600	1,350
	15-24	1,281,100	3,900	1,196,400	3,600	1,174,000	3,450	1,043,350	3,050
	25-34	1,723,750	4,300	1,573,900	4,000	1,402,950	3,750	1,217,350	3,450
	35-44	1,486,000	3,700	1,494,800	3,650	1,470,400	3,500	1,355,400	3,200
	45-54	1,404,000	4,050	1,383,300	3,950	1,321,450	3,750	1,217,100	3,400
	55-64	1,196,100	4,200	1,195,850	4,200	1,210,850	4,050	1,167,000	3,750
	65-74	1,132,300	4,550	1,132,100	4,550	1,091,350	4,400	1,041,450	4,200
	75+	1,190,150	5,050	1,179,800	4,950	1,127,950	4,750	1,074,350	4,550
	All ages⁴	10,540,600	3,900	10,160,450	3,750	9,710,650	3,600	8,901,850	3,300

Source: ISD Scotland. Practice Team Information (PTI).

1. Based on 47, 60, 64, and 44 practices that provided GP data, year ending 31 March 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, respectively.
2. Source of the population data: Community Health Index (CHI), ISD Scotland.
3. Figures are rounded to nearest 50.
4. Figures derived from the all ages rate and population and do not equal the sum of the estimated numbers, due to rounding.
- p. Figures fro 2004/05 are provisional because of the suspected changes in the data recording practices of clinicians coinciding with introduction of the new GMS contract, which require changes in PTI data processing by ISD.

7.9 HEALTH WORKFORCE

As noted in Chapter Four on the labour market, women make up a significant proportion of employees in public sector professions and overall workforces. Women make up the majority of health service employees, though the gender balance varies between occupations within the health service.

Table 7.28 below shows the gender balance among General Practitioners for 1995 and 2005. In 1995 women were 34.8% of all GPs, while by 2005 this proportion had risen to 45.7%. Men were more likely to occupy senior positions within General Practices, with men making up 67.8% of all Performer GPs¹ in 1995 and 58.8% in 2005. Conversely women were more likely to be Performer Registrars (or trainees), making up 59.6% in 1995 and 57.7% in 2005.

Table 7.28 Number of General Practitioners, by performer type, 1995 and 2005(1)

	1995				2005			
	All	Male	Female	% Female	All	Male	Female	% Female
All GPs ²	3,879	2,531	1,348	34.8	4,538	2,466	2,072	45.7
Performer ³	3,534	2,397	1,137	32.2	3,804	2,238	1,566	41.2
Performer salaried ⁴	66	23	43	65.2	246	98	148	60.2
Performer registrar ⁵	282	114	168	59.6	307	130	177	57.7
Performer retaineer	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	207	7	200	96.6

Source: 2005 data: GP contractor database (GPCD). 1995 data: GMP database, ISD Scotland. ISD Scotland (2006h) *Workforce Statistics*, 2006.

n/a - not applicable.

1. Data for 1995 is at 1 October, Data for 2005 is at 30 September.

2. The 'all GPs' total comprises actual headcount of GPs, rather than GPs 'posts' therefore it does not add up to the sum of the different types of GP.

3. Comprises unrestricted and restricted principals in 1995.

4. Comprises assistant and associate GPs in 1995. Includes paediatric fellows.

5. Comprises GP trainees in 1995.

http://www.isdscotland.org/isd/info3.jsp?pContentID=1344&p_applic=CCC&p_service=Content.show&

That there are significant variations in the gender balance within different occupations in the NHS workforce is illustrated in Table 7.29 below. While the majority of NHS dentists and HCHS medical and dental staff in 2005 were men, at 59% and 57% respectively, women made up 90% of nursing staff and midwifery staff, 89% of therapeutic staff, 81% of pharmacy staff, and 76% of administrative staff. While there has been a slight increase in the proportion of women in the dental and medical staff categories, overall change in the gender balance of occupational categories in the NHS between 1996 and 2005 has been very limited.

¹ A GP performer may hold more than one appointment in the general medical service. 'Performer' replaces the previous category 'GP Principal'; 'Performer Registrar' replaces 'GP Registrar'; 'Performer Salaried' replaces 'Other GP' (comprises of assistants, associates, salaried doctors).

Table 7.29 NHSScotland workforce, by contract type, 1996-2005

	1996		1997		1998		1999		2000	
	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total
All staff	135,404		134,675		134,092		135,069		135,431	
All medical staff	11,360		11,734		11,899		12,135		12,183	
All dentists	2,322	33	2,359	35	2,412	35	2,464	36	2,465	37
HCHS medical and dental staff ¹	8,699	38	9,018	38	9,081	39	9,273	39	9,325	40
General medical service ³	3,874	35	3,939	37	4,025	38	4,073	39	4,254	42
General dental service	1,871	32	1,913	33	1,955	33	1,999	34	2,002	35
Nursing and midwifery staff	62,477	91	61,961	90	61,374	90	61,644	90	61,579	90
Therapeutic, Healthcare Science, Technical, Pharmacy and Ambulance Staff	17,372	70	17,905	71	18,246	71	18,935	72	19,219	73
Therapeutic Staff	7,989	90	8,408	91	8,630	90	9,033	90	9,232	90
Healthcare Science Staff	3,219	58	3,252	59	3,247	60	3,363	61	3,365	62
Technical Staff	2,594	67	2,627	67	2,671	67	2,747	67	2,762	68
Pharmacy Staff	1,152	82	1,191	82	1,264	81	1,336	81	1,385	81
Ambulance Staff	2,418	18	2,427	19	2,434	20	2,456	21	2,475	22
Administrative and estates staff ²	41,873	77	40,716	77	40,161	77	39,891	77	39,985	77

Table 7.29 NHSScotland workforce, by contract type, 1996-2005 (continued)

	2001		2002		2003		2004		2005	
	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total	Head count Total	Female as % of total
All staff	137,548		142,258		147,371		149,769		153,996	78
All medical staff	12,566		13,163		13,432		13,704		14,133	44
All dentists	2,504	38	2,566	38	2,606	39	2,639	40	2,695	41
HCHS medical and dental staff ¹	9,646	41	10,256	41	10,409	42	10,660	42	10,876	43
General medical service ³	4,347	43	4,361	44	4,447	45	4,456	46	4,573	46
General dental service	2,048	36	2,078	36	2,112	37	2,156	38	2,266	39
Nursing and midwifery staff	62,379	90	63,356	90	64,317	90	64,855	90	65,816	90
Therapeutic, Healthcare Science, Technical, Pharmacy and Ambulance Staff	20,120	73	21,198	73	22,482	73	23,124	73	24,194	74
Therapeutic Staff	9,638	90	10,175	90	10,785	89	11,083	89	11,618	89
Healthcare Science Staff	3,512	62	3,626	63	3,719	64	3,749	64	3,813	64
Technical Staff	2,883	68	3,084	70	3,324	69	3,458	69	3,731	70
Pharmacy Staff	1,524	82	1,654	82	1,823	82	1,936	81	2,028	81
Ambulance Staff	2,563	22	2,659	23	2,831	24	2,898	25	3,004	26
Administrative and estates staff ²	39,979	77	41,975	77	44,534	77	45,447	77	47,158	76

Source: ISD Scotland. General Medical Service Warehouse (for 1996-2004 data) and Practitioner Contractor Database (PCD) (for 2005 data).

Notes: 1. Gender data on all medical staff is not currently available pre 2005.

2. HCHS refers to the Hospital, Community and Public Health Services of the NHS.

3. Comprises Performer, Performer Salaried, Performer Retainee and Performer Registrar GPs as at 1 October for 1996-2004 and as at 30 September for 2005 provisional.

4. Consists of Administrative & Clerical, Senior Management, Ancillary, Trades and Works.

7.10 SUMMARY

The data examined in this chapter indicate a number of differences in health for women and men. Women continue to have greater life expectancy than men, though over time the gap in the average life expectancy of men and women has decreased. While cancers, coronary heart disease and strokes are the main causes of death for both men and women, there are differences in the patterns of mortality from these diseases for men and women. There are also gender specific cancers, such as cervical and breast cancer in the case of women, and prostate and other genital cancers in the case of men. There is little difference between men and women in self-reported levels of health, but there are differences in health behaviours and

in mental health. Men are more likely than women to risk their health through smoking, high levels of alcohol consumption, and poor diet, and a higher proportion of men than of women are obese. However, men are more likely than women to be physically active. Men are also more likely than women to report high levels of psychological well-being, and women are more likely than men to suffer from anxiety and depression. Men, however, are more likely than women to commit suicide.

With regard to reproductive and sexual health, the birth rate has been declining, and infant mortality rates have also decreased to a very low level over time. The rate of teenage conceptions has declined to some extent in recent years, while the abortion rate has remained fairly stable over the past decade. Sexually transmitted infections have been rising for both men and women. Women tend to use health service provision more than men, partly as a consequence of their reproductive role, and because there are gender specific services such as cervical and breast cancer screening programmes. However, women also tend to visit their GPs more frequently than do men, and are more likely than men to be day patients and outpatients. Women make up a significant proportion of the NHS workforce, particularly of nursing staff, and now make up almost half of all GPs.

The differences between men and women in patterns of health, illness and mortality that are observable from the statistics examined for Scotland are similar to those observed elsewhere in the UK and in other developed countries. Research on gender and health has indicated that the reasons behind these variations are complex and are shaped both by biological and by social factors (see, for example, Doyal et al, 2003). As noted above, women have particular health needs because of their reproductive role, and women and men are at risk of suffering from sex specific diseases. Differences also exist in incidence, symptoms and prognosis of a range of conditions that affect both sexes, such as coronary heart disease, and it is thought that genetic, hormonal and metabolic differences between men and women may all have a part to play in their different experiences of diseases. There are also ways in which gender roles can shape the health of men and women, such as gender differences in working and living conditions. For example, it has been argued that the higher levels of anxiety and depression experienced by women can be at least partly explained by the effects of caring and domestic responsibilities, particularly where these are carried out in the context of limited resources whether of money or of time (Doyal, 1995). Domestic violence also constitutes a serious health hazard for women.

As Doyal also notes, recent research on gender and health has drawn attention to the ways in which conceptions of masculinity may result in men putting their health at risk. Men are less likely than women to use health services, and may not seek medical advice till conditions have reached a more serious stage. Men are more susceptible than women to occupational diseases and injuries, which is related to their role as full-time worker and breadwinner. Men are also more likely than women to indulge in risk taking behaviour, with respect to the type of health behaviours outlined above, and also with respect to dangerous driving and unsafe sex.

Among the range of complex biological and social factors that shape the health of men and women are also socio-economic status, age, ethnicity, and disability. While there is a debate over how disability is best defined, and the extent to which it should be seen in terms of a medical or a social model, as noted in the Introduction, overall adults with a disability are more likely than those without a disability to experience poor health, to make use of health services, and to require regular help and care (Scottish Executive, 2004a), and as outlined in

Chapter Six on care and caring there are some gender differences in the prevalence of disability and of use of care services. It has also been recognised that there is an association between poverty and impairment (see Riddell and Banks, 2001). With respect to ethnicity, there are differences between groups in terms of the incidence of disability or limiting long term illness, with Pakistanis having a particularly high proportion of people in this category in the 60 and over age group (Scottish Executive, 2004b). There are also some differences in the types of diseases that are more common in minority ethnic groups than in the White population, though it has been argued that a research focus on these has tended to neglect the incidence of major illnesses in minority ethnic groups (see Netto et al, 2001). Research on health and ethnicity in Scotland has indicated that there are problems of inequalities of access to services, including poor communication between users and professionals, and of racism as a barrier to access (Netto et al, 2001).

Of the inter-related factors which interact with levels of health, socio-economic status is the most significant, though this can of course interact with other factors, such as ethnicity and gender, in different ways. The emphasis on tackling health inequalities in the Scottish Executive's health strategy focuses particularly on socio-economic status and on areas of deprivation. The extent of health disadvantage experienced by people who live in deprived areas has been outlined in *Social Focus on Deprived Areas* (Scottish Executive, 2005c). This indicates that there is a far higher proportion of women smoking during pregnancy in deprived areas compared to other areas, that there is a higher proportion of low birth weight babies in such areas, that mothers in such areas are much less likely to breastfeed, and that teenage pregnancy rates are much higher.

This chapter, as indicated above, has included only a selection of key statistics on gender and health, and a much wider range of gender disaggregated data and data on gender specific health issues is produced by ISD and available online. Gender disaggregated data on health are also available in Scottish Neighbourhood Statistics, and provide the capacity for constructing local profiles which might examine the interaction of gender and socio-economic status, or differences between urban and rural areas, for example. Despite the range of gender data on health issues that is available, there has been an absence of overviews of gender and health in Scotland which collate key statistics, or which examine systematically links between key variables such as gender and socio-economic status. Similarly research studies which have a gender focus or include a gender dimension have often tended to be small scale or narrowly focused, with again there being an absence of overviews. A systematic review of both data and Scottish based health research which addresses gender would therefore be extremely useful.

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CHAPTER EIGHT CRIME AND JUSTICE

This chapter examines statistical evidence of gender differences in relation to crime and the criminal justice system. This includes patterns of offending, penalties and prison populations, and drug use. It also includes evidence of differences in patterns of victimisation of crime, including domestic abuse, and in perceptions of crime. Data on the gender composition of the legal profession, judiciary, police forces, and social work services for offenders are also included.

8.1 POLICY CONTEXT

The overall aims of the Scottish Executive in relation to crime and justice were set out in the Partnership Agreement of 2003 (Scottish Executive, 2003a). The key aims of the Executive are to: reduce crime, particularly violent and drugs related crime, and to reduce re-offending; to make communities safer places to live and work; to deal swiftly and effectively with those who commit crimes and to ensure support for victims and witnesses; to combat anti-social behaviour; to reform the courts and legal system to deal with cases more efficiently; and to continue to modernise the law and legal system to protect individual rights.

With respect to gender and crime there are a number of policy initiatives in the area of crime and justice, including the issue of women in prison, the development of the national domestic abuse strategy, and the issue of prostitution, with new legislation being passed or currently going through the Scottish Parliament in some areas. There has also been legislation to reform the judicial appointments system, with further reforms occurring to place this on a statutory basis, a move which is seen as likely to increase diversity in appointments.

Since the late 1990s, concern about the suicide rate among young women at the women's prison, Cornton Vale, has led to the convening of a number of groups by the government to consider this problem, and to a number of reports, for example, *A Safer Way* (Scottish Office, 1998) and *A Better Way* (Scottish Executive, 2002), making recommendations for improving the support to women prisoners and reducing the numbers in custody. In 2003, the 218 Centre was established with Scottish Executive funding, and this project has aimed to provide residential and non-residential support to women offenders instead of placing them in custody. However, the numbers of women in prison have continued to rise throughout this period.

The Scottish Executive National Strategy to Address Domestic Abuse in Scotland was launched in November 2000. The aims of the strategy are to prevent the domestic abuse of women and children; to provide appropriate legal protection for women and children who experience domestic abuse; and to provide support services for women and children. The development of the strategy has entailed funding for refuge provision, awareness raising campaigns, a domestic abuse helpline, and a national training strategy. There has also been legislative change, the Protection from Abuse (Scotland) Act 2001, which strengthened provisions for powers of arrest to protect someone from abuse. In 2001, a National Group to Address Domestic Abuse was set up, and this group had its remit extended in 2003 to address Violence Against Women more generally (Scottish Executive, 2003b). More recently a special court for handling domestic abuse cases has been piloted in Scotland.

The Scottish Executive has been reviewing laws and policies on street prostitution since 2003, as a consequence of the introduction to the Scottish Parliament of a Member's Bill which proposed tolerance zones. An Expert Group on Prostitution was convened in 2003, and

produced a report, *Being Outside: constructing a response to street prostitution*, (Scottish Executive, 2004a), which recommended a national strategic approach to respond to prostitution, which should safeguard the women involved, protect residential and commercial communities from the effects of soliciting and prostitution, prevent those who might be vulnerable to taking up prostitution from doing so, and influence the attitudes which lead to the abuse of women sexually and physically through street prostitution. The publication of the report was followed by a consultation, with the Scottish Executive making a commitment to address street prostitution within the context of an overarching approach to tackling violence against women and building safer communities, to issue guidance to local authorities, to promote good practice in developing local responses, and to establish a new offence which will focus on the harm, offence, and nuisance caused by prostitution-related activities. The Prostitution (Public Places) (Scotland) Bill was going through the Scottish Parliament at the time of writing.

8.2 WOMEN AND MEN AND THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Key points:

- In 2004/05 there were 56 males per 1,000 of the population with a charge proved against them, compared to 10 females per 1,000 of the population.
- Men were more likely than women to receive custodial sentences for crimes/offences committed, with 14% of all males with a charge proved being sent to prison in 2004/05 compared to 6% of women with a charge proved being sent to prison.
- Similar proportions of men and women with a charge proved received community sentences (around 12%) and financial penalties (around 63%).
- The majority of solved homicides cases in the decade 1995/96 to 2004/05 involved males killing males (72%).
- The average number of males in prison has been much greater than the average number of females in prison in the period from 1997/98 to 2005/06. Numbers have been rising for both men and women, but the rate of increase in this period has been much faster for women than men, 80% compared to 11%.
- Data from the 2000 Scottish Crime Survey indicated that almost one in five of female respondents reported having ever experienced threats of force from a partner or ex-partner compared with 8% of males.
- Of all incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police in 2005, in 85% of cases the victim was female and the perpetrator was male.
- In 2003, women were more likely than men to regard crime as serious problem, with 85.3% of women thinking this compared to 80.3% of men.

- Women were much more likely than men to report feeling unsafe walking alone after dark, with 43.6% of women reporting this compared to 18.2% of men in 2003.
- In 2006, women were 15% of judges and men were 85%, while women were 20% of sheriffs and men were 80%.
- In 2005, women were 21% of police officers and men were 79%. Women were 7% of Chief Inspectors and men were 93%.
- In 2005, women were 59% of children's panel members, and men were 41%.

8.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

8.3.1 Key sources of data

Key sources of data relevant to crime and justice are administrative data regularly published in Scottish Executive statistical bulletins, and data from the Scottish Crime and Victimisation Survey, previously the Scottish Crime Survey. The Scottish Executive Justice Department collates and publishes data on recorded crime, court proceedings, sentences and other disposals such as community orders, and the prison population. Data are provided by police forces, local authority returns on social work and probation services, and computerised records such as the Scottish Offenders' Index, the Scottish Criminal Records Office, and the Prison Records System. Since 1999 statistics on domestic abuse have been provided by police forces across Scotland and regularly published by the Scottish Executive, and this represents a significant improvement to data gathering and dissemination on this topic. The Scottish Crime and Victimisation Survey provides data on people's experiences and perceptions of crime. In the past detailed gender disaggregated data on the judiciary, police services, and other workforces within the criminal justice system have not been routinely published.

8.3.2 Possible uses of data

Relevant public bodies, such as government departments, probation services, police services, and local authorities, might use gender disaggregated data to target particular groups of women and men in preventative work, and also to address the concerns about safety and crime of specific groups. Community Safety strategies might also be informed by such data, while local authorities might also use data to inform decisions about support to voluntary organisations e.g. Women's Aid, Rape Crisis. Data should also be taken into account with respect to workforces, in particular with regard to the under-representation of women in senior positions.

8.4 CRIMES AND OFFENCES

There are significant gender differences in patterns of offending, both in terms of the numbers of offences committed by men and women, and in terms of the types of crime committed. Tables 8.1, 8.2 and 8.3 below indicate the rate of offending by men and women and the types of crime for which they were charged. As Table 8.1 indicates, in 2004/05 there were 56 males per 1,000 of the male population having a charge proved against them, compared to 10 females per 1,000 of the female population. For males this represented a decline from 65 per 1,000 of the male population having a charge proved in 1995/96, while for women there had been a decline from 11 to 8 per 1,000 of the population between 1995/96 and 1999/00 subsequently followed by a slight rise. Table 8.1 also illustrates the difference in patterns of offending by age. In 2004/2005 the age groups with the highest rate of offending were 18 and

19 year olds for males, and 20 year olds, 21-25 year olds, and 26-30 year olds for females, with in all cases male rates being significantly higher than female rates.

Table 8.1 Numbers of persons with a charge proved (1) per 1,000 population by sex and age, 1995/96-2004/05

Type of accused		1995/6	1996/7	1997/8	1998/9	1999/0	2000/1	2001/2	2002/3	2003/4	2004/5
Males	Under 16 ⁴	0.60	0.60	0.50	0.40	0.30	0.20	0.30	0.50	0.40	0.40
	16	80	79	74	75	60	44	51	57	56	55
	17	207	206	196	177	163	141	139	144	152	146
	18	255	285	250	228	205	193	203	193	199	182
	19	221	249	254	218	200	180	195	203	197	181
	20	211	217	216	216	185	169	191	194	187	166
	21-25	168	169	168	159	154	140	152	157	158	147
	26-30	112	114	117	110	106	96	107	111	114	121
	31-40	71	70	70	67	64	56	61	64	65	73
	Over 40 ⁵	24	22	23	21	20	16	18	19	20	22
Total ³	65	65	64	59	55	48	52	54	54	56	
Females	Under 16 ⁴	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.07
	16	9	8	7	8	6	5	4.9	6	5.3	6
	17	19	23	22	21	19	16	17	17	17	17
	18	25	29	28	29	26	24	22	23	21	22
	19	23	25	28	25	26	23	26	24	25	23
	20	25	25	27	26	26	23	22	27	25	24
	21-25	26	24	25	24	23	22	23	27	28	28
	26-30	22	19	20	17	16	16	18	20	24	24
	31-40	15	13	13	11	10	10	11	13	16	16
	Over 40 ⁵	4	3.4	3.6	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.8	3.5	4.3	4.3
Total ³	11	10	10	9	8	8	8	9	10	10	

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Criminal Proceedings in Scottish Courts, 2004*.

1 Number of occasions when a person had a charge proved.

2 Includes sex not known; excludes companies.

3 Includes age not known; uses mid-year population estimate for those aged 8-70.

4 Uses mid-year population estimate for those aged 8-15.

5 Uses mid-year population estimate for those aged 41-70.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/04/25104019/43>

Table 8.2 Persons with a charge proved by main crime/offence and age, 2004/05

Main crime or offence	Males (Number)				Females (Number)			
	Under 21	21-30	Over 30	Total ¹	Under 21	21-30	Over 30	Total ¹
All crimes and offences	24,545	41,231	46,713	112,494	3,020	8,043	10,405	21,468
All crimes	10,250	15,655	11,245	37,151	1,275	3,257	2,727	7,259
Non-sexual crimes of violence	664	761	585	2,010	63	124	140	327
Homicide	17	43	46	106	-	3	4	7
Serious assault and attempted murder	422	443	355	1,220	32	38	48	118
Robbery	193	218	101	512	27	40	12	79
Other	32	57	83	172	4	43	76	123
Crimes of indecency	99	146	310	556	13	142	74	229
Rape and attempted rape	7	15	40	62	-	-	-	-
Indecent assault	16	17	52	85	-	-	1	1
Lewd and indecent behaviour	45	77	189	311	1	2	1	4
Other	31	37	29	98	12	140	72	224
Crimes of dishonesty	3,576	7,232	4,558	15,366	712	1,949	1,555	4,216
Housebreaking	670	1,066	540	2,276	27	49	21	97
Theft by opening a lockfast place	418	492	213	1,123	21	32	17	70
Theft of a motor vehicle	629	344	85	1,058	16	16	7	39
Shoplifting	741	3,099	2,101	5,941	378	1,190	887	2,455
Other theft	705	1,337	758	2,800	170	341	220	731
Fraud	90	322	422	834	57	180	258	495
Other	323	572	439	1,334	43	141	145	329
Fire-raising, vandalism, etc	2,113	1,382	1,007	4,502	168	153	180	501
Fire-raising	87	41	39	167	6	11	7	24
Vandalism, etc	2,026	1,341	968	4,335	162	142	173	477
Other crimes	3,798	6,134	4,785	14,717	319	889	778	1,986
Crimes against public justice	1,309	1,898	1,765	4,972	182	323	279	784
Handling an offensive weapon	1,198	1,232	835	3,265	31	71	77	179
Drugs	1,281	2,998	2,175	6,454	106	490	422	1,018
Other	10	6	10	26	-	5	-	5
All offences	14,295	25,576	35,468	75,343	1,745	4,786	7,678	14,209
Miscellaneous offences	8,792	12,177	14,039	35,010	1,303	2,661	3,502	7,466
Common assault	2,906	3,839	4,696	11,442	594	669	827	2,090
Breach of the peace	3,345	4,783	6,037	14,166	360	627	936	1,923
Drunkenness	18	44	196	258	4	6	40	50
Breach of social work orders	1,440	2,062	993	4,495	127	430	239	796
Other	1,083	1,449	2,117	4,649	218	929	1,460	2,607
Motor vehicle offences	5,503	13,399	21,429	40,333	442	2,125	4,176	6,743
Dangerous and careless driving	860	1,003	1,431	3,294	65	120	326	511
Drunk driving	838	2,047	4,002	6,887	71	275	766	1,112
Speeding	720	3,338	7,268	11,328	81	650	1,443	2,174
Unlawful use of vehicle	2,600	5,630	6,071	14,301	189	895	1,246	2,330
Vehicle defect offences	178	492	1,004	1,674	7	32	81	120
Other	307	889	1,653	2,849	29	153	314	496

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Criminal Proceedings in Scottish Courts, 2004*.

¹ Includes age not known.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/04/25104019/43>

The most common types of crime/offence committed by males in 2004/2005 were motor vehicle offences (36%), miscellaneous offences (31%) and crimes of dishonesty (14%), as illustrated in Table 8.2 above. The most common types of crime/offence committed by females in 2004/2005 were miscellaneous offences (35%), motor vehicle offences (31%) and crimes of dishonesty (20%).

Men are more likely than women to commit crimes of indecency, as Table 8.3 below illustrates. In 2004/05 there were 556 men convicted of a crime of indecency compared to 229 women. Crimes of indecency tend, however, to be gender specific in their nature, with men being convicted of rape and other forms of sexual assault, while the vast majority of crimes of indecency for which women are convicted are offences relating to prostitution. Given the relatively small numbers being charged with such crimes, there can be considerable variation in numbers from year to year. For men the numbers have fluctuated from around 500 to over 600 each year from 1995/96 to 2004/05. For women there has been a significant decline in the numbers being charged with crimes of indecency between 1995/96 and 2004/05.

Table 8.3 Crimes of indecency, 1995/96 – 2004/05.

	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Males with charge proved										
Rape	30	35	30	37	27	28	45	37	36	41
Assault with intent to rape	26	22	25	21	21	24	21	16	18	21
Indecent assault	72	66	91	83	84	60	48	65	90	85
Lewd and libidinous practices	258	239	285	274	262	223	247	212	196	169
Indecent exposure	39	50	54	43	37	32	46	59	96	142
Incest	11	9	14	11	9	8	12	10	12	12
Homosexual acts	51	38	44	42	17	40	21	17	15	16
Sexual intercourse with girl under 16*	57	66	68	51	39	50	50	39	56	67
Other crimes of indecency	11	11	11	13	5	9	9	2	7	3
All crimes of indecency	555	536	622	575	501	474	499	457	526	556
Females with charge proved										
Lewd and libidinous practices	3	3	4	3	3	1	2	1	3	4
Offences relating to prostitution	699	394	701	700	286	158	108	99	126	223
Other crimes of indecency	2	5	2	2	0	0	3	2	2	2
All crimes of indecency	704	402	707	705	289	159	113	102	131	229

Source: SEJD court proceedings database

Notes: Persons are classified by main charge proved

Table 8.4 below indicates the numbers of men and women being given different types of sentence, and their age group. In line with patterns of offending, far greater numbers of men

than of women were charged and given penalties of all types. For custodial and community sentences in 2004/05 the largest numbers of men and women given penalties were to be found in the 21-30 age group, while for financial penalties and other sentences the largest numbers of both men and women were in the over 30 age group. There were some differences in the proportions of men and women receiving different types of sentences. In 2004/05, 14% of all males with a charge proved received a custodial sentence compared to 6% of women with a charge proved. With respect to community sentences and financial penalties similar proportions of men and women received these, with 13% of both males and females receiving the former, and 64% males compared to 62% of females receiving the latter. Women were more likely to receive other sentences, with 19% of females charged doing so compared to 10% of males charged.

Table 8.4 Persons (excluding companies) with a charge proved by main penalty, sex and age, 1995/96-2004/05

		1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Total ¹		154,123	150,783	148,614	136,506	127,525	112,829	121,236	127,385	133,049	133,962
Custody ²		16,206	16,937	16,299	16,027	15,893	15,655	16,483	17,296	16,503	16,531
Males	Total ³	15,391	16,094	15,434	15,059	14,883	14,722	15,357	16,081	15,203	15,162
	Under 21	4,473	4,765	4,371	4,327	4,056	3,979	3,773	3,515	3,172	2,967
	21-30	7,243	7,324	6,955	6,664	6,984	6,850	7,331	7,882	7,456	7,187
	Over 30	3,673	4,004	4,108	4,066	3,842	3,892	4,252	4,684	4,575	5,007
Females	Total ³	815	843	865	968	1,010	933	1,126	1,215	1,300	1,369
	Under 21	140	102	174	247	325	299	307	258	249	222
	21-30	433	470	460	475	497	454	531	637	654	716
	Over 30	242	271	231	246	188	180	288	320	397	431
Community sentence ²		11,575	12,320	12,515	12,921	12,366	12,487	13,800	15,938	15,557	16,952
Males	Total ³	10,204	10,762	10,775	11,000	10,389	10,632	11,658	13,340	12,963	14,215
	Under 21	4,533	4,811	4,505	4,669	4,132	3,996	4,128	4,563	4,081	4,405
	21-30	3,630	3,773	3,866	3,884	3,754	3,963	4,469	5,136	5,050	5,447
	Over 30	2,037	2,176	2,399	2,444	2,502	2,673	3,059	3,641	3,832	4,363
Females	Total ³	1,371	1,558	1,740	1,921	1,977	1,855	2,142	2,598	2,594	2,737
	Under 21	328	424	459	547	548	544	515	562	518	567
	21-30	655	641	727	774	889	795	1,015	1,258	1,150	1,182
	Over 30	388	492	553	597	539	516	612	777	926	988

Cont'd...

Table 8.4 Persons (excluding companies) with a charge proved by main penalty, sex and age, 1995/96-2004/05 (continued)

		1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Financial penalty ²		109,194	104,630	103,728	92,548	85,414	71,846	77,483	79,994	86,138	84,789
Males	Total ³	93,300	90,728	89,723	81,179	75,019	62,034	67,583	68,395	73,014	71,455
	Under 21	17,387	18,293	17,819	16,168	14,841	12,755	14,129	14,108	14,498	13,854
	21-30	38,240	36,549	35,597	31,214	27,865	23,076	25,131	24,840	25,995	24,984
	Over 30	36,701	34,897	35,380	32,926	31,549	25,571	28,049	29,431	32,517	32,613
Females	Total ³	15,894	13,902	14,005	11,369	10,395	9,812	9,900	11,599	13,124	13,334
	Under 21	1,842	1,898	1,883	1,669	1,538	1,369	1,330	1,446	1,563	1,494
	21-30	6,561	5,468	5,562	4,469	3,867	3,639	3,694	4,040	4,597	4,614
	Over 30	7,022	6,132	6,236	4,983	4,742	4,582	4,815	6,110	6,963	7,226
Other sentence ²		17,148	16,896	16,072	15,010	13,852	12,841	13,470	14,157	14,851	15,690
Males	Total ³	12,815	12,747	12,147	11,345	10,450	9,526	10,169	10,611	11,018	11,662
	Under 21	3,881	4,152	4,183	4,093	3,535	2,956	3,202	3,366	3,249	3,319
	21-30	4,208	4,041	3,687	3,293	3,164	3,103	3,312	3,504	3,590	3,613
	Over 30	4,596	4,429	4,209	3,918	3,704	3,418	3,641	3,738	4,178	4,730
Females	Total ³	4,333	4,149	3,925	3,665	3,402	3,315	3,301	3,546	3,833	4,028
	Under 21	810	946	924	940	872	750	758	752	732	737
	21-30	1,648	1,511	1,434	1,403	1,253	1,267	1,288	1,372	1,537	1,531
	Over 30	1,753	1,499	1,477	1,265	1,265	1,277	1,245	1,422	1,563	1,760

Source: Scottish Executive (2006a) *Criminal Proceedings in Scottish Courts, 2004*.

1 Includes sentence unknown.

2 Excludes persons with sex unknown.

3 Includes persons with age unknown

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/04/25104019/43>

Table 8.5 Sex of main accused and main victim in solved homicide cases, 1995/96-2004/05

Sex of main accused	Sex of main victim	
	Male	Female
Male	803	195
(% murder)	59	68
Female	94	25
(% murder)	41	60

Source: Scottish Executive (2005a) *Homicide in Scotland, 2004/05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/12/13133031/30388>

The majority (72%) of solved homicide cases in the decade 1995/96 to 2004/05 involved males killing males. By contrast cases where the main accused and main victim were both female amounted to just over 2% of homicide cases. Table 8.5 above indicates the distribution of the sex and main victim for all solved cases of homicide. The percentage of homicides in

each category which are recorded as murder is also given. This indicates that cases where a male is killed by a female are more likely to be classified as culpable homicide rather than murder.

8.5 PRISON POPULATION

The numbers of men and women in prison in Scotland have been rising over the past decade, as Tables 8.6 and 8.7 below indicate. Table 8.6 shows that in 1997/98 the average daily population of males in prison was 5,874 and this had risen to 6,523 by 2005/06, representing an increase of 11%.

Table 8.6 Average daily population of males in penal establishments by type of custody, 1997/98- 2005/06

Type of Custody	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total ⁽¹⁾	5,874	5,830	5,765	5,676	5,929	6,193	6,307	6,447	6,523
Remand : sub total ⁽¹⁾	880	919	922	835	956	1,165	1,158	1,132	1,159
Untried	788	833	833	740	854	1,046	1,026	975	969
Convicted awaiting sentence	92	86	89	95	101	119	132	156	190
Persons under sentence : sub total ⁽¹⁾	4,990	4,909	4,840	4,840	4,972	5,026	5,148	5,314	5,364
Young offenders - direct sentence	737	678	639	614	586	570	532	515	584
Adult prisoners - direct sentence	4,105	4,065	4,023	3,991	4,098	4,145	4,243	4,383	4,331
Fine Defaulters	81	69	53	59	54	56	58	56	49
Persons recalled from supervision/licence	50	78	99	144	201	249	308	355	398
Others	17	19	26	33	33	5	6	5	1
Persons sentenced by court martial	1	*	2	*	*	*	-	1	-
Civil prisoners	2	1	*	*	1	2	*	1	*

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Prison Statistics Scotland, 2005/06*.

1. Components may not add to totals due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/18103613/0>

In 1997/98 the average daily population of females in prison was 186 and this had risen to 334 by 2005/06, representing an increase of 80%. Thus, though the numbers of women in prison are much smaller than those of men, the rate of increase in the size of the female prison population has been much faster between 1997/98 and 2005/06.

Table 8.7 Average daily population of females in penal establishments by type of custody, 1997/98- 2005/06

Type of Custody	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total ⁽¹⁾	186	199	210	207	257	282	314	332	334
Remand : sub total ⁽¹⁾	46	52	54	45	63	82	87	84	83
Untried	33	41	40	31	44	57	59	56	56
Convicted awaiting sentence	13	11	14	14	19	26	29	29	27
Persons under sentence : sub total ⁽¹⁾	139	146	156	161	194	200	227	248	251
Young offenders - direct sentence	18	17	27	28	24	20	23	30	24
Adult prisoners - direct sentence	115	121	123	124	161	173	197	212	220
Fine Defaulters	6	5	3	5	4	5	5	4	4
Persons recalled from supervision/licence	1	-	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
Others	1	2	2	3	4	1	*	*	*
Persons sentenced by court martial	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Civil prisoners	-	*	*	*	*	-	*	*	*

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Prison Statistics Scotland, 2005/06*.

1. Components may not add to totals due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/18103613/0>

The numbers of men and women being imprisoned for non-payment of fines have declined significantly between 1997/98 and 2005/06, as Table 8.8 below shows. The proportion of receptions of women for fine default has increased slightly from 7% in 1997/98 to 8% in 2005/06, though the vast majority of receptions to prison for this reason remain men.

Table 8.8 Fine default receptions (1) to penal establishments, 1996/97 - 2005/06

	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total	9,345	9,513	8,358	7,566	6,991	7,097	6,888	6,098	6,213
Sex :									
Male	8,700	8,737	7,765	6,949	6,456	6,496	6,312	5,626	5,734
Female	645	776	593	617	535	601	576	472	479

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Prison Statistics Scotland, 2005/06*.

Notes: Receptions are not equivalent to 'persons received'. See Appendix III for details.

Receptions for compensation order default are included in fine default figures.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/18103613/0>

Similarly, the vast majority of young offenders sentenced to prison are male, as Table 8.9 below shows. The numbers of young offenders in prison have declined between 1997/98 and 2005/06, while the proportion of female young offenders in prison has increased from 2% of all young offenders to 4% (due to small numbers percentages should be treated with caution).

Table 8.9 Average daily population of sentenced young offenders, 1997/98-2005/06

	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total ⁽¹⁾	773	708	679	655	628	601	573	560	625
Male	754	690	650	626	604	581	549	530	601
Female	18	18	28	29	24	21	24	30	24

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Prison Statistics Scotland, 2005/06*.

1. Components may not add to totals due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/18103613/0>

Table 8.10 Main crime/offence of remand and sentenced (1) prisoners in custody on 30 June 2005

Main crime/offence ⁽²⁾	Number					
	Remand			Sentenced		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total crimes & offences	1,023	77	1,100	5,398	261	5,659
Total crimes : sub total	778	61	839	4,308	232	4,540
Non-sexual crimes of violence : sub total	220	17	237	2,184	81	2,265
Homicide	26	1	27	755	27	782
Serious assault and attempted murder	117	9	126	923	37	960
Robbery	59	4	63	449	15	464
Other	18	3	21	57	2	59
Crimes of indecency : sub total	30	0	30	409	1	410
Rape and attempted rape	17	-	17	173	-	173
Indecent Assault	1	-	1	40	-	40
Lewd and indecent behaviour	11	-	11	117	1	118
Other	1	-	1	79	-	79
Crimes of dishonesty : sub total	259	27	286	659	62	721
Housebreaking	92	1	93	238	5	243
Theft by opening lockfast places	6	1	7	26	1	27
Theft from a motor vehicle (by OLP)	12	1	13	26	-	26
Theft of a motor vehicle	23	-	23	37	-	37
Shoplifting	53	16	69	146	32	178
Other theft	43	5	48	107	12	119
Fraud	10	2	12	33	7	40
Other	20	1	21	46	5	51
Fire-raising, vandalism etc : sub total	36	0	36	64	4	68
Fire-raising	4	-	4	28	2	30
Vandalism etc	32	-	32	36	2	38
Other crimes : sub total	233	17	250	992	84	1,076
Crimes against public justice	88	8	96	49	9	58
Handling offensive weapons	79	3	82	138	5	143
Drugs	56	6	62	798	70	868
Other	10	-	10	7	-	7
Total offences : sub total	245	16	261	686	26	712
Miscellaneous offences : sub total	204	16	220	448	22	470
Petty assault	116	10	126	253	10	263
Breach of the peace	73	5	78	121	9	130
Drunkenness	1	-	1	-	-	0
Breach of social work orders	4	-	4	24	1	25
Other	10	1	11	50	2	52
Motor vehicle offences : sub total	41	0	41	238	4	242
Dangerous and careless driving	7	-	7	44	-	44
Drunk driving	7	-	7	23	-	23
Speeding	-	-	-	-	-	0
Unlawful use of vehicle	24	-	24	164	4	168
Vehicle defect offences	-	-	-	-	-	0
Other	3	-	3	7	-	7
Unknown Charge	-	-	0	384	2	386
Other Jurisdiction Charge	-	-	0	20	1	21

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Prison Statistics Scotland, 2005/06*.

Notes: 1. Civil prisoners are excluded from this table. However, on 30th June 2005 there were no such prisoners in Scottish penal establishments.

2. Only the main crime or offence is recorded for persons convicted of more than one criminal act. The classification of crimes and offences used by the Scottish Executive Justice Department for criminal statistics contains approximately 350 codes.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/18103613/0>

Table 8.10 above indicates that there are some gender differences in the types of crime/offence for which prisoners are on remand or in custody. A higher proportion of women than of men were in custody on 30 June 2005 for crimes of dishonesty, with 24% of women sentenced for such offences compared with 12% of men. A higher proportion of women were also sentenced for drug offences, 27% compared to 15% of men, while a higher proportion of men than women were in custody for non-sexual crimes of violence, including serious assault and attempted murder, 40% of men compared to 31% of women.

The vast majority of prisoners in custody on 30 June 2005 were of White ethnic origin (98%). Of those prisoners of other ethnic origins the vast majority were male, as Table 8.11 below shows.

Table 8.11 Ethnic origin of prisoners in custody on 30 June 2005 (1)

Ethnic origin	Male	Female	Total
White	6,270	323	6,593
Black-Caribbean	22	2	24
Black-African	15	3	18
Black-Other	19	3	22
Indian	9	2	11
Pakistani	41	-	41
Bangladeshi	2	-	2
Chinese	10	-	10
Other	3	-	3
Mixed	1	2	3
Unknown	29	3	32
Total	6,421	338	6,759

Source: Scottish Executive (2006b) *Prison Statistics Scotland, 2005/06*.

1. Includes persons awaiting deportation.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/18103613/0>

8.6 DRUG USE

Data on charges and the nature of crimes for which prisoners are sentenced provides an indication of drug use and drug dealing. This is likely to involve only a relatively small proportion of people who use drugs in some way, however. The Scottish Crime and Victimization Survey (previously the Scottish Crime Survey) asks questions about drug use, which give a better picture of the prevalence of this within Scottish society. Table 8.12 below illustrates the patterns of drug use by age and gender for 2003 and 2004. This indicates that men in all age groups in both years were more likely than women to have used some kind of drug at some point in the past, and to have used some kind of drug within the last year. There were some differences in reported usage by age group and gender, with men in the 25-29 age group being the most likely to have ever used drugs among men compared to women in the 20-24 age group being the most likely to have ever used drugs among women. Overall, in 2004, 9% of men had taken drugs in the previous year compared to 7% of women (Murray

and Harkins, 2006), and women were likely to perceive the risks of drug taking to be slightly higher than did men.

Table 8.12 Percentage respondents reporting using drugs 'ever' and 'in the last year', 2003, 2004

2003	Age group						
	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-59	16-59
Males							
Any drug - ever	39	48	53	39	24	18	30
Any drug - last year	26	33	19	14	8	2	11
<i>Base</i>	86	114	128	203	188	732	1,451
Females							
Any drug - ever	27	42	38	25	17	11	21
Any drug - last year	19	24	10	6	2	2	7
<i>Base</i>	86	148	181	247	250	805	1,717
2004	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-59	16-59
Males							
Any drug - ever	34	37	49	35	26	17	27
Any drug - last year	22	15	20	9	7	3	9
<i>Base</i>	70	89	132	137	190	723	1,341
Females							
Any drug -ever	34	35	33	32	16	9	20
Any drug - last year	22	19	11	9	4	1	7
<i>Base</i>	64	106	156	222	265	801	1,614

Source: Scottish Crime Survey, 2003; Scottish Crime and Victimization Survey, 2004. Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*; Murray and Harkins (2006) *Drug Misuse in Scotland: Findings from the 2004 Scottish Crime and Victimization Survey*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/07/19095705/0>

8.7 VICTIMS OF CRIME

As well as there being gender differences in patterns of offending, there are gender differences in who are typically victims of crime. In particular there are crimes of which women are overwhelmingly the victims, such as rape and other forms of sexual assault, and domestic violence. It should also be noted that while men are the majority of perpetrators of violence against other persons, they are also the majority of victims of violence. This is particularly the case for males in the 15-25 age group.

Table 8.13 below indicates that over the period 1995/96 to 2004/05 the majority of homicide victims were relatives or acquaintances of the accused, with only 20% of homicides being committed by someone who was a stranger to the victim. Of those accused of homicide of women a slightly higher proportion were strangers compared to those accused of homicide of men, 22% compared to 20% respectively. Women were much more likely than men to be victims of their partners, at 40% and 6% respectively.

Table 8.13 Victims of homicide ⁽¹⁾, by age and sex of victim and relationship of main accused to victim, 1995/96-2004/05

Sex and age of victim	Relationship of main accused to victim						Total ⁽³⁾
	Son/daughter	Parent	Partner ⁽²⁾	Other relative	Acquaintance	Stranger	
All victims (solved)	33	51	148	45	598	233	1,147
Under 1 year	-	25	-	2	-	-	30
1 to 4	-	14	-	1	5	1	21
5 to 15	-	7	1	2	12	22	45
16 to 29	-	3	29	15	233	82	377
30 to 49	9	1	93	20	261	77	476
50 to 69	15	1	20	3	75	32	149
70 and over	9	-	5	2	12	19	49
Males	24	31	52	41	546	180	907
Under 1 year	-	16	-	1	-	-	20
1 to 4	-	8	-	-	3	1	12
5 to 15	-	3	-	2	11	10	26
16 to 29	-	3	6	14	216	69	321
30 to 49	5	1	38	20	240	67	384
50 to 69	14	-	6	3	68	25	119
70 and over	5	-	2	1	8	8	25
Females	9	20	96	4	52	53	240
Under 1 year	-	9	-	1	-	-	10
1 to 4	-	6	-	1	2	-	9
5 to 15	-	4	1	-	1	12	19
16 to 29	-	-	23	1	17	13	56
30 to 49	4	-	55	-	21	10	92
50 to 69	1	1	14	-	7	7	30
70 and over	4	-	3	1	4	11	24

Source: Scottish Executive (2005a) *Homicide in Scotland, 2004/05*.

1. Currently (as at 28 November 2005) recorded as homicide.

2. In considering the relationship of the main accused person to a victim, **partner** includes: spouse, separated or divorced spouse, cohabitee, lover, boy/girlfriend but not necessarily **ex**-boyfriend/girlfriend pre-2000/01, as these may have been recorded as simply acquaintances. Partner figures for 2000/01 onwards **do** include ex-boyfriend/girlfriend.

3. Includes 39 victims where the relationship is unknown.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/12/13133031/30388>

There are two key sources of data on domestic abuse, the self-reported measure provided by the Scottish Crime and Victimisation Survey, and statistics collected by the police. Data from the 2000 Scottish Crime Survey indicated that almost one in five of female respondents reported having ever experienced threats of force from a partner or ex-partner compared with 8% of males (Macpherson, 2002). Data on the prevalence on domestic abuse from the 2003 and 2004 surveys will also be published, but were not available at the time of writing.

Tables 8.14 to 8.19 below provide information about incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police, various characteristics of these, and actions taken. These statistics do not in themselves indicate the prevalence of domestic abuse, since many incidents of domestic abuse go unreported. Table 8.14 indicates that in 2005, there were 45,287 incidents of domestic abuse recorded by all police forces in Scotland. Of these, women were the victims of 39,840 incidents compared to men being the victims of 5,447 incidents.

Table 8.14 Incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police, by police force area and victim's sex, 1 January - 31 December 2005

Number	All incidents where gender recorded		
	Female	Male	Total
Central	1,787	177	1,964
Dumfries & Galloway	1,015	176	1,191
Fife	2,980	259	3,239
Grampian	3,106	454	3,560
Lothian & Borders	7,708	916	8,624
Northern ⁽¹⁾	1,383	171	1,554
Strathclyde	18,615	2,760	21,375
Tayside	3,246	534	3,780
Total	39,840	5,447	45,287

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2005*.

1. 25 incidents were recorded where a degree of mutuality was observed between the victim and perpetrator; these have been recorded as female victims.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/01/19160856/0>

Table 8.15 below shows the gender distribution of perpetrators and victims of domestic abuse from 1999 to 2005. This indicates that the vast majority of victims of domestic abuse are women with the vast majority of perpetrators of abuse being men, with 85% per cent of all incidents recorded by the police exhibiting this pattern, while 11% of incidents were of men being victims of domestic abuse by women. In a very small number of cases, there were incidents of abuse involving perpetrators and victims of the same sex.

Table 8.15 Incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police, by sex of victim and perpetrator as a percentage of incidents, where sex of victim and perpetrator known, 1999 - 2004

	Percentage						
	1 April - 31 Dec 1999	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2000	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2001 ⁽¹⁾	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2002	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2003	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2004	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2005
Female victim, male perpetrator	92	92	91	90	89	88	85
Male victim, female perpetrator	7	8	8	9	9	11	11
Male victim, male perpetrator	*	*	1	1	1	1	1
Female victim, female perpetrator	*	*	*	1	1	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Scottish Executive (2005b) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2004*; Scottish Executive (2006c) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2005*.

1. The 2001 figures for Scotland have been changed from those published in 2002 due to revised figures being submitted for Central and Fife police forces.

Figures may not total to 100, due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/09/16120959/10005>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/01/19160856/0>

The age distribution of victims of domestic abuse, as detailed in Table 8.16 below, suggests that women tend to be more vulnerable to domestic abuse in the 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, and 41-50 age groups, though incidents of domestic abuse occur for women of all ages from 16 to over 60.

Table 8.16 Incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police by age distribution of victims as a percentage of incidents, where age of victim known 1999 - 2005

Victim's Age Group	Percentage						
	1 April - 31 Dec 1999	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2000	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2001 ⁽¹⁾	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2002	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2003	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2004	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2005
Under 16	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
16-18	3	3	3	3	4	4	4
19-21	8	9	8	9	8	9	9
22-25	11	11	12	12	13	13	13
26-30	19	18	17	17	16	16	15
31-35	20	19	19	19	18	17	16
36-40	17	17	17	16	17	16	15
41-50	16	17	17	17	18	19	19
51-60	5	6	6	6	5	6	6
61 and over	2	2	2	2	1	2	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Scottish Executive (2005b) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2004*; Scottish Executive (2006c) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2005*.

1. The 2001 figures for Scotland have been changed from those published in 2002 due to revised figures being submitted for Central and Fife police forces.

Figures may not total to 100, due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/09/16120959/10005>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/01/19160856/0>

Table 8.17 below indicates that the most common perpetrators of domestic abuse in 2004 were ex-partners (26% of all recorded incidents), co-habitees (25% of all recorded incidents) and spouses (20%). There appear to have been some changes in this pattern over time, with ex-partners becoming more likely to be perpetrators of domestic abuse, and spouses becoming less likely to be perpetrators.

Table 8.17 Incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police Relationship between victim and perpetrator, as a percentage of incidents, where relationship known 1999 - 2005

	Percentage						
	1 April - 31 Dec 99	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2000	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2001 ⁽¹⁾	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2002	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2003	1 Jan - 31 Dec 2004	Jan – 31 Dec 2005
Spouse	33	26	24	24	23	20	19
Co-habitee	24	27	26	26	27	25	23
Partner	23	18	19	19	17	17	16
Ex-spouse	7	9	9	8	7	6	5
Ex-partner	12	20	21	23	26	26	29
Other	1	*	2	1	1	8	9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Scottish Executive (2005b) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2004*; Scottish Executive (2006c) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2005*.

1. The 2001 figures for Scotland have been changed from those published in 2002 due to revised figures being submitted for Central and Fife police forces.

Figures may not total to 100, due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/09/16120959/10005>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/01/19160856/0>

Incidents of domestic abuse may lead to the recording of crimes and offences of various types. In 2005, the most common crime or offence recorded was petty assault, with 22% of all incidents being recorded as such, followed by breach of the peace at 17% of all recorded incidents (Scottish Executive, 2005c). The majority of incidents of domestic abuse, however classified as a crime, took place in the victim's home or in the joint home of the victim and perpetrator in 2005, as Table 8.18 indicates. There were 19,730 incidents in the victim's home, or 43% of all incidents, and a further 17,004 incidents in the joint home of the victim and perpetrator, or 37% of all incidents.

Table 8.18 Incidents of domestic abuse recorded by the police, by location of incident 1 January - 31 December 2005

	Number								
	Joint home	Victim's home	Perpetrator's home	Other house	Street	Licensed premises	Other	Unknown	Total
Non-sexual crimes of violence	180	259	78	30	70	6	7	13	643
Crimes of indecency	32	44	21	2	4	-	2	1	106
Crimes of dishonesty	46	248	9	10	40	4	5	10	372
Fire-raising, vandalism, etc.	288	1,088	30	49	146	6	11	35	1,653
Other crimes	315	1,409	54	83	261	31	20	61	2,234
Miscellaneous offences	7,246	7,349	1,121	643	1,747	213	298	328	18,945
Motor vehicle offences	1	19	1	3	2	-	-	4	30
Behaviour not amounting to a crime	8,896	9,314	1,050	556	1,186	86	265	460	21,813
Total	17,004	19,730	2,364	1,376	3,456	346	608	912	45,796

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2005*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/01/19160856/0>

Table 8.19 Action taken by the police against identified perpetrators of crimes or offences of domestic abuse cleared up by the police, by police force area 1 January - 31 December 2005

	Referral to procurator fiscal	Police warning	Other action ⁽¹⁾	No further action	Not recorded	Total
Central	421	6	20	6	3	456
Dumfries & Galloway	447	231	128	88	-	894
Fife	1,028	63	284	21	-	1,396
Grampian	1,054	252	1,586	213	-	3,105
Lothian & Borders	2,090	207	344	3	70	2,714
Northern	549	-	1	-	-	550
Strathclyde	8,144	136	2,585	240	3	11,108
Tayside	1,401	1	6	2,352	-	3,760
Scotland	15,134	896	4,954	2,923	76	23,983

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *Domestic Abuse Recorded by the Police in Scotland, 1 January – 31 December 2005*.

1. 'Other action' includes such action as referrals to support groups such as victim support.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/01/19160856/0>

The majority of crimes or offences of domestic abuse cleared up by the police were referred on to the Procurator Fiscal for action, or 63% of such cases, while in a further 24% of cases a police warning was given or other action taken, such as referral to a group, as Table 8.19 above indicates.

The statistics on domestic abuse recorded by police, as noted above, cannot give a true indication of the prevalence of domestic abuse, though they indicate the seriousness of this crime, given the large number of incidents of abuse recorded every year since these records commenced in 1999. Surveys such as the Scottish Crime Survey, through interviewing a representative sample of the population, are able to provide better data on the prevalence of particular types of crime compared to police figures on crime. Tables 8.20 to 8.22 below illustrate which groups in the population are typically victims of different types of crime. Table 8.20 below indicates that older people of both sexes were the least likely to be victims of household or personal crime in 2002, while with respect to both household and personal crime there were no significant differences in the experience of victimisation either by age group or by gender where people were victims of such crimes only once. Where repeat victimisation occurred, younger age groups of both men and women were more likely to experience this.

Table 8.20 Prevalence of victimisation by sex and age, 2002

	Percentage							
	Household crime				Personal crime			
	Once	Twice	3 or more	Total	Once	Twice	3 or more	Total
Male								
16-24	13	5	4	22	14	3	4	21
25-44	13	5	5	23	5	1	2	7
45-59	14	3	4	21	4	1	-	5
60 or over	9	2	1	12	1	0.4	-	1
Total male	12	4	4	19	5	1	1	7
Female								
16-24	15	4	3	22	8	1	2	12
25-44	14	4	5	23	6	1	1	7
45-59	13	6	3	22	2	0.3	0.3	2
60 or over	7	1	1	9	1	-	-	1
Total female	11	3	3	18	4	0.4	1	5

Source: Scottish Crime Survey, 2003. Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*.

Notes: Household crime includes vandalism, theft from a motor vehicle, housebreaking, theft of a motor vehicle, bicycle theft and other household theft.

Personal crime includes assault, robbery, theft from the person and other personal theft.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

That younger people are likely to be more vulnerable to crime is also indicated by Table 8.21 below. This shows that in 2002, people in younger age groups were more likely than older people to be victims of assault, in particular those in the 16-24 age group. Young men were almost twice as likely as young women to be victims of assault. Younger people were also more likely to be victims of robbery, though the overall proportions of the population who were victims of robbery were very small.

Table 8.21 Prevalence of violent crime by sex and age, 2002

Percentage	Assault	Robbery	All violent crime
Male			
16-24	12.0	1.0	13.0
25-44	5.0	0.2	5.0
45-59	2.0	1.0	3.0
60 or over	1.0	-	1.0
Total male	4.0	0.4	5.0
Female			
16-24	7.0	1.0	8.0
25-44	3.0	0.4	4.0
45-59	1.0	-	1.0
60 or over	0.3	-	0.3
Total female	2.0	0.3	3.0

Source: Scottish Crime Survey, 2003. Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

Table 8.22 below provides a comparison of victimisation for household, personal and violent crime for 1999 and 2002. This suggests that there was an increase in the overall proportions of the population being victims of all these types of crime between 1999 and 2002.

Table 8.22 Prevalence of victimisation by sex 1999, and 2002

Age	Percentage of respondents					
	1999					
	Household crime		Personal crime		Violent crime	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All ages	16	15	6	3	4	1
16-24	19	20	20	10	15	2
25-44	22	22	7	3	5	2
45-64	14	15	3	2	1	1
65 & over	11	7	1	2	-	1
Age	2002					
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All ages	22	22	21	12	13	8
16-24	23	23	7	7	5	4
25-44	21	22	5	2	3	1
45-64	12	9	1	1	1	0
65 & over	5	18	7	5	5	3

Source: Scottish Crime Survey 2002; Scottish Crime Survey 2003.

Notes: Household crime includes vandalism, theft from a motor vehicle, housebreaking, theft of a motor vehicle, bicycle theft and other household theft.

Personal crime includes assault, robbery, theft from the person and other personal theft.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

8.8 PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME

The previous section outlined findings of the Scottish Crime Survey on patterns of victimisation, which suggested that in the case of some crimes there were few gender differences but that men were more likely to be victims of violent crime, especially younger men. Perceptions of crime may be at variance with recorded levels of crime and experience of

victimisation, but such perceptions can be powerful determinants of people's behaviour. Tables 8.23 to 8.26 below illustrate gender differences in perceptions of crime.

Table 8.23 below indicates that in 2003 women were more likely than men to think that crime was an extremely or quite serious problem in Scotland, 85% of women compared to 80% of men. Women were also more likely than men to think that there was more crime in their area than there had been two years previously, 49% of women compared to 40% of men. There were also some differences in perceptions according to age. Young women aged 16-24 were most likely among women to think crime was a serious problem, while young men aged 16-24 were least likely among men to think so.

Table 8.23 Public perceptions of crime in Scotland, 2003

Percentage	crime is an 'extremely' or 'quite' serious problem in Scotland today	there is 'a lot' or 'a little' more crime in this area than two years ago
Male		
16-24	76	34
25-44	81	42
45-59	82	34
60 or over	80	43
Total male	80	40
Female		
16-24	90	45
25-44	84	49
45-59	87	50
60 or over	84	50
Total female	85	49

Source: Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

Table 8.24 The percentage stating that certain crimes are 'very' or 'fairly' common in their local area, 2003

Percentage	People having their homes broken into	People being mugged or robbed	People being assaulted or attacked in public
Male			
16-24	2	23	42
25-44	25	12	21
45-59	26	13	19
60 or over	29	13	17
Total male	26	14	23
Female			
16-24	39	32	45
25-44	29	19	26
45-59	30	16	20
60 or over	28	12	16
Total female	30	18	24

Source: Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

There were also some differences in perceptions of the frequency of certain types of crimes in people's local area, as Table 8.24 above shows. In 2003, there was little difference in the overall proportions of men and women who perceived mugging and robbery or assaults or attacks in public as being fairly common, though there were some differences in the

perceptions of these according to different age groups of men and women. Women were more likely than men, however, to perceive people having their homes broken into as fairly common in their area, 30% compared to 26%, with the difference in perception being particularly marked for the 16-24 age group, with 39% of women of this age having this perception compared to 23% of men in the 16-24 age group.

Women were much more likely than men to report feeling unsafe after dark. As Table 8.25 below shows, in 2003 44% of women reported feeling unsafe walking alone after dark compared to 18% of men, and 11% of women reported feeling unsafe at home alone after dark compared to 3% of men. The oldest age group tended to be more likely to report feeling unsafe. This was particularly the case for women, where 52% of women aged 60 or over reported feeling unsafe walking alone after dark.

Table 8.25 Percentage of respondents reporting feeling 'very' or 'fairly' unsafe after dark, 2003

Percentage	Walking alone after dark	At home alone after dark
Male		
16-24	15	3
25-44	13	3
45-59	16	4
60 or over	31	4
Total male	18	3
Female		
16-24	41	13
25-44	40	10
45-59	40	9
60 or over	52	11
Total female	44	11

Source: Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

Women were also more likely than men to report feeling worried about becoming the victim of a crime, as Table 8.26 below shows. This was true in 2003 with respect to all types of crime about which the question was asked in the survey. There was a particularly notable difference in men's and women's responses on worry about being mugged or robbed, or being assaulted or attacked. In the case of the former, 48% of women said they worried about this compared to 27% of men, and in the case of the latter 42% of women said they worried about this compared to 27% of men. There were also some variations by age, with younger women consistently being the groups among women who were most likely to report being worried about crime, while there was no comparable consistency among men of any age group.

Table 8.26 Percentage of respondents reporting feeling 'very' or 'fairly' worried about becoming a victim of crime, 2003

Percentage	You or someone you live with becoming a victim of crime	Having your home broken into	Being mugged or robbed	Being assaulted or attacked
Male				
16-24	32	32	26	29
25-44	53	43	21	24
45-59	56	46	34	30
60 or over	32	43	30	26
Total male	46	42	27	27
Female				
16-24	56	49	58	57
25-44	57	48	46	43
45-59	53	52	51	45
60 or over	30	45	44	32
Total female	48	48	48	42

Source: Scottish Executive (2004b) *Scottish Crime Survey, 2003*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2004/12/20379/48077>

8.9 CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM WORKFORCES

This section looks at the gender composition of the workforces that make up the criminal justice system, including the legal profession and judiciary, courts services, prison services, police and social work staff who work with offenders. It also looks at the gender balance within senior positions within these workforces and professions.

Women are now entering the legal profession in greater numbers than ever before, and have done so at a proportionately faster rate than men since the late 1980s (see MacMillan et al, 2005). They remain under-represented at senior level, however. Table 8.27 below indicates the gender balance within the Scottish Legal Profession in 2000. Women were 35% of solicitors on the Law Society of Scotland roll. They made up 53% of employees within law firms and 54% of associates, but only 17% of consultants and 17% of partners. Women were particularly under-represented at senior levels within the Judiciary, making up only 3% of judges in 2000, and 11% of sheriffs.

Table 8.27 Gender composition of Scottish legal profession, 2000

	Male	Female	Total	% female
Judges	32	1	33	3
Sheriffs	209	25	234	11
Queen's Counsel	75	6	81	7
Advocates	311	81	392	21
Solicitors on Law Society of Scotland roll *	6,193	3,301	9,494	35
Solicitors practising in Scotland	5,060	2,844	7,904	36
Employees	1,583	1,786	3,369	53
Associates	341	404	745	54
Consultants	202	40	242	17
Partners	2,934	614	3,548	17

Source: Scottish Executive, Law Society of Scotland

By 2002/03 the number of male solicitors practising in Scotland had risen to 5,505 and the number of female solicitors to 3,601, with women making up 39.5% of the total (MacMillan

et al, 2005). By 2002/03, women had also slightly increased their share of legal partnerships, with 20% of partners being women (MacMillan et al, 2005).

Table 8.28 Gender composition of the judiciary in Scotland

		Male	Female	Total	% female
Senators of the College of Justice	Apr-01	29	3	32	9
	Mar-06	29	5	34	15
Temporary Judges	Apr-01	7	0	7	0
	Mar-06	12	1	13	8
Sheriff Principal	Apr-01	6	0	6	0
	Mar-06	6	0	6	0
Sheriffs	Apr-01	103	17	120	14
	Mar-06	102	25	127	20
Temporary/Part-time Sheriffs	Jan-99	115	16	131	12
	Mar-06	46	14	60	23
Justices of the Peace (sitting justices only)	Dec-04	386	222	608	37

Source: Scottish Executive (2006d) *Update on Scottish Executive Action on Recommendations within the Strategic Group on Women's Report*, Scottish Executive, 2006b.

Statistics for Dec 2004 and March 2006 are from SEJD. April 2001 statistics are from the Official report of the Scottish Parliament. January 1999 statistics (for temporary sheriffs) are from Hansard.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/30094442/0>

Table 8.28 above indicates the changes that have occurred in the gender composition of the judiciary in recent years. In 2006, women made up 15% of Senators of the College of Justice, and were 8% of temporary judges. They made up 20% of sheriffs, 23% of temporary sheriffs, and 37% of sitting Justices of the Peace.

Women made up the majority of staff in the Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Services and Scottish Court Services in both 2000 and 2005, and in both cases increased their share in the intervening period, as Table 8.29 below shows. The majority of employees in the Scottish Prison Service were men, though the proportion of women in the Prison Service has increased over time. In 1995, men were 86% of Scottish Prison Service staff, and by 2005 this had decreased to 78%.

Table 8.29 Gender composition of Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Services, Scottish Court Services, and Scottish Prison Service

	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Services				
2000	380	730	1,120	65
2005	465	944	1,409	67
Scottish Court Services				
2000	390	410	800	51
2005	421	614	1,035	59
Scottish Prison Service				
1995	3,947	628	4,575	14
2000	3,800	820	4,620	18
2005	3,330	917	4,247	22

Source: COPFS, SPS and SCS annual reports, data obtained from by Scottish Executive from relevant organisations

Policing is another area of the criminal justice system in which men remain the majority, though women's share of the workforce has also been increasing. As Table 8.30 below indicates, in 1995 men made up 88% of all police officers, and by 2005 this had decreased to

79%. Women are under-represented at senior levels in the police force. While women were 21% of all police officers in 2005, they were only 7% of Chief Inspectors, 9% of Inspectors, and 12% of Sergeants. These proportions, however, represented an increase compared to 1995 and 2000.

Table 8.30 Police strength by rank and sex, 1995, 2000, 2005

Rank	1995		2000		2005	
	Strength	% Female	Strength	% Female	Strength	% Female
All ranks	14,323	12	14,699	16	16,214	21
Higher ranks	244	1	226	4	248	6
Chief Inspector	249	4	216	6	273	7
Inspector	729	2	758	4	899	9
Sergeant	2,060	5	2,045	7	2,307	12
Constable	11,041	14	11,454	19	12,487	24

Source: Quarterly returns to SEJD from the 8 Scottish police forces

In 2005, women made up the majority of Social Work Services Staff working with offenders, as Table 8.31 below shows. They were 63% of Fieldwork staff and 56% of Residential staff. Women were under-represented at senior level, making up 29% of service managers and 46% of team/leaders and managers among Fieldwork staff.

Table 8.31 Social Work Services Staff – Services for Offenders, (headcount) 2005

	Male	Female	Total	Female as % of total
Fieldwork Staff				
Service Managers	27	11	38	29
Team Leaders/Managers	32	27	59	46
Senior Social Workers	49	81	130	62
Main Grade Social Workers	232	469	701	67
Community Service Staff	231	63	294	21
Supervised Attendance Staff	35	47	82	57
SW Assistants	38	103	141	73
Support Services (including Admin/Clerical)	26	334	360	3
Total	670	1,135	1,805	63
Residential staff				
Head of Residential Home for Adults	1	1	2	50
Adult Residential Care Supervisor	6	11	17	65
Adult Residential Care Practitioner	15	11	26	42
Adult Residential Care Support Worker	0	3	3	100
Support Services (including Admin/Clerical)	0	1	1	100
Ancillary Staff	1	2	3	67
Total	23	29	52	56

Source: Scottish Executive (2006e) *Staff of Scottish Local Authority Social Work Services, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/06/27091022/0>

Children's Panels also form a part of the justice system, and are defined as a Tribunal Non-Departmental Public Body. In 2005 there were 2413 members of children's panels across Scotland (Scottish Executive, 2006f). Of these 1430 were women (59%) and 983 were men (41%). Just over 1% of panel members was of non-white minority ethnic origin (members declare their ethnicity voluntarily, and almost 400 members had no ethnic origin recorded).

8.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has examined statistical evidence of gender differences in patterns of offending and in penalties for offences, patterns of victimisation and perceptions of crime, and the gender composition of workforces within the criminal justice system. The numbers of men who commit offences and the rate of offending for men as a proportion of the population are both much higher than for women. Men are more likely than women to commit serious offences and to commit violent offences, and women are less likely than men to receive custodial sentences. Correspondingly, there are far greater numbers of men than of women in prison, though the numbers of both men and women in prison in Scotland have continued to rise over the past decade, with the rate of increase for women being much faster than the rate of increase for men. With respect to victimisation, men are more likely to be victims of violent crime in general, with young men being twice as likely as young women to be victims of assault, while women are overwhelmingly the victims of domestic violence, and of crimes of indecency such as rape. Women are more likely than men to perceive crime as a problem and to be worried about crime. Within certain sectors of criminal justice workforces, women remain in the minority, and are particularly under-represented at senior levels, for example, in the judiciary and in police forces, while they make up the majority of those working with offenders in social work services and of children's panel members.

Research on criminal justice and related issues which has a gender dimension has tended to focus on issues concerning women, with a notable exception being research commissioned by the Scottish Executive on domestic abuse against men (Gadd et al, 2002), discussed below, and research on patterns of youth offending (Smith and McAra, 2004). Analysis of data from the Edinburgh study on youth offending indicated that there was a substantial difference between boys and girls in levels of serious delinquency, but a relatively small difference in levels of broad delinquency (Smith and McAra, 2004). This study found that delinquency increased sharply between age 12 and 14, and then started to decline, with the gender gap in offending being smallest around age 14. The types of delinquency which girls and boys tended to be involved in differed, with boys being much more likely than girls to be involved in types of delinquency that involved carrying a weapon, housebreaking, robbery, theft from cars, and cruelty to animals. Explanations for patterns of delinquency are complex, and the gender difference cannot be explained by the variables considered in the study, such as socio-economic status, weak links to school, and parenting. The findings were, however, consistent with the view that broad delinquency tends to be limited to adolescence, while serious offending is more likely to persist throughout the life course and to be more common in boys than girls.

As noted above, concern about the number of suicides of young women occurring in Cornton Vale between 1995 and 1997 resulted in a review being carried out of community disposals and the use of custody for women offenders. The resulting report, *A Safer Way* (Scottish Office, 1998), recommended a reduction in the use of custodial sentences for women offenders. Subsequently an Inter-Agency Forum on Women's Offending met from 1998 to 2000, followed by a Ministerial Group on Women's Offending, established at the end of 2000. The report of this group, *A Better Way* (Scottish Executive, 2002), recognised that although various changes had taken place at Cornton Vale to address the problems previously identified, further suicides had taken place, and that the number of female prisoners had continued to rise. This was despite the fact that many of the women in prison posed very little risk to the communities in which they lived, and that prison was not the best place for most of the women concerned, many of whom were in custody as a result of fine defaults, or who had drug problems. The report found that most women who received short custodial sentences did

so for relatively minor, non-violent offences, and the group concluded that most of these could be dealt with in the community. Their findings also led them to conclude that sentencing had become tougher. The report also recognised that, because historically the numbers of women offenders had been low, the approach and focus of the criminal justice system had been informed by an analysis of male patterns of offending and geared towards men. It argued that women's needs were, however, different in various ways, including physical, psychological, dietary, social, vocational and health needs, and that the prison service should meet these needs appropriately, in order to help them stop offending. The report also proposed targets for reducing the proportion of women offenders held in custody. Despite the concern about the rising numbers of women prisoners, which has led to scrutiny of the issues, target setting and recommendations, the numbers of women in prison in Scotland have continued to rise. It was recently reported by the HM Inspectorate of Prisons that there had been an increase in the number of women convicted of violent offences, which suggests that this has been a contributory factor to rising numbers (HM Inspectorate of Prisons, 2006). As noted above, in response to such concerns the Scottish Executive has funded the 218 Centre, a project working to support women offenders to reduce the likelihood of their receiving custodial sentences. A recent evaluation of this project concluded that, while at this stage it was impossible to assess the project in terms of measurable outcomes, sentencers and prosecutors valued it as a resource, and that the 218 project represented a model of intervention based on the needs of women in the criminal justice system (Scottish Executive, 2006g).

The Scottish Executive's strategy to tackle domestic abuse represents a major policy initiative at national level. This built on previous research which examined women's experience of domestic abuse and the factors contributing to this, and which examined service provision responding to women experiencing domestic violence (see Henderson, 1997). The role that Scottish Women's Aid, local Women's Aid groups, local authorities and other service providers played in challenging domestic violence in the 1990s has been widely recognised (for accounts of strategies to tackle domestic violence in Scotland, see Breitenbach and Mackay, 2001), and these developments have provided the basis for the introduction of the national strategy in 2000. The strategy included a commitment to evaluation of actions, and this has resulted in a series of reports.

An evaluation of the Zero Tolerance 'Respect' Pilot Project concluded that this project had had a positive impact, and that it confirmed the need for primary prevention work with young people to address violence against women (Henderson, 2002). A study which investigated community perceptions of domestic abuse in the Western Isles indicated that in a rural community domestic abuse was often kept hidden or condoned, and that there was a need for service providers to be more challenging of such attitudes, and to enhance the quality of inter-agency working and service provision (MacNeil et al, 2004). An evaluation of the Protection from Abuse (Scotland) Act 2001, found that women were the pre-eminent users of this legislation, and that while awareness of the legislation was variable, there was an increase in interdicts under the Act (Cavanagh et al, 2003). However, it also found that there were problems with the enforcement of interdicts, with breached interdicts often not being prosecuted, and that the continued reliance on police discretion to take further action limited the protection offered by the legislation. A review of refuge provision for women, children and young people in Scotland provided a description of the level and type of refuge provision available across Scotland, and made a series of recommendations including the establishment of minimum national standards for refuge provision, that future refuge accommodation should focus on cluster refuges containing single occupancy flats and communal areas, including

age-specific facilities for children, and that there should also be dispersed flats, but that the traditional shared refuge should be ended as this was not the preference of any of the users interviewed by researchers (Fitzpatrick et al, 2003). The review also recommended an approach of pro-active support by workers, support for children, and follow-on support for both women and children. An evaluation of the Domestic Abuse Service Development Fund concluded that the projects funded by this fund were widely perceived as having a positive impact, and that there was a widely shared view that funding for this type of work should continue, though some groups had experienced problems with funding criteria, finding matching funding and the time limited nature of the funding (Reid, 2003). An evaluation of the domestic abuse Helpline established in 2000, found that this had been an invaluable source of support and information to victims of domestic abuse, their friends, relatives and agencies, and that staff and volunteers had demonstrated a high level of commitment (Louise Brown Research, 2004). The report also made recommendations for the further development of the Helpline, including on management structures, publicity, services for black and minority ethnic women, and the extension of the Helpline to a 24 hour service. Support for advocacy services to those using the pilot Domestic Abuse court in Glasgow has also been evaluated positively, and the multi-agency approach adopted is judged to have improved services for victims of domestic abuse and their children (Robinson, A, 2006).

Alongside the development of the national strategy, further analyses of data on the prevalence of domestic abuse have also been carried out. Analysis of the 2000 Scottish Crime Survey indicated that almost one in five women (19%) reported having ever experienced threats or force from a partner or ex-partner, compared to 8% of men (Macpherson, 2002). Women were more likely than men to report that incidents of domestic violence had occurred and to experience repeat victimisation in relation to domestic violence. Those in contact with an ex-partner had a disproportionately higher risk of domestic violence. A study carried out to estimate the prevalence of domestic abuse perpetrated against men found that the differences in proportions of male victims of domestic abuse identified in statistics recorded by the police in comparison to the Scottish Crime Survey could largely be explained by two factors: respondents misunderstanding the focus of the self-completion component of the Scottish Crime Survey, and the nature of male victims' experience and patterns of reporting to the police (Gadd et al, 2002). It was found that over one in four male respondents appeared to have misinterpreted the questions about domestic abuse in the self-completion survey, for example, by defining domestic more broadly than referring to partners or other household members, or including incidents of violence by strangers. It was also found that 'relative to female victims of domestic abuse, male victims in general were less likely to have been repeat victims of assault, to have been seriously injured, and to report feeling fearful in their own homes' (Gadd et al, 2002: vi). In addition, many male victims felt embarrassed, and some were themselves assailants, which may help to explain the infrequency of reporting to the police. Qualitative research carried out for the study indicated that domestic abuse against men could take life-threatening forms and could have lasting effects. However, many respondents described their partners' abuse as relatively rare and inconsequential in the longer term. Gadd et al concluded that there was not presently a need for a specialist agency for male victims of domestic abuse or for refuges, but that some victims would benefit from more advice and support.

Also related to violence against women was a study on stalking and harassment in Scotland (Morris et al, 2002). This found that the prevalence of the problem in Scotland appeared similar to that in other jurisdictions such as England and Wales and the USA, and that women, in particular younger women, were most likely to be victims. A review of research

suggested that stalking and harassment was overwhelmingly associated with ex-intimate partners, that offenders have often been in a violent and abusive relationship with the victim, and that the stalking begins when their partner ends the relationship. Cases of consecutive or serial stalking were found to be common. There was, however, relatively little support for new legislation, either from practitioners or victims, but rather most interviewees thought that current police practice could be improved. Police Domestic Abuse Liaison Officers were widely viewed as an excellent source of support, with social work counsellors also being viewed positively.

A baseline study on the law of evidence in sexual offence trials, reviewed the operation of the Criminal Procedure (Scotland) Act 1995, as a baseline for monitoring the amendments to this act made by the Sexual Offences (Procedure and Evidence) (Scotland) Act 2002 (Burman et al, 2005). The intention in changing the law was specifically to prevent the accused from personally cross examining the complainer, and to strengthen restrictions on the use of evidence about the sexual history and character of the complainer. The review of the operation of the 1995 Act found that about two thirds of complainers in the High Court experienced audible distress during questioning. It was also found that applications to introduce sexual evidence were made in about a fifth of High Court trials, with two thirds of such applications being made in cases involving rape charges. The defence's reasons for such applications were to suggest or show consent, test the credibility of the complainer, suggest or show motive for false allegation, or suggest that the complainer had sex with a third party on or around the time of the alleged offence. Applications were sometimes opposed, but were usually successful. Sexual history or character evidence of the type prohibited by the 1995 Act was also introduced without application in half of the sample High Court cases, and consent was introduced as a defence in a little over one in four High Court applications. The report concluded that the reforms of the criminal law and procedure introduced in the 1995 Act to act as a 'shield' for complainers had been limited in their effectiveness.

As noted above, the regulation of prostitution has been the subject of debate and legislation is currently going through the Scottish Parliament. The Expert Group on Prostitution reviewed research evidence from other countries, examined the position in the largest Scottish cities, Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow, and spoke to service providers working with women, and to women themselves (Scottish Executive, 2004a). The Group concluded that street prostitution was overwhelmingly an urban phenomenon, concentrated in the four large cities. While numbers are difficult to quantify, an estimate was made of about 1,400 women being involved, with about 180 likely to be on the streets of the four cities each night. Key common factors in street prostitution were identified: it was overwhelmingly a survival behaviour for the women involved; poverty, drug misuse, and to a lesser extent alcohol misuse, were linked to street prostitution; redevelopment was affecting the context in which street prostitution took place; and appropriate specific service responses needed to be deployed. The Group also examined approaches to the regulation of prostitution in other countries and concluded that the role of the criminal law was best confined to protection of the vulnerable, tackling coercion, promotion of community safety, and prevention of public alarm and offence. The Group recommended that the creation of a new statutory offence should be explored which would target the offensiveness and alarm aspect of street prostitution, but which would also address behaviours such as 'kerb crawling'. The Group also proposed to investigate further aspects of prostitution, that which took place indoors, trafficking, and male prostitution. That there is a need for a national strategic framework for approaches to street prostitution, as recommended by the Expert Group, is confirmed by a study indicating the different approaches adopted at local level (Holmes, 2005). This found in

particular that attitudes towards operating a Tolerance Zone for street prostitution ranged from the successful operation of this in Aberdeen to complete opposition to this approach in Glasgow.

There is little research which links ethnicity and gender with respect to issues of crime and justice in Scotland. The audit of minority ethnic research (Netto et al, 2001) found in general that fear and experience of racial harassment was a major concern for black and minority ethnic people, and that there was little data on race crime. Analysis of a booster sample on ethnicity in the 2000 Scottish Crime Survey found that ethnic minorities had a higher rate of household victimisation (e.g. vandalism, housebreaking, theft of and from vehicles) than White people, and that ethnic minorities were more likely to suffer abusive comments, with in both cases ethnic minorities being more likely than White people to perceive such incidents as racially motivated (Clark and Leven, 2002). Correspondingly, ethnic minorities were much more likely to be concerned about racial attacks, and to adopt risk avoidance strategies. The analysis did not, however, include a gender breakdown of data. A study investigating the use of 'stop and search' powers by the police among young people found little evidence that this was a high profile issue in Scotland, but also found anecdotal evidence of young people's alienation from the police with respect to both White and ethnic minority young people (Reid Howie Associates, 2002). Recorded stops and searches investigated by the study mostly involved young people under 25, and were mostly of young men (15-19 being the peak years), with around 11% of stops and searches being of girls and women. Around 6% of those stopped, and 3% of those searched were from visible black and ethnic minority groups, though the research concluded that data were not adequate to properly measure whether this was proportionate or disproportionate. The research recommended better data gathering on ethnicity at all points in the criminal justice system.

Socio-economic status is linked to patterns of offending behaviour, though this relationship is complex and not always clear cut. However, there are certain types of crimes and/or penalties which are clearly linked to poverty such as women's involvement in street prostitution, and penalties for fine default. The risk of crime is perceived to be greater in deprived communities, and the gender gap in perceptions of and worry about crime is also marked, with women being more likely than men to be concerned about walking alone after dark or to feel unsafe at home (Scottish Executive, 2005c).

The problem of the under-representation of women in senior positions in a range of professions has been recognised (see Kay, 2001), and this has been acknowledged as an issue with respect specifically to the legal profession and to the judiciary. Recently the EOC commissioned a study on the position of women in the legal profession in Scotland (Macmillan et al, 2005). This examined in particular the position of solicitors, the gender balance of practising solicitors, gender differentials in pay, and the gender balance within senior positions, such as partners in legal firms. This found that there was a continuing gender gap in levels of remuneration, and continuing under-representation of women at equity partner level. The gender pay gap was particularly wide in private practice, with those women working part-time being most disadvantaged. The report called for a comprehensive strategy to tackle equality issues within the legal profession.

As part of the process of reviewing the judicial appointments procedure, a study was undertaken to assess progress on gender and diversity representation within the judiciary. This found that the proportion of women in the judiciary had increased since 1998, and that the proportion of female applicants had also risen, but argued that a more proactive approach

needed to be taken to increase women's representation, as well as that of ethnic minorities and disabled people (Mackay, 2005). In particular, comparative research has suggested that women face systemic and significant barriers in the pursuit of legal careers and judicial office, and that this position is unlikely to change without recourse to active intervention to influence both supply and demand factors relating to prospective candidates for judicial office.

In general there are significant differences in the incidence of criminal offences by men and women, and in the types of crimes they commit. Though overall policy goals might be similar for men and women in the general sense of aiming at the reduction in numbers of offences and numbers of men and women in prison, a goal of gender equality would seem to have little application in this area. It is also clear that factors influencing offending behaviours are complex, and that the factors influencing girls' and women's behaviour differ in certain respects from those factors which influence boys' and men's behaviour. Existing evidence also suggests that responses to offending, and the types of rehabilitation programmes and support offered to offenders, need to recognise gender differences in support needs. With respect to victimisation, there are also gender differences, in particular in relation to gender specific crimes such as domestic violence and rape, and therefore there are different needs in relation to police responses and victim support. Thus public policy responses are not so much a case of ensuring equal treatment in the sense of treating individual men and women in the same way, but rather of an equitable provision of services which recognise gender differences and gender specific needs. Data relevant to these differences should be used appropriately by public bodies within the criminal justice system. With regard to workforces and representation in senior positions, data on the gender composition of these should be made available publicly on a regular basis.

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CHAPTER NINE HOUSING

This chapter outlines evidence of the gendered experience of housing, with regard to housing tenure, quality of housing and neighbourhoods, homelessness, and housing support. A substantial proportion of the population lives in heterosexual couple households, whether with or without dependent children, and in this sense for many men and women housing access is the same, though characteristics such as low socio-economic status, ethnicity and disability are associated with housing disadvantage for both women and men. In addition, there may be gender differences in how living conditions are experienced, such as accessibility of work, shops, schools, facilities for children, and so on. However, across the range of different types of household some gender differences are discernible.

9.1 POLICY CONTEXT

The Scottish Executive, in its Housing Policy Statement (Scottish Executive, 2005a) set out its key aims and objectives for housing in Scotland. The Executive aims to raise the quality of homes, build strong sustainable communities, and to provide more affordable housing for lower income groups. It supports a choice of tenures, with a mixed tenure housing system, and aims to give support of various kinds to specific groups, including more affordable housing, to young people and to elderly people living independently in their own homes. It aims to develop effective means of avoiding homelessness, and of providing immediate assistance to those who become homeless. It also aims to eradicate fuel poverty by 2016. The Executive's regeneration strategy, which includes action targeted particularly on areas of multiple deprivation, aims to close the gap in opportunities experienced by residents of such communities compared to the population in general. This includes seeking to improve educational performance, employment opportunities, health, and community safety. The Executive is also concerned to tackle anti-social behaviour and problem families. To meet these objectives, the Scottish Executive has passed legislation on housing, homelessness, and planning, and has committed funds to community regeneration programmes, and to initiatives designed to tackle fuel poverty such as the installation of central heating in older people's houses, and support towards fuel costs to those on low incomes.

9.2 WOMEN AND MEN AND HOUSING PROVISION

Key points:

- In 2005, around half of single pensioners owned their homes outright, 51% of men and 48% of women, with 42% of both male and female pensioners being in rented accommodation.
- Single parents were least likely to be homeowners, with 68% being in rented accommodation in 2005.
- Single men were more reliant than single women on rented accommodation in 2005, 50% compared with 43%.

- In 2005, of households where men were the highest income earners, 74% were homeowners compared to 55% of households where women were the highest income earners.
- In 2005, households where women were the highest income earners were more likely to be in rented accommodation than households where men were the highest income earners, 43% compared to 25%.
- There were no marked differences in the attitudes of men and women to their neighbourhoods, with the aspect liked best about neighbourhoods by both men and women being its quiet and peaceful character, and with almost half of both sexes saying there was nothing they disliked about their neighbourhood in 2005.
- Of those making applications to local authorities under homelessness legislation lone parents and single men make up the biggest groups. In 2005/06, single males made up 43% of all applicants, while lone parents (female and male) made up 25% of all applicants.

9.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

9.3.1 Key sources of data

The key sources of gender disaggregated data relevant to housing are the Scottish Household Survey, and administrative data on homelessness and housing support. The Scottish Household Survey provides gender disaggregated data about patterns of housing tenure and perceptions of neighbourhoods, though this has not been routinely published. Regularly published administrative data in Scottish Executive statistical bulletins on homelessness and on housing support include some gender disaggregated data. In general, the fact that much data on housing is produced for households rather than individuals, means that gender disaggregated data on housing is limited, though there would be scope for further analysis of existing sources.

9.3.2 Possible uses of data

Public bodies, such as government departments and agencies, local authorities, and housing associations, should take account of gender disaggregated data in planning housing provision and developments, in housing allocation policies, in regeneration policies, and in housing management. This might include, for example, the development of different types of housing provision for women leaving violent partners. It might also include addressing issues such as: affordable housing for those groups currently disadvantaged, including young single men and women, lone parents, disabled people, minority ethnic groups, and lone pensioners; amenities/facilities in neighbourhoods; and security and safety.

9.4 HOUSING TENURE

Housing policies since the 1980s have resulted in a substantial shift in the balance of tenure between privately owned homes and homes rented from social landlords, in particular, local authorities. This shift occurred across the UK, but was particularly dramatic in Scotland, where previously the majority of homes were provided by local authorities. Between 1981 and 2004 owner occupation in Scotland increased from 36% of dwellings to 66%, while in the

same period social renting decreased from 54% to 26%. Furthermore, there has also been a continuing transfer of tenancies with the social rented sector from local authorities to housing associations. In 2004 housing associations were responsible for 11% of dwellings in Scotland compared to 3% in 1993, while local authorities share had reduced to 16% from 34% in the same period (Scottish Executive, 2006a). There appears to be little, if any, research on the gendered impacts of such shifts in patterns of housing tenure.

As Table 9.1 below shows, in 1999 proportionately more single pensioners owned their houses outright than other types of single adult households, though half of all single pensioners (54% of men and 51% of women) were renting their accommodation, primarily from social landlords. Of female single parents (the numbers of male single parent households were too few to provide robust figures) 76% lived in rented accommodation, primarily from social landlords, while 23% were homeowners. Single men were more likely to be in rented accommodation than were single women (52% compared to 44%).

Table 9.1 Tenure by selected types of household, 1999

Housing tenure	Column percentages						All types of household
	Single adult		Single parent		Single pensioner		
	Male	Female	Male*	Female	Male	Female	
Owned outright	13	14	..	4	37	41	24
Buying with help of loan/mortgage	33	39	..	19	7	6	38
Rent - LA/SH	31	29	..	57	42	40	26
Rent - HA, Co-op	7	5	..	13	8	8	5
Rent - private landlord	13	10	..	6	4	3	5
Other	3	2	..	1	2	2	2
<i>Base</i>	<i>1,179</i>	<i>915</i>	<i>..</i>	<i>754</i>	<i>543</i>	<i>1,742</i>	<i>14,680</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first six months of 2000). Scottish Executive (2001a) *Men and Women in Scotland: A Statistical Profile*.

*Analysis of tenure for male single parents is not possible due to the small sample size

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/mnw-00.asp>

Table 9.2 below shows a similar pattern in 2005, with single pensioners being even more likely than in 1999 to own their homes outright, with a corresponding reduction in the proportion renting to 42% for both men and women. The proportion of single parents in rented accommodation had declined, but was still substantial at 68%. Single men continued to be more reliant than single women on rented accommodation, 50% compared with 43%.

Table 9.2 Tenure by selected types of household, 2005

Housing tenure	Column percentages					All types of household
	Single adult		Single parent	Single pensioner		
	Male	Female	All**	Male	Female	
Owned outright	15	17	5	51	48	28
Buying with help of loan/mortgage	33	37	25	5	6	37
Rent - LA/SH	23	20	36	28	27	17
Rent - HA, Co-op	10	10	18	11	13	8
Rent - private landlord	17	13	13	3	2	7
Other	2	2	3	3	3	2
<i>Base</i>	<i>1,381</i>	<i>1,079</i>	<i>888</i>	<i>642</i>	<i>1,866</i>	<i>15,395</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2005

**Males and females combined due to small sample of male single parent families

The differential access to income of men and women is reflected in the patterns of tenure indicated in Table 9.3 and 9.4 below. In 1999, where the Highest Income Householder (HIH) (i.e. the adult member of the household earning the most pay) was female, the proportion of homeownership was smaller, especially those buying with a mortgage or loan – 27% of households where the HIH was a woman compared to 45% of households where the HIH was a man. By contrast households where the HIH was female were much more likely to be in rented accommodation than households where the HIH was a man – 50% compared to 30%.

Table 9.3 Tenure by sex of highest income householder, 1999/2000

Tenure	Column percentages					
	All households			Households with HIH of working age		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Owned outright	23	23	23	15	11	14
Buying with mortgage or loan	45	27	39	56	39	50
Renting from local authority or Scottish Homes	21	36	27	19	33	23
Renting from housing association or co-operative	4	8	5	3	8	5
Renting from private landlord	5	6	5	6	8	6
Other	2	2	2	2	1	2
<i>Base</i>	<i>13,890</i>	<i>8,076</i>	<i>21,966</i>	<i>10,966</i>	<i>4,953</i>	<i>15,919</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first six months of 2000). Scottish Executive (2001a) *Men and Women in Scotland: A Statistical Profile*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/mnw-00.asp>

The proportion of households which either owned their home outright or were buying it with a mortgage or loan had increased by 2005, as Table 9.4 below indicates. By 2005, 74% of male HIH households were homeowners compared to 68% in 1999, while 55% of female HIH households were homeowners compared to 50% in 1999. The biggest increase was in the proportion of those owning their homes outright, and this was true for both men and women. Overall, however, the gap between male and female HIH households persisted. Similarly, though proportionately fewer, female HIH households continued to be more likely to be in rented accommodation than male HIH households, 43% compared to 25%.

Table 9.4 Tenure by sex of highest income householder, 2005

Tenure	Column percentages					
	All households			Households with HIH of working age		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Owned outright	30	27	28	18	13	16
Buying with mortgage or loan	44	28	37	56	40	50
Renting from local authority or Scottish Homes	13	24	17	11	22	15
Renting from housing association or co-operative	5	11	8	5	11	7
Renting from private landlord	7	8	7	8	12	10
Other	2	2	2	2	2	2
<i>Base</i>	<i>9,107</i>	<i>6,288</i>	<i>15,395</i>	<i>6,837</i>	<i>3,925</i>	<i>10,762</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Table 9.5 below gives the distribution of households by sex of the HIH and MOSAIC² area. This indicates that of households in high and middle income areas the HIH is more likely to be male than female – 29% compared to 19%. Female HIH households are more likely than male HIH households to rent in disadvantaged council estates (12% compared to 10%), or to head families in council flats (12% compared to 7%). Both these categories include families on low incomes and/or benefits. Female HIH households also make up a higher proportion of renting singles than male HIH households (13% compared to 8%), a category which includes flats for older people and sheltered accommodation.

Table 9.5 MOSAIC area by sex of Highest Income Householder, 1999/2000

	Column percentages					
	Households					
	All households			Households with HIH of working age		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
High income areas	13	8	11	13	7	11
Middle income owners	16	11	14	16	11	15
Low income owners	9	9	9	9	9	9
Better off council	17	17	17	17	18	17
Disadvantaged council estates	10	12	11	9	11	10
Families in council flats	7	12	9	7	14	9
Renting singles	8	13	10	7	11	8
Singles and flats	8	11	9	9	12	10
Country dwellers	9	6	8	8	5	7
Institutional areas	4	3	4	4	3	4
<i>Base</i>	<i>13,881</i>	<i>8,072</i>	<i>21,953</i>	<i>10,957</i>	<i>4,950</i>	<i>15,907</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first six months of 2000). Scottish Executive (2001b) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

Table 9.6 MOSAIC area by sex of Highest Income Householder, 2005

	Column percentages					
	Households					
	All households			Households with HIH of working age		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Upper echelons	8	5	6	7	4	6
Families on the move	14	7	11	16	9	14
Small town propriety	13	9	11	13	9	11
Country lifestyles	11	9	10	10	8	9
Urban sophisticates	6	6	6	7	8	7
Town centre singles	8	9	8	8	9	9
Low Spending Elders	17	16	16	16	15	15
Renters	12	17	14	12	19	14
State beneficiaries	5	9	7	5	11	7
Shades of grey	6	11	8	5	7	5
Unclassified	2	1	2	2	2	2
<i>Base</i>	<i>9,107</i>	<i>6,288</i>	<i>15,395</i>	<i>6,837</i>	<i>3,925</i>	<i>10,762</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey

² MOSAIC is a neighbourhood classification system, which draws on a range of variables, with details available at <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/02102200/5>

The categories used for the analysis by MOSAIC area for 2005 differ from those used in 1999, as Table 9.6 above indicates. These indicate a similar pattern, however, with households with a male HIH being more likely than female HIH households to be in more affluent categories such as small town propriety and country lifestyles, while households with a female HIH are more likely than male HIH households to be renters and to be state beneficiaries.

The data outlined above on patterns of housing tenure indicate that age, gender and the type of family or household in which a person lives all play a part in determining the type of housing to which they have access. While this will change over the lifecourse as people move from the parental home to independent living or to a household shared with a partner and/or children or other living arrangement, the overall pattern suggests that where households are headed by women, or where women are the highest earners in the household, they will be disadvantaged compared to their male counterparts in terms of access to housing. It is notable, in particular, that female single parent households are the most likely to be dependent on rented accommodation, and this may often be of poor quality. At the same time women in male headed households or where the man is the highest earner also share in the benefits of the better quality housing to which such households tend to have access.

9.5 PERCEPTIONS OF NEIGHBOURHOODS

Though gender has an impact on the quality of housing to which people have access, there are few gender differences in how people rate their neighbourhood, or in which aspects of their neighbourhood they like or dislike. As table 9.7 below shows, in 1999/2000, women were slightly more likely than men to rate their neighbourhood as 'very good' (52% compared to 49%), while men were slightly more likely than women to rate their neighbourhood as 'fairly good' (42% compared to 39%). Taken together, however, the proportions of men and women saying that their neighbourhoods were 'very good' and 'fairly good' were identical (91%). In 2005, the ratings given by women and men were virtually identical.

Table 9.7 Rating of neighbourhood as a place to live by sex, 1999, 2005

	Column percentages					
	Adult population					
	1999			2005		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Very good	49	52	51	52	52	52
Fairly good	42	39	41	41	41	41
Fairly poor	5	5	5	5	5	5
Very poor	3	3	3	2	3	2
No opinion	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Base</i>	8,883	11,694	20,577	5,969	8,102	14,071

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first six months of 2000), 2005. Scottish Executive (2001b) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5*; Scottish Executive (2006b) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

Similarly, there were no marked gender differences in men's and women's responses on aspects of their neighbourhoods that they liked. As indicated in Table 9.8 below, in 1999/2000 women were slightly more likely than men to say they liked good neighbours (36% compared to 33%) and friendly people (29% compared to 26%), but overall there was very little difference.

Table 9.8 Aspects men and women like about living in their neighbourhood, 1999/2000

	Column percentages		
	Adult population		
	Male	Female	Total
Quiet/peaceful	60	58	59
Good neighbours	33	36	35
Convenient shop/amenities	30	32	31
Friendly people	26	29	28
Good public transport	17	19	18
Nicely landscaped/open space	19	18	19
Safe/low crime rate	18	18	18
Good outlook/view	17	17	17
Other	17	15	16
Good local shops	14	15	14
Area well maintained	10	11	10
Good local schools	9	11	10
Good local leisure facilities	7	6	6
Nothing	5	5	5
<i>Base</i>	<i>8,739</i>	<i>11,421</i>	<i>20,160</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey (1999 and first six months of 2000). Scottish Executive (2001b) *Scottish Household Survey Bulletin, No 5*.

*Columns sum to more than 100% as multiple responses are allowed

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/shs/docs/00063-00.asp>

Analysis of Scottish Household Survey data for 2005 similarly indicates that there were no notable differences between men and women in the aspects of their neighbourhood that they liked, as Table 9.9 below shows. As in 1999, women were slightly more likely than men to say that they liked good neighbours, 37% compared to 35%.

Table 9.9 Aspects men and women like about living in their neighbourhood, 2005

	Percentages	
	Male	Female
Area well maintained	11	11
Good public transport	18	20
Nicely landscaped/open spaces	1	1
Safe area/low crime	18	18
Good outlook/view	22	21
Quiet/peaceful	58	55
Friendly people	29	30
Convenient shop/amenities	34	34
Good local shops	13	13
Good local leisure facilities	7	6
Good local schools	9	10
Good facilities for children and young people	3	3
Good neighbours	35	37
Other	15	13
None	4	5
Accessible/good location/handy	3	2
Like house	0	1
Like area/living here	0	0
Family/friends here	1	1
Near work	1	1
Community spirit	10	11
Always lived here/been here a long time	1	1
Privacy	1	1
Rural/green/countryside/seaside	3	2
Affordable/prices/sell well	0	0
No/little traffic	6	5
Safe/slow traffic	4	4
Clean/tidy place to live	7	7
No pollution/fresh air	0	0
Good quality houses/investment potential	0	0
Pace of life/quality of life	0	0
Safety, security or accessibility measures - CCTV, warden, concierge etc.	0	0
<i>Base</i>	<i>5,969</i>	<i>8,102</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey 2005

Note: Population refers to adult population aged 16 and older, living in private homes

The responses to the Scottish Household Survey question on aspects of the neighbourhood that people disliked similarly exhibited no notable differences between men and women, as Tables 9.10 and 9.11 below show. In 2000, for both men and women the aspect they disliked that was most frequently mentioned was that there were young people hanging about or that there was nothing for young people to do (11% of men and 10% of women), while 48% of men and 47% of women said there was nothing they disliked about their neighbourhood.

Table 9.10 Aspects of the neighbourhood that people particularly dislike, by sex, 2000

Aspects of Neighbourhood	Percentage	
	Men	Women
Poorly maintained / run down	5	5
Poor public transport	5	6
Poor outlook / view	2	2
Problems with neighbours	3	4
Problems with dogs	4	4
Unsafe / crime	4	4
Poor local shops	4	4
Vandalism	7	8
Poor local leisure facilities	4	4
Drug abuse	5	6
Poor local schools	1	1
Alcohol abuse	5	4
Nowhere for children to play	7	6
Noise	5	5
Young people hanging about / nothing for young people to do	11	10
Parking problems	6	5
Other	24	23
Nothing	48	47

Source: Scottish Household Survey 2000. Scottish Executive (2002) *Social Focus on Women and Men*.

Note: Population refers to adult population aged 16 and older, living in private homes

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/stats/sfwm/docs/sfwm-00.asp>

In 2005, the aspect of their neighbourhood that both women and men were likely to dislike was young people hanging about or there being nothing for young people to do, with there being a slight increase in the proportions of both sexes saying this at 15%. Similar proportions of women and men as in 1999 said there was nothing they disliked about their neighbourhood, at 45% and 47% respectively.

Table 9.11 Aspects of the neighbourhood that people particularly dislike, by sex, 2005

	Percentages	
	Male	Female
Area poorly maintained/run down	3	4
Poor public transport	4	5
Poor outlook/view	1	1
Problems with neighbours	3	5
Problems with dogs	3	4
Unsafe area/crime	3	3
Poor local shops	3	4
Vandalism and graffiti	8	8
Poor local leisure facilities	3	4
Drug abuse and dealing	5	6
Poor local schools	0	1
Alcohol abuse	4	4
Nowhere for children to play	4	5
Environmental noise	3	2
Young people hanging about/nothing for young people to do	15	15
Parking problems	6	6
Nothing	47	45
Other	1	1
Too much traffic	5	5
Remoteness/isolation	0	0
Litter and rubbish	6	6
Property/gardens in poor condition	0	0
Too much being built	0	0
Too expensive	0	0
Too far from the town/city/shops	0	0
Lack of policing	0	0
Fast/speeding traffic	6	6
Problems with road/pavements/drainage	1	1
Pollutions/smells/problem with industry	0	0
Inadequate street lighting	0	0
Lack of amenities (doctor, bank post office, etc.)	0	0
No sense of community	0	0
No jobs/investment, poverty	0	0
Bad reputation, 'rough' area, problem residents moving in	0	0
Environment - weather, hills, flooding etc.	0	0
<i>Base</i>	<i>5,969</i>	<i>8,102</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2005.

The responses to questions in the Scottish Household Survey about rating of neighbourhoods, and aspects of neighbourhoods that are liked or disliked, suggest that the majority of households in Scotland rate their neighbourhoods positively, and that there are few gender differences in such attitudes. However, of all household types single parent households, overwhelmingly female headed, are most likely to report problems with their neighbourhoods. In 2005, single parent households were more likely than all other types of household to rate their neighbourhoods as 'fairly poor' or 'very poor', 11% compared to 5% and 9% compared to 2% respectively (Scottish Executive, 2006b). Similarly, higher proportions of single parent households than other types of household were likely to say that particular neighbourhood problems were very or fairly common: 39% of single parent households identified rubbish or litter lying around as a problem compared to 27% of all households; 29% of single parent

households identified vandalism/graffiti/damage to property as a problem compared to 16% of all households; 33% of single parent households identified rowdy behaviour as a problem compared to 16% of all households; 26% of single parent households identified drug misuse or dealing as a problem compared to 12% of all households; and 25% of single parent households identified groups or individuals harassing others as a problem compared to 11% of all households. Similarly, single parent households were more likely than any other types of household to say that they had personal experience of these problems. Of all households 65% said they had no personal experience of neighbourhood problems compared to 49% of single parent households. This suggests that a substantial proportion of single parent households are accommodated in areas in which the general quality of housing and of the environment is poor.

9.6 HOMELESSNESS

Homelessness has been recognised as a serious problem in Scotland in recent years, and a number of actions have been taken to tackle it. These include the Homelessness Task Force, established in 1999, new legislation in the Housing (Scotland) Act 2001, and the establishment of a Homelessness Monitoring Group in 2002 to monitor the progress of the Homelessness Task Force recommendations. The 2001 Act imposed new duties on local authorities with respect to provision of accommodation for homeless people and to the production of homelessness strategies.

Currently, applications for accommodation under the homeless persons legislation are categorised into priority and non-priority cases, though the longer term aim of the Scottish Executive is to abolish the category of priority need. The Code of Guidance on Homelessness (Scottish Executive, 2005b) provides a definition of priority need, and among the categories of people deemed to be in priority need are included: pregnant women; people with dependent children; a woman who has suffered a miscarriage or undergone an abortion; a person who is at risk of sexual exploitation; a person who is at risk of domestic abuse; and persons who are victims of harassment, or at risk of being such, on the grounds of religion, sexual orientation, race, colour or national origin. This legislation and guidance recognises that there are particular groups who are vulnerable to homelessness, including particular groups of women. In this section statistical data on applications to local authorities by homeless persons and whether there is a gendered pattern to these are examined.

In 1995/96, there were 30,300 homelessness applications to local authorities (priority and non-priority combined), while a further 10,600 people who made applications were either deemed not to be homeless or lost contact with the local authority (Scottish Executive, 2006c). By 2005/06 the number of homelessness applications had grown to 40,431, with a further 15,209 people who had made applications being deemed not homeless or having lost contact with the local authority.

Table 9.12 below provides figures on the proportion of homeless applications by household type by the categories of priority homeless, non-priority homeless, and not homeless or lost contact, over the period from 1994/95 to 2004/05.

Table 9.12 Applications by assessment and household type: 1995-95 to 2005-06

Priority homeless	Percentage										
Household type	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
Single person under 18	10	11	11	12	11	11	9	89	8	8	8
Single person 18-24	7	7	7	9	11	12	14	14	14	13	13
Single person 25-retirement	14	13	15	17	22	25	32	31	32	30	31
Single person over retirement age	5	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
Single parent under 25	14	14	12	11	10	10	8	8	8	9	9
Single parent 25+	32	34	34	32	30	27	23	22	22	23	23
Couple without children	4	4	3.5	4.2	3.9	3.2	2.9	3.6	4	4.4	4
Couple with children	13	12	11	10	8	8	6	6	6	6	6
Other household type	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	3	4	4	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Non-priority homeless	Percentage										
Household type	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
Single person under 18	5	4	3	3	2	1	1	*	*	*	*
Single person 18-24	33	33	33	34	36	35	36	36	33	34	34
Single person 25-retirement	52	54	56	56	55	57	56	57	59	58	58
Single person over retirement age	1	1	1	1	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Single parent under 25	1	*	*	1	*	*	*	*	-	-	-
Single parent 25+	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	*	-	-	-
Couple without children	5	4	4	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	6
Couple with children	1	1	1	1	*	*	*	*	-	-	-
Other household type	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Not homeless/ lost contact	Percentage										
Household type	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
Single person under 18	11	13	15	15	14	14	13	11	10	9	9
Single person 18-24	13	13	12	13	15	15	15	17	18	17	17
Single person 25-retirement	22	21	20	21	23	24	26	31	32	33	34
Single person over retirement age	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2
Single parent under 25	10	9	8	8	8	8	8	7	6	6	6
Single parent 25+	26	26	26	25	24	23	22	18	17	17	17
Couple without children	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	6	5
Couple with children	11	10	10	9	8	8	7	6	6	6	6
Other household type	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	3	4	4	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Returns from local authorities. Scottish Executive (2006c) *Operation of the Homeless Persons legislation in Scotland: national and local authority analyses 2004-05*, HSG/2006/6

Notes: Data prior to 2002-03 are estimated: refer to notes and definitions section. Percentages for 2002-03 onwards are based on applications made during the period, including lost contact/withdrawal/resolved prior to assessment, but excluding cases which have not yet been assessed. For applications made in 2004-05, there were 2,718 cases which had not been assessed by the end of the period (this may include cases where contact has been lost).

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/25151544/0>

Table 9.12 above indicates that within the priority homeless category there have been increases in the proportion who are single, in particular among people in the age group of 25 to retirement age (from 14% in 1995/96 to 31% in 2005/06), while the proportion of families with children, both single parents and couple households, has reduced (from 14% in 1995/96 to 9% in 2005/06 for single parents under 25; from 32% in 1995/96 to 23% in 2005/06 for single parents aged 25 and over; and from 13% in 1995/96 to 6% in 2005/06 for couples with children). Within the category of non-priority homeless, single people predominate, and while the proportion of single people aged 18-24 making applications has remained fairly stable at around a third, the proportion of single people aged between 25 and retirement age making applications has increased from 52% to 58%. Of these deemed not homeless or who lost contact, single people also made up a big proportion, and the numbers making applications have increased. By contrast, the proportions of lone parents and couples with children in this category have declined.

Of all applications to local authorities under homeless persons legislation in 2005/06, the biggest group was single males (43% of all applications), as Table 9.13 below shows. This was followed by single females (21%) and female single parents (20%). Single parents as a category (male and female together) were, however, the second biggest group at 25% of all applications.

Table 9.13 Applications made by households by household type: 2005-06

Household type	All applications during period	
	Number	%
Single person male	24,441	43
Single person female	11,627	21
Single parent male	2,178	4
Single parent female	11,053	20
Couple without children	2,637	5
Couple with children	2,776	5
Other household without children	962	2
Other household with children	913	2
Total	56,587	100

Source: Returns from local authorities. Scottish Executive (2006c) *Operation of the Homeless Persons legislation in Scotland: national and local authority analyses 2004-05*, HSG/2006/6

Note: These figures include repeat applications made by the same households within a 12 month period. The majority of households made only one application in the period.

Numbers may not add up to 100% due to rounding.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/25151544/0>

Table 9.14 below indicates that there is a considerable geographical variation in the distribution of groups applying for accommodation under the homeless persons legislation. This is likely to reflect differences in the composition of the population in different parts of Scotland, and differences in the available housing stock.

Table 9.14 Households applying by local authority and household type: 2005-06

	Household type								All households
	Single person male	Single person female	Single parent male	Single parent female	Couple without children	Other hh'ld without children	Couple with children	Other hh'ld with children	
Scotland ¹	42	21	4	20	5	2	5	2	100
Aberdeen City	52	26	2	10	3	2	4	1	100
Aberdeenshire	35	23	2	25	7	2	6	1	100
Angus ²
Argyll & Bute	41	19	8	19	6	0	7	0	100
Clackmannanshire	35	19	5	23	7	2	7	2	100
Dumfries & Galloway	42	23	2	17	7	2	6	1	100
Dundee City	35	20	8	23	4	2	6	2	100
East Ayrshire	43	20	2	22	5	1	6	1	100
East Dunbartonshire	38	19	3	29	3	2	5	1	100
East Lothian	34	24	4	22	6	2	7	2	100
East Renfrewshire	38	22	2	21	2	5	4	5	100
Edinburgh, City of	44	23	4	18	5	1	4	1	100
Eilean Siar	44	20	1	16	8	1	8	2	100
Falkirk ²
Fife	39	22	5	21	4	3	6	1	100
Glasgow City	50	18	3	18	3	2	4	2	100
Highland	43	22	2	15	7	2	6	3	100
Inverclyde	48	18	7	19	2	3	2	3	100
Midlothian ³	36	18	6	30	4	1	3	3	100
Moray	39	18	3	21	7	1	11	1	100
North Ayrshire	47	23	2	17	5	1	5	1	100
North Lanarkshire	31	18	11	26	4	2	6	2	100
Orkney	40	26	2	14	7	1	9	1	100
Perth & Kinross	35	19	7	22	7	3	6	1	100
Renfrewshire	44	20	5	21	3	1	3	1	100
Scottish Borders, The	39	21	3	15	9	3	7	2	100
Shetland	43	17	5	16	11	1	7	1	100
South Ayrshire	47	20	3	17	5	1	5	1	100
South Lanarkshire	41	18	3	23	6	2	5	2	100
Stirling	43	25	2	18	6	1	5	0	100
West Dunbartonshire	43	27	1	19	4	1	3	1	100
West Lothian	35	18	2	27	7	2	7	1	100

Source: Returns from local authorities. Scottish Executive (2006c) *Operation of the Homeless Persons legislation in Scotland: national and local authority analyses 2004-05*, HSG/2005/6

Note: All households applying during period.

1. Figures include estimates for Angus and Falkirk based on previous data.

2. Data missing due to technical difficulties in submitting HL1 data.

3. Figures may represent an underestimate due to technical difficulties.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/25151544/0>

The main reason for applications under homelessness legislation in 2005/06 was the loss of accommodation with relatives/friends (36% of all households) and disputes within the household (23% of all households) (Scottish Executive, 2006c). Single people and couples

were more likely to give the former reason, while over two fifths of female single parent households gave disputes within the household as the main reason. For female single parents around a quarter (23%) of disputes with partners leading to an application were violent. Recorded outcomes of applications to local authorities suggest that single person households were the least likely to secure permanent accommodation, though 65% of all those applying did so in 2005/06. Other types of household were more likely to secure permanent accommodation, with 78% of households without children, 77% of single parent households, and 75% of other households with children doing so (Scottish Executive, 2006c).

The report of the 2005 Scottish Household Survey indicated that 4% of the population said that they had ever experienced homelessness (Scottish Executive, 2006c). Of those reporting that they had experienced homelessness, 41% were male and 59% were female. The age groups most likely to have experienced homelessness were people aged 35-44 and aged 45-59 (31% and 28% respectively of those who had experienced homelessness). Because the Scottish Household Survey question includes people who have experienced homelessness in the past, and not just current applicants, this suggests that women have been more vulnerable to homelessness, while the current gender balance of applications suggests that men and women are equally vulnerable. There are, however, some gender differences in the groups most vulnerable to homelessness, with single men being the most vulnerable group currently, while women vulnerable to homelessness are more or less evenly distributed between single women and single parents. Table 9.15 below illustrates the gender and age distribution of homeless applicants to local authorities in 2005/06. This indicates that of all adult applicants, 48% were women and 52% were men, with men making up the majority of applicants in the 25-retirement age group, and women making up the majority of applicants in both younger and older age groups.

Table 9.15 Individuals in households by sex and age: 2005-06*

	Female	Male	All	Women as % of total
Adults				
16-24	12,412	10,198	22,610	55
25-retirement	16,390	21,230	37,620	44
Retirement plus	785	535	1,320	60
All adults	29,587	31,963	61,550	48
Children				
0-4	5,546	5,891	11,437	
5-11	5,192	5,450	10,642	
12-15	2,631	2,602	5,233	
16-18	844	968	1,812	
All children	14,213	14,911	29,124	
All households applying in period			53,734	

Source: Scottish Executive (2006c) *Operation of the Homeless Persons legislation in Scotland: national and local authority analyses 2004-05*, HSG/2005/6

Note: All households applying in period. Figures exclude Angus and Falkirk due to technical difficulties in submitting the HL1 data.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/27113728/0>

9.7 HOUSING SUPPORT

In 2003 the Scottish Executive introduced Supporting People as a new integrated and funding framework for housing support services. The aim of Supporting People is to provide good

quality services focused on the needs of users to enable vulnerable people to live independently in the community, in all types of accommodation and tenure. Local authorities are responsible for these new arrangements and provide figures for monitoring purposes. Types of group who receive support through this scheme include disabled people, older people, people with HIV/AIDS, alcohol users, drug users, vulnerable young people, women at risk of domestic violence, and homeless people and rough sleepers.

In 2004/05, of 170,584 beneficiaries of Supporting People funding, 58% were women and 42% were men (Scottish Executive, 2006d). There is some variation in the gender distribution of funding by local authorities, though in the majority of areas women make up the majority of beneficiaries. In 2004/05 the biggest groups to receive funding were older people (49% of all clients), and homeless people and rough sleepers (16% of all clients).

9.8 FUEL POVERTY

There are some gender differences in vulnerability to fuel poverty, and also a relationship between fuel poverty and type of housing tenure. Data from the Scottish House Condition Survey, 2002, as shown in Table 9.16 below, indicate that single women were more likely than single men to experience fuel poverty, 25% of women compared to 20% of men. Of single women, 32% of owner occupiers experienced fuel poverty compared to 20% of single male owner occupiers, while 35% of single men in the private rented sector experienced fuel poverty compared to 30% of single women in the private rented sector.

Table 9.16 Single people: Whether in fuel poverty by tenure, 2002

	Tenure	Not fuel poor	Fuel poor	Total	Sample size
		Row percentages			
Males	Owner occupier	80	20	100	779
	LA/Other public	83	17	100	653
	HA/Housing coop	83	17	100	166
	Private renter	65	35	100	155
	All	80	20	100	1,753
Females	Owner occupier	68	32	100	1,267
	LA/Other public	84	16	100	918
	HA/Housing coop	90	10	100	253
	Private renter	70	30	100	166
	All	75	25	100	2,604

Source: Scottish House Condition Survey, 2002

For both single women and single men, those in the 75+ age group were most vulnerable to fuel poverty, with 34% of women and 35% of men experiencing this, as Table 9.17 below indicates. A higher proportion of single women than of single men in the 60-74 age group experienced fuel poverty, 31% compared to 22%. Young people in the 16-24 age group also appeared vulnerable to fuel poverty, particularly young men, though these percentages need to be treated with caution, as sample sizes were small. Age was similarly a factor in the vulnerability to fuel poverty of female headed households, other than single persons, with 39% of such households in the 75+ age group experiencing this.

Table 9.17 Single people: Whether in fuel poverty by age, 2002

	Age	Not fuel poor	Fuel poor	Total	Sample size
		Row percentages			
Males	16-24	68	32	100	62
	25-39	90	10	100	369
	40-59	82	18	100	556
	60-74	78	22	100	456
	75+	65	35	100	310
	All	80	20	100	1,753
Females	16-24	78	22	100	60
	25-39	95	5	100	259
	40-59	86	14	100	553
	60-74	69	31	100	876
	75+	66	34	100	856
	All	75	25	100	2,604

Source: Scottish House Condition Survey, 2002

9.9 SUMMARY

The type of housing to which people have access is a key determinant of their quality of life, both with regard to the adequacy of accommodation in terms of size and condition, and with regard to location, amenity, and security. Poor housing can have a negative impact on health, and where there are concentrations of poor housing residents often lack amenities and suffer high levels of crime. Where people are seeking housing in crisis situations, such as relationship breakdown, or leaving a violent partner, the choices available to them can be very limited, with poor quality housing often being the only type of accommodation available to them. Income levels are an important determinant of the type of housing available to individuals and to households, and the differential distribution of incomes across social groups contributes to housing disadvantage for some.

As indicated above, a substantial proportion of households are couple households, and men and women in such households have access to the same type and quality of housing, though households where men are the highest income earners are likely to have access to better quality housing than households where women are the highest income earners. Households headed by women, such as lone parent and lone pensioner households tend to be most disadvantaged in the quality of housing to which they have access. In general, there is little difference between women and men in their ratings and perceptions of their neighbourhoods, though again lone parent households seem to experience greater problems. The groups most vulnerable to homelessness are single men, followed by lone parents and single women. Relationship breakdown is a major cause of homelessness, while insecurity of tenure and disputes with relatives are often inter-related aspects of the lifestyles of those most likely to experience homelessness.

There appears to have been no recent research on gender and housing in Scotland, though in the early 1990s various aspects of housing were the subject of research, such as the housing consequences of divorce and relationship breakdown, and women's experience of homelessness (see Brown et al, 1994). In general, research on women and housing has emphasised the housing disadvantage of women-headed households (see Wasoff, 1998). Women's disadvantage in terms of access to housing results from a number of factors, including lower earning power and lesser capacity to borrow to finance home ownership, and

reliance on benefits, whether temporary or long-term, for lone parents, whether never-married, divorced or separated. The consequence of relationship breakdown may also often be a move to accommodation of poorer quality. In situations where a woman has experienced domestic violence, rehousing may be a protracted process, and may not always provide security from a violent former partner. These factors therefore increase housing insecurity for women. While older women may be more likely to be home owners, and often own their homes outright, for example, as widows residing in the former matrimonial home, their incomes may be insufficient to heat, maintain and repair homes to an adequate standard.

Disabled people, like lone parents, are more likely to be reliant on the social rented sector, and also were more likely than non-disabled people to give their neighbourhoods a poor rating, to be more aware of anti-social behaviour, and more worried about crime (Scottish Executive, 2004). Research on the situation of disabled people in Scotland has suggested that there is a mismatch between demand for and provision of adapted housing, and that some adapted housing is used by people who do not need it, while others who need it have no access to it (Riddell and Banks, 2001). This research also suggested that there were more households which included individuals with mobility difficulties than dwellings suitable for this group, that families with disabled children also often experienced problems with housing, and that there was a lack of accommodation for those with high support needs e.g. people being relocated to the community from mental hospitals. While this research provided no comment on specific gender dimensions of the housing need and disadvantage of disabled people, it is likely that men and women are to some extent affected differently by these problems, given the age and gender distribution of different types of disability in the population.

In general, there seems to have been little investigation into issues of gender and ethnicity in relation to housing. Research commissioned by the Scottish Executive (Netto et al, 2001) found that in general minority ethnic people experienced disadvantage in access to housing in a number of ways. In general, housing choices available to minority ethnic groups were more restricted than for the White population, and minority ethnic populations were more likely to live in over-crowded accommodation, or housing where amenities were shared or even absent. Minority ethnic housing needs were insufficiently appreciated, including the importance of safety from racial harassment, and the types of accommodation needed by minority ethnic families. Furthermore, minority ethnic people were frequently unfamiliar with procedures for obtaining local authority and other social rented housing.

Recent research has also indicated that people from minority ethnic communities are vulnerable to homelessness (Netto et al, 2004). Analysis of local authority homelessness data found that the incidence of recorded homelessness affecting black and minority ethnic families was 75% higher than for the population as a whole. This incidence varied across different ethnic groups. The research also concluded that hidden homelessness existed on a considerable scale among minority ethnic communities, suggested by evidence of over-crowding and poor quality housing. While this study did not provide a gender breakdown, it indicated that groups vulnerable to homelessness included women escaping domestic abuse.

Existing data and research thus suggest that there are a number of groups who are likely to be disadvantaged in terms of access to housing, including particular groups of women, such as lone parents and lone pensioners, disabled people, and minority ethnic groups, though in the case of the latter two groups it is not clear how gender might interact with ethnicity or disability in affecting the degree of disadvantage. Quality of housing and the standard of

accommodation available to such groups are key issues, but equally important as determinants of quality of life is the nature of the neighbourhood and environment, in terms of amenities available and in terms of safety and well-being of residents.

Currently, data and research on gender and housing in Scotland are very limited. Part of the difficulty in providing data is the tendency to provide data for households, rather than individuals, and this can conceal some of the gender differences that may exist, although where households are headed by women, it is clear that there is significant housing disadvantage. There is a lack of research on private housing, whether home ownership or the private rented sector, and a lack of research on the gender impact of the very significant changes in patterns of tenure that have occurred in Scotland over the past two decades. With respect to the Gender Equality Duty, housing providers will need to take account of evidence of differential access to housing, and to issues concerning the safety and quality of neighbourhoods and environment.

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CHAPTER TEN TRANSPORT

Transport facilities are an important resource shaping the organisation of various aspects of people's lives, including employment, schooling, and consumer and leisure activities. In particular the type of transport facilities to which people have access can determine the type of work opportunities they are able to take up, and their access to shops and services. Income levels have long been recognised as important determinants of access to transport resources, and it is also recognised that poor public transport facilities for those on low incomes is a factor in social exclusion. For people in rural areas, transport resources are particularly significant in enabling employment opportunities to be taken up and in providing access to services. This chapter examines evidence of gender differences in access to transport facilities and in patterns of transport use.

10.1 POLICY CONTEXT

In December 2006, the Scottish Executive published *Scotland's National Transport Strategy* (Scottish Executive, 2006a). This set out three strategic aims:

- Improving journey times and connections between Scottish cities and towns, and between Scotland's global markets, to tackle congestion and to provide access to key markets;
- Reducing emissions to tackle climate change;
- Improving the quality, accessibility and affordability of transport, ensuring that everyone across Scotland has high quality public transport choices.

With respect to social inclusion the strategy recognises specific groups as requiring better transport services, including people who experience poverty, those living in remote areas, and older people and disabled people. The strategy also recognises the need for all those involved in transport planning at national, regional and local level, to take into account equalities, including gender equality. Consultation formed an integral part of the development of the strategy, including focus groups with young people, older people, women, people on low incomes, disabled people, LGBT people, and minority ethnic people.

Recent key developments in transport have also included, in 2002, the establishment of a Mobility and Access Committee for Scotland to advise Ministers, and the introduction of a national minimum standard of free off-peak bus travel for elderly and disabled people. In 2003, this was extended to cover men between the ages of 60 and 64, and in 2004 a new Scotland wide free bus scheme for older people and disabled people was announced, and this was introduced in April 2006. There are long-standing targets on road casualty reduction, and road safety education campaigns have been undertaken. The safety of users, such as women who have concerns about travelling after dark has been emphasised, as has the safety of staff.

Local transport strategies have been developed under the umbrella of Community Planning, and regional transport partnerships have been created. In January 2006, a new executive agency for transport in Scotland was established, Transport Scotland.

10.2 WOMEN AND MEN AND PATTERNS OF TRANSPORT USE

Key Points:

- Men are more likely than women to hold full-driving licences, with 78% of men aged 17 and over doing so in 2005, compared to 58% of women aged 17 and over.
- Men are more likely than women to have access to a car for their private use, with 79% of men in households where the highest income earner was male doing so in 2005, compared to 52% of women in households where the highest income earner was female.
- Men are more likely than women to drive every day, with 50% of men doing so in 2005 compared to 34% of women.
- Men were less likely than women to use local bus services, with 63% of men not having used them compared to 52% of women in 2005.
- Women were less likely than men to feel safe travelling on a bus in the evening, with 47% of women saying they felt very safe or fairly safe compared to 63% of men in 2004.
- The average distance travelled per year is greater for men than for women, 9,175 miles compared with 6,865 miles in 2004/05.
- Women were less likely than men to be drivers, 45% compared to 62%, and more likely than men to be passengers, 21% compared to 9% in 2004.
- In 2005, women were more likely than men to walk to work, 15% compared to 10%, while men were more likely than women to drive to work, 65% compared to 56%.
- Men are more likely than women to be involved in car accidents as drivers, at a rate of 5.2 per 1,000 of the population for men compared to a rate of 2.7 per 1,000 of the population for women in 2005.

10.3 KEY DATA SOURCES AND POSSIBLE USES OF DATA

10.3.1 Key sources of data

The key sources of gender disaggregated data on transport are the Scottish Household Survey, National Travel Survey, and administrative data on road accidents (STATS 21 data). Survey data covers patterns of access to and use of transport, while the administrative data on road accidents covers types of accidents and types and severity of casualties arising from these. With the development of the Scottish Household Survey much better data on transport use in Scotland are available, with a series of regular publications being produced by the Scottish Executive, which include gender disaggregated data. There is, however, more scope for analysis of gender disaggregated data, for example, on a regional basis. This might include

looking at the relationship of access to transport to employment patterns and opportunities, especially in rural areas.

10.3.2 Possible uses of data

Key public bodies, such as government departments, local authorities, transport authorities and partnerships, should take into account gendered patterns of transport use in transport planning, particularly with regard to public transport services. This might include the needs of 'encumbered' passengers i.e. those carrying shopping and/or accompanied by young children, safety concerns, the timing of services, and bus routes.

10.4 ACCESS TO AND USE OF CARS

There is a difference between men and women in the proportions of people who are able to drive. As Table 10.1 below shows, men are more likely than women to hold full driving licences. In 2004/05 of all Scottish residents aged 17 or over, 78 % of men had a full driving licence, compared to 58% of women. Though still a relatively large gender gap at 20%, the gap has decreased considerable over time. In 1975/76 the gender gap was 42%, with 66% of men having full driving licences compared to 24% of women.

Table 10.1 Scottish residents: holders of full-driving licences 1975/76-2004/05

Percentages of:	1975/76	1985/86	1989/91	1992/94	1995/97	1998/00	2002/03	2004/05
Men (17+) with full car driving licence	66	68	73	77	77	78	77	78
Women (17+) with full car driving licence	24	34	46	46	51	57	59	58
<i>Sample size</i>	..	2,560	2,480	2,092	2,024	1,926	3,396	3,766

Source: National Travel Survey. Scottish Executive (2007) *Travel by Scottish residents: some National Travel Survey results for 2004/2005 and earlier years.*

'..' not available

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/162703/0044272.pdf>

As might be expected, given the decrease in the gender gap in licence holders over time, the proportions of men and women who hold licences vary with age, as Table 10.2 below shows. The gender gap is particularly marked for older age groups. Of those aged 70+ in 2005, the proportion of men with driving licences was 64% compared to 26% of women, or a gap of 38%, while for those aged 60-69, 83% of men had driving licences compared to 50% of women. The difference in the proportions of men and women holding driving licences was smallest for those in age groups from 21-49 and 17-20.

Table 10.2 People who hold a full driving licence (1) by age and sex, 1999-2005

		Age group							All	Sample size
		17-20	21-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70+	17 +	
		percent of population								
Men	1999	36	75	86	84	83	77	64	77	5,867
	2000	34	73	85	86	84	78	59	76	6,141
	2001	33	72	82	85	85	80	63	76	6,153
	2002	30	69	87	84	83	80	61	76	5,913
	2003	38	66	85	86	85	80	63	77	5,909
	2004	36	68	83	85	82	81	64	76	6,222
	2005	30	65	84	86	85	83	64	77	5,920
Women	1999	30	60	70	68	56	38	19	52	7,793
	2000	25	60	71	67	61	42	20	53	8,299
	2001	33	62	71	73	59	42	23	55	8,374
	2002	20	58	75	71	60	46	21	54	8,023
	2003	24	56	75	74	63	49	23	56	7,941
	2004	24	58	74	73	67	50	25	57	8,438
	2005	23	58	74	73	63	49	26	56	8,050

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005a) *Scottish Transport Statistics*, 24; Scottish Executive (2006b) *Scottish Transport Statistics*, 25.

Notes: 1. The interviewer asks whether the person holds a full driving licence (car or motorcycle). The denominator includes people for whom it was not known, or not recorded, what type of driving licence (if any) was held. From April 2003, the questionnaire changed such that information on possession of driving licences was no longer collected from the head of household about him or herself. Figures for 1999-2002 may differ from those previously published, as they have been revised to include only information about the randomly selected adult.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2005/08/25100154/01557>

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/160953/0043714.pdf>

Data from the Scottish Household Survey on different types of driving licence held in 2005 also confirms the differences between men and women, as indicated in Table 10.3 below. This also shows that 36% of women have never held a UK driving licence compared to 16% of men never having done so.

Table 10.3 Type of driving licence (if any) held by sex, 2005

	Column percentages		
	Adult population aged 17 and over		
	Male	Female	All
Full driving licence	77	56	65
Provisional licence	4	5	5
Disqualified from driving	1	0	0
Suspended on medical grounds	1	1	1
Never held a UK driving licence	16	36	27
Did not reapply for licence aged 70	2	2	2
Total	100	100	100
Base	5,916	8,048	13,964

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006c) *Scotland's People, 2005*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

There are also differences in the balance of main use of cars which men and women have. Table 10.4 below indicates that in 1999/2002 vehicles were more likely to have men than women as their only driver, with 52% of men saying that no-one else drives the vehicle compared to 44% of women. For over half of women where they were the main driver, a man

also drove the vehicle (52%). In 43% of cases where the main driver was a man, a woman also drove the vehicle.

Table 10.4 Motor vehicles: main driver sex by who else drives vehicle, 1999-2002¹

Sex of Main Driver	Column percentages		Row Percentages				Base
	Male	52					
	Female	47					
	All Vehicles ²	100					
	Base ²	56,677	No-one else drives the vehicle	1+ other men also drive the vehicle, no other women	1+ other women also drive the vehicle, no other men	1+ other women and 1+ other men also drive the vehicle	All Vehicles
Main Driver is male	52	2	43	3	100	29,396	
Main Driver is female	44	52	2	3	100	26,388	

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Note: 1. 1999 to 2002 are the only years for which the SHS collected information about each of the household's vehicles and which member(s) of the household used them.

2. Including those vehicles for whom the main driver information is missing

Table 10.5 Households which have a "couple" ¹: balance of main access to motor vehicles by joint employment status, 1999-2002²

Household Status	Column Percentages				
	Working couple	Couple, man works, woman does not	Couple, woman works, man does not	Couple, neither works	All "couple" households
No car available to the household	6	11	20	32	15
Man drives the vehicle(s) only	11	16	17	25	16
Woman drives the vehicle(s) only	8	14	11	13	11
Man main driver of vehicle(s), woman drives one or more of them also	15	14	14	15	15
Woman main driver of vehicle(s), man drives one or more of them also	16	13	16	5	13
Woman and man are both main drivers of one or more vehicles	43	31	20	9	30
All households ³	100	100	100	100	100
Base	17,153	5,856	2,134	8,867	34,010

Source: Scottish Household Survey

Notes: 1. For the purposes of this table, a "couple" household is one in which the Highest Income Householder has a spouse or partner. This is because a full household grid was not collected between 1999 and 2002, so it is not possible to identify couples where

2. 1999 to 2002 are the only years for which the SHS collected information about each of the household's vehicles and which member(s) of the household used them.

3. Including those households for whom the main driver information is missing.

The balance of main use of cars is influenced not only by sex but by the employment status of members of a household. As Table 10.5 above shows for 1999-2002, households which were least likely to have use of a car were those in which neither of the couple were in work, at

32%, while 20% of couples where the woman worked and the man did not had no car, compared with 11% where the man worked and the woman did not. Men were more likely than women to have exclusive use of cars in all types of household where the vehicle was driven only by a man or only by a woman, 16% of such households for men compared to 11% for women. In working couple households a substantial proportion of men and women were both main drivers of one or more vehicle, at 43% of such households. In certain circumstances women in couples where the man worked and the woman did not were more likely to have use of a car than households in which the woman worked and the man did not. For example, women and men were both main drivers in 31% of households where the man worked and the woman did not, compared to both being the main drivers in 20% of households where the woman worked and the man did not. These differences are likely to reflect men's greater earning power, which also gives them greater access to resources such as cars.

Table 10.6 below indicates that in 2005, 79% of households where the highest income householder was a man had at least one car available for private use, compared to 52% of households where the highest income householder was a woman.

Table 10.6 Whether any cars normally available to the household for private use by sex of HIH, 2005

	Column percentages		
	Households		
	Male	Female	All
Yes	79	52	68
No	21	48	32
Total	100	100	100
Base	9,030	6,267	15,297

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006c) *Scotland's People, 2005*.
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/08/03090800/0>

Table 10.7 below indicates that in 2005, those least likely to live in a household with a car available for private use were those who were unemployed, in higher/further education, or permanently sick or disabled, and that this was the case for both female and male HIH households. Around half of households where the HIH was a woman and self-employed, in full-time employment or in part-time employment had at least one car available for private use. The households most likely to have access to two cars were those in which the HIH was a self-employed male or male in full-time employment.

Table 10.7 Number of cars available to household by highest income householder (HIH) sex and current situation (1), 2005

	Number of Cars Available					Total	Base ¹
	None	One	Two	Three or more			
Female HIH of working age (16-59 years)							
Self-employed	14	50	32	4	100	142	
Full time employment	21	52	24	3	100	1,949	
Part time employment	33	51	13	4	100	606	
Looking after home/family	66	31	3	0	100	480	
Permanently retired from work	31	48	17	4	100	68	
Unemployed and seeking work	76	23	1	0	100	144	
Higher/further education	61	33	6	0	100	174	
Permanently sick or disabled	66	30	3	0	100	306	
All	36	45	16	3	100	3,925	
Male HIH of working age (16-64 years)							
Self-employed	5	40	43	12	100	828	
Full time employment	10	48	36	5	100	4,580	
Part time employment	21	53	23	3	100	173	
Looking after home/family	61	33	6	0	100	35	
Permanently retired from work	20	50	25	5	100	331	
Unemployed and seeking work	70	26	3	0	100	226	
Higher/further education	69	28	2	1	100	126	
Permanently sick or disabled	59	36	4	1	100	428	
All	18	45	32	5	100	6,837	

Source: Scottish Household Survey.

Note: 1 - There are also small numbers who describe their current situation as "Government work or training scheme", "Unable to work due to short term ill-health" and "Other"

Patterns of usage of cars also differ for men and women. Table 10.8 below indicates the frequency of driving for men and women in 2005. Men were more likely than women to drive every day, with 50% of men doing so compared to 34% of women. They were also more likely to drive at least three times a week, though the difference was very small, at 13% for men compared to 11% of women.

Table 10.8 Frequency of driving (1) for people aged 17+: 2005 (percentages)

	Every day	Per Week			Per Month		Holds full licence, never drives	Total with a full driving licence	Doesn't have a full driving licence
		At least 3 times	Once or twice	at least 2 or 3 times	at least once	less than once			
All people aged 17+	41	12	6	1	0	1	4	65	35
by sex:									
Male	50	13	7	1	0	1	4	77	23
Female	34	11	5	1	0	1	4	56	44

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006b) *Scottish Transport Statistics*, 25.

1. For holders of full licences

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/160953/0043714.pdf>

There are some differences in the types of journeys that men and women make by car. As Table 10.9 below indicates, of drivers always using cars for specified types of journey, women were more likely than men to do so for shopping purposes, 53% of such women compared to 49% of such men for small amounts of shopping, and 92% of such women compared to 88% of such men for supermarket shopping. However, overall the gender differences were small.

Table 10.9 Drivers who make each type of journey (1) - percentages who always use a car: April 2003 to December 2004 (percentage of those who make the specified type of journey)

	Shopping for small amounts of food	Super-Market shopping	Town Centre shopping	Evenings out for leisure purposes	Visit friends and relatives	Go to see GP	Go to library
All drivers who make the journey	51	90	62	50	72	66	53
By sex:							
men	49	88	62	48	72	64	52
women	53	92	62	52	72	67	54
<i>Sample size</i>	<i>13,813</i>	<i>14,112</i>	<i>13,908</i>	<i>13,987</i>	<i>14,265</i>	<i>14,230</i>	<i>10,551</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Household Transport in 2004: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

1. Adults who hold a full driving licence (excluding any who had said that they 'never' drive nowadays) who said that they made each type of journey

2. As different numbers of drivers made each type of journey, this figure is the smallest of the numbers of drivers in the sample who had made each type of journey.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/DataSHSHousehold2004>

For the same types of specified journeys men were slightly more likely than women to say it would be easy to use another means of transport than a car, as Table 10.10 below shows, though overall there was very little difference between men and women.

Table 10.10 Drivers who always make particular types of journey by car (1) - percentages who said that it would be 'very easy' or 'fairly easy' to use another means of transport: April 2003 to December 2004 (percentages)

	Shopping for small amounts of food	Super-market shopping	Town centre shopping	Evenings out for leisure purposes	Visit friends and relatives	Go to see GP	Go to library
All drivers who always go by car	48	17	31	20	15	36	36
by sex:							
men	49	18	31	20	15	38	37
women	47	15	30	19	14	33	36
<i>Sample size</i>	<i>7,037</i>	<i>12,621</i>	<i>8,712</i>	<i>7,092</i>	<i>10,305</i>	<i>9,383</i>	<i>5,743</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Household Transport in 2004: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

1. Adults who hold a full driving licence (excluding any who had said that they 'never' drive nowadays) who said that they made each type of journey

2. As different numbers of drivers made each type of journey, this figure is the smallest of the numbers of drivers in the sample who had made each type of journey.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/DataSHSHousehold2004>

10.5 USE OF AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS PUBLIC TRANSPORT

There are some gender differences in use of public transport, as Table 10.11 below shows. In 2005, women were more likely than men to use local bus services 2 or 3 times a week, 14% of women compared to 10% of men, while men were more likely than women not to have used local bus services in the past month, 63% of men compared to 52% of women. Otherwise there was very little difference in men's and women's usage of bus and train services.

Table 10.11 Adults (16+) - use of local bus services, and train services, in the previous month (1): 2005 (percentages)

	Local bus services					Train services					Sample size
	Every day or almost every day	2 or 3 times per week	About once a week	Once a fortnight or once a month	Not used in the past month	Every day or almost every day	2 or 3 times a week	About once a week	Once a fortnight or once a month	Not used in the past month	
All	12	12	8	12	57	2	1	2	14	81	14,063
men	10	10	6	11	63	2	2	3	14	80	5,965
women	13	14	9	12	52	2	1	2	14	81	8,098

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006d) *Household Transport in 2005: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

1. The interviewer asks 'how often have you used your local bus service in the past month, if at all?', and later asks 'how often have you used a train service in the past month?' (noting that this does not include the underground in Glasgow or London).
2. The number who gave one of the answers shown when asked about their use of the local bus services - excluding a few for whom no information is available.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/10/26092751/0>

There were differences in the perceptions of safety on public transport between men and women. While the frequency of evening travel by bus did not significantly differ for men and women, the most striking finding was the high proportion of both sexes who report never travelling by bus in the evening, 78% of men and 80% of women in 2004, as indicated in Table 10.12 below. If travelling by bus in the evening women were less likely than men to feel safe, with 11% of women saying they did not feel safe at all compared to 4% of men. A majority of men said they felt very safe or fairly safe, 63%, while 47% of women said this.

Table 10.12 Adults (16+) - frequency of travelling by bus in the evening ('say between 7 p.m. and 10 p.m.) and how safe from crime they felt, or would feel, travelling by bus in the evening: 2004 (percentages)

	Frequency of evening travel by bus					How safe from crime would feel then					Sample size
	Most days	At least once a week	At least once a month	Less than once a month	Never	Very Safe	Fairly Safe	Not particularly Safe	Not safe at all	Don't know	
All	3	6	4	8	79	14	40	14	8	24	14,778
male	3	6	4	9	78	20	43	11	4	23	6,285
female	3	6	3	8	80	9	38	17	11	25	8,493

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Household Transport in 2004: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/DataSHSHousehold2004>

With respect to feelings of safety if travelling by train, there were similar gender differences reported. An even higher proportion of both men and women reported never travelling by train than those never travelling by bus in 2004, at 84% of men and 87% of women, as Table 10.13 below shows. Women were more likely than men to say they would not feel safe at all, 12% compared to 4%, while 55% of men said they would feel very or fairly safe compared to 39% of women.

Table 10.13 Adults (16+) - frequency of travelling by train in the evening ('say between 7 p.m. and 10 p.m.') and how safe from crime they felt, or would feel, travelling by train in the evening: 2004 (percentages)

	Frequency of evening travel by train					How safe from crime would feel then					Sample size
	Most days	At least once a week	At least once a month	Less than once a month	Never	Very Safe	Fairly Safe	Not particularly Safe	Not safe at all	Don't know	
All	1	2	3	9	86	11	34	14	9	33	14,778
male	1	2	3	9	84	17	38	10	4	31	6,285
female	1	1	2	9	87	6	31	17	12	34	8,493

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Household Transport in 2004: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/DataSHSHousehold2004>

There was virtually no difference in men's and women's views on public transport and its convenience, as Table 10.14 below shows. In 2004 a majority of both men and women said that public transport was very or fairly convenient, 76% of men compared with 77% of women, though a much smaller proportion of both sexes said that public transport was of good quality, 17% of men compared with 16% of women.

Table 10.14 Adults (16+) - views on public transport: is it convenient? and, as an aspect of the neighbourhood, is it good or poor?: 2004 (percentages)

	Convenience of public transport						Quality of public transport		Sample size
	Convenient				Inconvenient		Good	Poor	
	Very	Fairly	neither nor	No opinion	Fairly	Very			
All	41	35	5	4	8	7	16	4	14,778
Male	41	35	6	4	8	6	17	4	6,285
Female	42	35	5	3	7	7	16	5	8,493

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

There were similarly virtually no differences in men's and women's views on various aspects of public transport such as being on time, being clean, comfortable and so on, as Table 10.15 below shows. The questions in the survey about aspects of the service were asked only of users of the service, and as responses for 2004 indicate, the majority of women and men rated services positively by agreeing with the statements asked. This suggests that those who use public transport services are more likely to have a positive than a negative view of these services.

Table 10.15 Percentage of users of the service (in the past month) who agreed with each statement(1) (2): 2004

	On time	Frequent	Runs when need it	Stable	Clean	Comfortable	Feel safe and secure	Tickets easy to understand	Find out routes, times is easy	Easy change other transport	Fares are good value	Sample size
All	72	79	75	80	71	75	86	89	79	72	68	5,977
M	72	79	75	80	71	75	88	88	78	73	69	2,206
F	72	79	75	81	70	75	85	89	79	72	67	3,771

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

1. Views on local bus services are sought *only* from those who said that they had used a local bus service in the past month. Those who had not used a local bus service in the past month are not asked these questions about bus services. The interviewer says 'To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Generally, when I use the bus...'

2. Counting both those who 'strongly agree' and those who 'tend to agree'. The base (100%) is all those who had used the service in the past month (including those who said 'neither agree nor disagree' or 'no opinion'). Therefore, the difference between a figure and 100% is *not* the same as the percentage of users of the service who disagreed with the relevant statement.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

The Scottish Household Survey asks questions aimed at investigating the possibility of encouraging greater public transport use. Of those who said they could use public transport, but did not do so in 2004, there was little difference between men and women, apart from the proportions requiring a car for work, the reason given by 15% of men compared to 8% of women, as Table 10.16 below shows.

Table 10.16 Car/van commuters who said they could use public transport - most common reasons for not doing so (1)(2): July 1999 to December 2004 (percentages)

	Inconvenient	Takes too long	Use my own car	No direct route	Need a car for /at work	Cost	Lack of service	Work unsociable hours	Sample size
All adults aged 16+	48	43	28	25	11	9	8	9	10,017
Men	47	44	26	26	15	10	8	10	4,431
Women	49	43	29	23	8	9	8	7	5,586

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

1. The percentages may total more than 100, because respondents can give more than one reason. There are also small numbers who give 'other' reasons.

2. With effect from April 2003, anyone who answered 'inconvenient' or 'use my own car' was asked why they said that, and the follow up answers were recorded. Hence the figures are on a different basis to previous years.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

Of those who said they could not use public transport, there were few differences in the proportions of men and women for the majority of reasons cited, as indicated in Table 10.17 below. However, men were more likely to need car for work, 26% of men compared to 17% of women, for the period 1999 to 2004, and men were more likely to work unsociable hours, 24% of men compared with 16% of women.

Table 10.17 Car/van commuters who said they could not use public transport - most common reasons why they cannot (1),(2): July 1999 to December 2004 (percentages)

	No direct route	Lack of service	Inconvenient	Need a car for/at work	Work unsociable hours	Takes too long	Use my own car	Too infrequent	Sample size
All adults aged 16+	36	31	23	22	20	16	14	6	12,757
Men	34	29	23	26	24	16	13	5	6,841
Women	38	33	23	17	16	16	14	7	5,916

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

1. The percentages may total more than 100, because respondents can give more than one reason. There are also small numbers who give 'other' reasons.

2. With effect from April 2003, anyone who answered 'inconvenient' or 'use my own car' was asked why they said that, and the follow up answers were recorded. Hence the figures are on a different basis to previous years.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

There were no significant differences between men and women in the reasons cited for not using buses more often, as indicated in Table 10.18 below. For the period April 2003 to December 2004, similar proportions of men and women cited as their main reasons for not using buses more often the fact that they used their own car, or that they had no need to use a bus more often.

Table 10.18 Main reason for not using buses more often: April 2003 to December 2004 (1) (percentages)

Adults (16+) who said that they had used their local bus service at most 'about once a week' in the past month - or not at all, and who gave only one reason or provided a main reason			
	Men	Women	All
Use own car	20	18	19
No need	20	19	19
Health reasons	8	11	10
Takes too long	7	7	7
Lack of service	7	7	7
Inconvenient	7	6	6
Prefer to walk	5	6	6
No direct route	4	4	4
Need car for / at work	5	2	4
Live centrally, in walking dist.	3	4	3
Cost	3	3	3
Too infrequent	2	2	2
Work unsocial / unusual hrs	2	1	1
Public transport unreliable	1	2	1
Difficult access, on-off steps	1	2	1
Too much to carry, awkward	1	2	1
Dislike waiting about	1	1	1
Long walk to bus stop	1	1	1
Uncomfortable	0	0	0
Other reason not specified	3	3	3
All	100	100	100
Sample size	7,483	9,169	16,652

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

Table 10.19 below indicates that in the period April 2003 to December 2004, women were more likely than men to use concessionary travel passes to travel on buses, with 84% of women aged 60 and over doing so compared to 71% of men aged 60 and over doing so. The biggest differences in usage were in the 65-69 and 70-74 age groups. To some extent this reflects the gender difference in the composition of the population in this age group, but also differences in licence holding. The similarity in proportions in the 75-79 and 80+ age groups is also likely to reflect the fact that a higher proportion in those age groups may no longer drive.

Table 10.19 Adults (16+) who hold a concessionary travel pass which allows free travel on off-peak bus services, and those who used a pass the day prior to the interview, as a percentage of the adult population(1): April 2003 to December 2004

	Age group								All			Sample size
	16-39	40-49	50-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80+	16-59	60+	16+	
All adults	1	3	6	66	81	84	86	81	3	79	26	24,799
Men	1	3	6	47	76	79	86	80	3	71	23	10,558
Women	1	3	5	81	86	87	86	81	3	84	28	14,241

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

1. The interviewer asks whether the person has a concessionary travel pass which allows him or her to travel free of charge on off peak local bus services. The denominator includes people who were not asked the question because they were under 60 and had no disability or health problems.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

For the period April 2003 to December 2004, women were somewhat more likely than men to travel on bus services, though the differences were not great, as Table 10.20 below shows.

Table 10.20 Adults (16+) who travelled on a local bus service (1) (with or without a pass) on the day prior to the interview as a percentage of the adult population: April 2003 to December 2004

	Age group								All			Sample size
	16-39	40-49	50-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80+	16-59	60+	16+	
All adults	11	7	8	10	13	13	13	10	10	12	10	24,799
Men	10	5	7	8	10	10	10	10	8	9	8	10,558
Women	13	9	10	11	16	15	15	10	11	13	12	14,241
Off-peak local bus travel												
All adults	10	7	8	9	13	13	13	10	9	11	10	24,799
Men	9	5	6	8	10	10	10	10	7	9	8	10,558
Women	12	9	9	10	15	15	15	10	10	13	11	14,241

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

1. Service bus travel of less than 20 km is assumed to be 'local' bus travel.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

Table 10.21 Adults (16+) - percentage of their journeys which were made by bus: 2004

	% of all journeys which were made by bus (main mode)								Sample size
	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thur	Fri	Sat	Sun	All days	
All adults in 2004	11	11	11	11	10	11	6	10	27,122
Male	9	8	9	10	9	7	6	9	11,933
Female	13	13	13	12	12	13	6	12	15,189

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006e) *Bus and Coach Statistics, 2004-05*.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/02/20144624/44>

Women were similarly slightly more likely than men to make a higher percentage of their journeys by bus, though the differences were not great, as Table 10.21 above shows for 2004.

10.6 WALKING AND CYCLING

There was little difference between the proportions of men and women who walked as a means of transport, as Table 10.22 below shows for 2005. Men are slightly more likely than women to walk for pleasure or to keep fit, with 55% of women saying they did not do this, compared to 52% of men.

Table 10.22 Frequency of walking in the previous seven days (1) (people aged 16+): 2005 (percentages)

	As means of transport (i.e. to go somewhere e.g. work, shopping, or friends)					Just for pleasure or to keep fit ²					Sample size
	none	1-2 days	3-5 days	6-7 days	1+ days	none	1-2 days	3-5 days	6-7 days	1+ days	
All aged 16+	47	15	22	16	53	54	17	14	15	46	7,001
men	48	15	20	17	52	52	17	14	17	48	2,931
women	47	15	23	15	53	55	16	14	14	45	4,070

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006f) *Updated tables from Scottish Transport Statistics No.24 August 2005 edition.*

1. The number of days in the previous seven days on which the person made a trip of more than a quarter of a mile by foot for the specified purpose.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/STS24UPDCh12>

Cycling as a means of transport or for pleasure or to keep fit is used by very small proportions of men and women, from 3% to 4% of the population, as Table 10.23 below shows for 2005. Men were slightly more likely than women to do so.

Table 10.23 Frequency of cycling in the previous seven days (1) (people aged 16+): 2005 (percentages)

	As means of transport (i.e. to go somewhere- e.g. work, shopping, or friends)					Just for pleasure or to keep fit					Sample size
	none	1-2 days	3-5 days	6-7 days	1+ days	none	1-2 days	3-5 days	6-7 days	1+ days	
All aged 16+	97	1	1	0	3	96	3	1	0	4	6,990
men	96	2	2	1	4	94	4	1	1	6	2,930
women	98	1	1	0	2	97	2	0	0	3	4,060

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006f) *Updated tables from Scottish Transport Statistics No.24 August 2005 edition.*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/STS24UPDCh12>

1. The number of days in the previous seven days on which the person made a trip of more than a quarter of a mile by bicycle for the specified purpose.

10.7 DISTANCE TRAVELLED AND PURPOSE OF JOURNEYS

There are differences between men and women in the average distance travelled per year, as Table 10.24 below shows. For 2004/05 the total average distance travelled by men was 9,175 miles compared to 6,865 for women. There were also differences in distance travelled according to the main mode of transport. The average distance travelled by men as drivers was much greater than the average distance travelled by women as drivers, and men also

travelled longer distances by train, air or long-distance buses than did women. Women travelled longer distances than men as passengers in motor vehicles, and on local buses.

Table 10.24 Distance (miles) travelled per person per year by main mode and by sex: Scottish residents 2004/05

	Men 16+	Women 16+	All adults
Walk	162	160	161
Driver of car, van or lorry	6,043	2,917	4,415
Passenger in car, van or lorry	1,223	2,151	1,706
Other private (e.g. bicycle, motorcycle, private hire bus)	237	116	174
Local bus	413	542	481
Other public (e.g. rail, taxi, air, non-local bus)	1,098	978	1,035
All modes	9,175	6,865	7,972
Sample size	1,394	1,579	2,973

Source: National Travel Survey. Scottish Executive (2007) *Travel by Scottish residents: some National Travel Survey results for 2004/2005 and earlier years.*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/162703/0044272.pdf>

The difference between the average distance travelled by men and women has decreased with time, as Table 10.25 below shows. In 1985/86 on average men travelled 6,757 miles a year compared to 3,927 for women, a difference of 2,830 miles, while by 2004/05 men were travelling on average 9,175 miles a year compared with 6,865 miles for women, a difference of 2,310 miles. For the younger age group of 16-29 year olds in the years 1998/2000 and 2002/2003 women were travelling on average greater distances than men, though for all other age groups men travel on average greater distances than do women.

Table 10.25 Distance (miles)travelled per person per year by age and sex: Scottish residents 1985/6-2004/5

	Men				Women				All adults
	16-29	30-59	60+	All adult men	16-29	30-59	60+	All adult women	
1985/86	7,016	8,120	3,233	6,757	5,334	4,076	2,119	3,927	5,223
1989/91	7,750	10,455	4,281	8,251	6,668	7,126	3,256	5,866	6,965
1992/94	8,315	9,296	3,986	7,716	6,870	5,876	3,493	5,333	6,432
1995/97	8,942	10,790	6,002	9,265	6,122	7,776	4,107	6,383	7,759
1998/2000	8,304	11,414	7,126	9,702	8,288	8,138	4,708	7,157	8,349
2002/2003	6,435	10,645	5,811	8,519	6,603	7,863	4,306	6,616	7,503
2004/2005	8,301	10,711	6,287	9,175	7,069	8,127	4,252	6,865	7,972

Source: National Travel Survey. Scottish Executive (2007) *Travel by Scottish residents: some National Travel Survey results for 2004/2005 and earlier years.*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/162703/0044272.pdf>

In 2004 there was little difference overall in the proportions of men and women who reported travelling on the previous day, at 71% of men and 69% of women as Table 10.26 below shows. For the older age groups, however, men were more likely than women to report doing so.

Table 10.26 Adults (16+) - who reported travelling (1) on the previous day: 2004

	Age									Sample size
	16-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80 and over	All aged 16+	
	percentage of the relevant population sub-group									
All aged 16+	74	74	77	76	73	63	55	40	69	14,778
Male	75	75	78	74	74	65	59	42	71	6,825
Female	73	74	77	78	72	61	51	39	69	8,493

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006g) *Scottish Household Survey Travel Diary results for 2004*.

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/10134707/49>

While there is little difference in the proportions of men and women overall who reported journeys in 2004, there are differences in the likelihood of being a driver or passenger in a car, as Table 10.27 below shows. Women were less likely than men to be drivers in a car, 45% compared to 62%, and more likely than men to be passengers in a car, 21% compared to 9%. Women are also slightly more likely than men to use buses, 12% of women compared to 9% of men.

Table 10.27 Journeys(1) reported by adults (16+) - main mode of travel: 2004 (percentages)

	Walking	Car or Van:		Bicycle	Bus	Taxi/mini-cab	Rail	Other (m/cycl,u/grd, etc)	Sample size (journeys)
		Driver	Passen.						
All journeys in 2004	15	53	16	1	10	2	2	1	27,122
Male	14	62	9	1	9	1	2	2	11,933
Female	16	45	21	0	12	2	2	1	15,189

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006g) *Scottish Household Survey Travel Diary results for 2004*.

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/10134707/49>

There is some variation by gender in the purpose of journeys, as Table 10.28 below shows. In both 1999/00 and 2005, men were somewhat more likely than women to make a journey for the purpose of commuting, with 30% of men reporting this compared to 23% of women in 2005, for example. Women were more likely than men to report making a journey for shopping in both 1999/2000 and 2005, with 25% of women doing so compared to 19% of men. Otherwise there were virtually no differences between men and women with respect to the purpose of their journeys.

Table 10.28 Journeys(1) reported by adults (16+) - purpose: 1999/00; 2005 (percentages)

Purpose	All journeys in 1999/2000	Male	Female	All journeys in 2005	Male	Female
Commuting	23	25	20	26	30	23
Business	4	6	3	4	6	3
Education	3	2	3	3	2	4
Shopping	23	19	26	22	19	25
Visit hospital or other health	2	2	3	2	2	3
Other personal business	7	7	6	7	7	7
Visiting friends or relatives	12	11	13	10	9	11
Eating/Drinking	3	4	3	3	3	3
Sport/Entertainment	6	7	6	6	7	5
Holiday/day trip	5	5	5	3	4	3
Other or not known	5	5	5	3	3	3
Escort	7	7	8	9	9	9
<i>Base</i>	<i>56,929</i>	<i>25,503</i>	<i>31,426</i>	<i>24,658</i>	<i>10,864</i>	<i>13,794</i>

Source: Scottish Household Survey

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

With respect to shopping journeys specifically, women were more likely than men to travel for the main food shopping, 33% of women compared to 28% of men, while men were more likely than women to travel for non-food shopping, 43% of men compared to 39% of women, as Table 10.29 below shows for 2004.

Table 10.29 Shopping journeys (1) reported by adults (16+): April 2003 to December 2004 (percentages)

	Main Food	Other Food	Non-Food	All	Sample size (journeys)
All shopping journeys	31	29	40	100	10,743
Male	28	29	43	100	4,011
Female	33	29	39	100	6,732

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006g) *Scottish Household Survey Travel Diary results for 2004*.

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/10134707/49>

Table 10.30 Journeys(1) reported by adults (16+) - distance: 2004 (percentages)

	Under 1km	1 to under 2km	2 to under 3km	3 to under 5km	5 to under 10km	10 to under 15km	15 to under 20km	20 to under 40km	40 km and over	Sample size (journeys)
All journeys in 2004	18	15	11	13	17	9	5	7	5	26,939
Male	16	14	10	13	18	9	5	8	7	11,382
Female	20	16	11	14	16	8	5	7	3	15,107

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006g) *Scottish Household Survey Travel Diary results for 2004*.

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/10134707/49>

There was very little difference in the distances typically travelled by men and women as reported in the Scottish Household Survey for 2004, as Table 10.30 above shows, though women were more likely than men to make journeys of under one kilometre, with 20% of women doing so compared to 16% of men.

There were no significant gender differences in the start times of journeys reported in 2004, as Table 10.31 below shows, though women were slightly more likely than men to be starting journeys in the afternoon between 2 p.m. and 4.30 p.m.

Table 10.31 Journeys(1) reported by adults (16+) - start time: 2004 (percentages)

	Before 7am	7am to 9:30am	After 9:30am to before 12 noon	12 noon to 2pm	After 2pm to before 4:30pm	4:30pm to before 6:30pm	6.30pm onwards	Sample size (journeys)
All journeys in 2004	3	16	15	17	18	15	16	27,121
Male	4	17	14	16	16	16	17	11,932
Female	2	16	16	18	20	14	15	15,189

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006g) *Scottish Household Survey Travel Diary results for 2004*.

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/10134707/49>

Similarly there was little difference in the distribution of duration of journeys reported by men and women in 2004, as Table 10.32 below shows, though women were somewhat more likely than men to report making short journeys of 11 to 20 minutes.

Table 10.32 Journeys(1) reported by adults (16+) - duration: 2004 (percentages)

	Less than 5 min	5 to 10 min	11 to 20 min	21 to 30 min	31 to 60 min	61 to 120 min	121 to 179 min	180 min and over	Sample size (journeys)
All journeys in 2004	2	26	30	18	15	5	1	3	27,121
Male	2	26	28	19	16	6	1	3	11,932
Female	1	27	32	18	14	5	1	2	15,189

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006g) *Scottish Household Survey Travel Diary results for 2004*.

1. The interviewer says that there is no need to mention any journeys which were less than a quarter of a mile or less than five minutes on foot.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/03/10134707/49>

10.8 TRAVEL TO SCHOOL AND TRAVEL TO WORK

There were no significant differences in the main method of travel to school by boys and girls, as Table 10.33 shows for 2005. Around half of all pupils walked to school, while around 20% travelled to school by car.

Table 10.33 Usual main method of travel to school (1): 2005 (percentages)

	Walking	Car or Van	Bicycle	Bus			Rail ³	Other ⁴	Sample size
				School ²	Service	All			
All full-time at school:	53	21	1	16	7	24	1	2	3,272
boys	52	20	1	18	7	25	1	2	1,642
girls	53	22	0	15	7	22	1	2	1,630

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006b) *Scottish Transport Statistics*, 25.

1. For those in full time education at school. The main method of transport is recorded if there is more than one method.

2. Including those who were said to travel by 'private bus', and a few who went by 'works bus'.

3. Including the Glasgow Underground.

4. e.g. motorcycle, lorry, taxi, ferry, etc.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/160953/0043714.pdf>

There were some gender differences in patterns of travel to work, as Table 10.34 below shows. In 2005, women were more likely than men to walk to work, 15% compared to 10%, while men were more likely than women to drive to work, 65% compared to 56%.

Table 10.34 Employed (1) adults (16+) not working from home - usual method of travel to work: 2005 (percentages)

	Walking	Car or van		All	Bicycle	Bus	Rail ²	Other ³	Sample size
		Driver	Pass.						
All employed adults not working from home:	13	60	8	68	2	12	4	2	6,044
men	10	65	6	71	3	9	4	3	2,815
women	15	56	9	65	1	14	3	1	3,229

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2006b) *Scottish Transport Statistics*, 25.

1. The main method of transport is recorded if the journey involves more than one method.

2. Including the Glasgow Underground.

3. e.g. motorcycle, lorry, taxi, ferry, etc.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/160953/0043714.pdf>

There was also a gender difference in relation to the normal place of work for employed adults, as Table 10.35 below shows. In 2004, women were more likely than men to work only elsewhere than at home, 83% of women compared to 79% of men.

Table 10.35 Employed(1) adults (16+), normal working pattern: April 2003 to December 2004 (percentages)

	only at home	mainly at home	as much at home as not	mainly	only elsewhere	Sample size
All	2	2	1	13	81	12,094
men	2	2	2	15	79	5,779
women	3	2	1	11	83	6,315

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Household Transport in 2004: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

1. Those whose current situation was described as 'self-employed', 'employed full-time' or 'employed part-time'.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/DataSHSHousehold2004>

10.9 ADULTS WITH LIMITED MOBILITY

There were virtually no differences in the proportions of men and women who had limited mobility in 2004, as Table 10.36 below shows, nor in the types or numbers of activities which

adult men and women with limited mobility would find it difficult to manage. Similar proportions of men and women were holders of Blue Badges.³

Table 10.36 Adults (16+) - with limited mobility(1) : 2004 (percentages)

	Activities which the person would normally find it difficult to manage on his / her own					The number of such activities which the person would normally find difficult to manage on his / her own						Sample size
	Walking for at least 10 minutes	Using a ...				None	1	2 or 3	4 or 5	1 or more	All	
		car	taxi	bus	train							
All people aged 16+ in 2004	10	2	2	6	4	88	6	4	2	12	100	14,778
Men	10	2	2	5	4	89	6	3	2	11	100	6,285
Women	11	2	3	7	5	88	5	5	2	12	100	8,493
Adults who have Blue Badges (as a proportion of the whole adult population)												
All with Blue Badge	4	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	4	5	14,778
Men	4	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	4	5	6,285
Women	4	1	1	3	2	1	1	2	1	4	5	8,493

Source: Scottish Household Survey. Scottish Executive (2005b) *Household Transport in 2004: some Scottish Household Survey results*.

1. Only people with a long-standing illness, health problem or disability are asked if there are activities that they would normally find difficult to manage on their own. Therefore, in this analysis, other people are counted as *not* having such difficulties.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/Browse/Transport-Travel/TablesPublications/DataSHSHousehold2004>

10.10 ROAD ACCIDENTS

As well as there being some gender differences in patterns of access to different types of transport and usage of transport, there are gender differences in the likelihood of being involved in road accidents. As Table 10.37 shows, over the period from 1995 to 2005, the numbers of males involved in road accidents was greater than the number of females, though there was an overall decline in the number of accidents and casualties over this period.

Table 10.37 Summary road accident and casualty statistics (all modes of transport): 1995 to 2005

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Male	12,874	12,367	12,788	12,707	11,889	11,530	11,305	11,079	10,644	10,419	10,178
Female	9,320	9,349	9,841	9,760	9,114	8,956	8,580	8,175	8,075	7,973	7,620

Source: STATS 21. Scottish Executive (2006h) *Road Accidents Scotland, 2005*

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/22093058/81>

Table 10.38 below shows the numbers and rates for those involved in accidents from 1995 to 2005. This indicates that over the period 2001-2005 men were almost twice as likely as

³ The Blue (formerly Orange) Badge Scheme provides a national arrangement of on-street parking concessions enabling people with severe walking difficulties who travel either as drivers or passengers to park close to their destinations. The Scheme also applies to registered blind people and people with severe upper limb disabilities who regularly drive a vehicle but cannot turn a steering wheel by hand.

women to be involved in accidents as car drivers, a rate of 5.6 per 1,000 of the male population compared to a rate of 2.9 per 1,000 of the female population.

Table 10.38 Car drivers involved in accidents by age and sex (1): 1994-98 and 2001-2005 averages, 1995 to 2005

	Year	Numbers					Rates per thousand population				
		17-22	23-29	30-59	60+	Total ⁽²⁾	17-22	23-29	30-59	60+	Total (3)
Male	1994-98 average	2,600	2,660	6,616	1,375	13,514	13.5	10.2	6.6	3.2	7
	1995	2,635	2,764	6,404	1,332	13,415	13.6	10.1	6.4	3.1	6.9
	1996	2,574	2,541	6,334	1,354	13,060	13.6	9.6	6.3	3.1	6.8
	1997	2,641	2,657	6,901	1,482	13,993	14.1	10.5	6.8	3.4	7.2
	1998	2,476	2,531	6,911	1,410	13,523	13.1	10.5	6.7	3.2	7
	1999	2,157	2,190	6,491	1,342	12,287	11.4	9.5	6.3	3	6.4
	2000	2,120	1,941	6,343	1,385	11,874	11	8.9	6.1	3.1	6.2
	2001	2,039	1,788	6,079	1,331	11,307	10.4	8.5	5.8	2.9	5.9
	2002	2,041	1,611	6,023	1,368	11,127	10.4	7.8	5.7	3	5.8
	2003	1,969	1,545	5,854	1,410	10,850	10	7.4	5.6	3.1	5.6
	2004	1,908	1,623	5,807	1,366	10,764	9.6	7.7	5.5	2.9	5.5
	2005	1,911	1,509	5,406	1,316	10,177	9.4	7	5.1	2.8	5.2
	2001-2005 average	1,976	1,616	5,836	1,359	10,851	10	7.7	5.6	2.9	5.6
Female	1994-98 average	1,072	1,475	3,610	417	6,643	5.6	5.5	3.5	0.7	3.1
	1995	1,008	1,503	3,287	389	6,257	5.3	5.4	3.2	0.6	2.9
	1996	1,080	1,427	3,547	429	6,557	5.7	5.3	3.4	0.7	3.1
	1997	1,114	1,520	3,857	454	7,020	5.9	5.9	3.7	0.7	3.3
	1998	1,040	1,497	4,040	459	7,112	5.5	6	3.8	0.7	3.3
	1999	971	1,344	3,850	472	6,652	5.1	5.6	3.6	0.8	3.1
	2000	842	1,177	3,951	509	6,501	4.4	5.1	3.6	0.8	3.1
	2001	897	1,095	3,923	504	6,440	4.7	5	3.6	0.8	3
	2002	829	1,037	3,884	510	6,277	4.3	4.9	3.5	0.8	2.9
	2003	834	991	3,812	541	6,196	4.3	4.7	3.4	0.9	2.9
	2004	916	1,002	3,670	522	6,122	4.7	4.7	3.3	0.8	2.9
	2005	831	929	3,493	539	5,808	4.2	4.3	3.1	0.9	2.7
	2000-2004 average	864	1,060	3,848	517	6,307	4.5	4.9	3.5	0.8	3

Source: STATS 21. Scottish Executive (2006h) *Road Accidents Scotland, 2005*.

1. In some cases, a driver's age and/or sex was not known. Such drivers are counted in the table on the basis of whatever details are known - i.e. in the appropriate age-groups if their ages are known, and in the appropriate sex category if their sex is known. The 'all ages' totals include those whose ages were not traced, and the 'both sexes' totals include those of unknown sex. The grand totals include those for whom neither the age nor the sex was known, most of whom will be the drivers of cars which were parked at the time of the accident.

2. Including drivers whose age is not known.

3. Excludes drivers under 17 and those where ages and sex are not known.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/22093058/81>

Table 10.39 below indicates that for the period 2001-2005 the average number of males who were killed or seriously injured in road accidents was greater than the average number of

females. Accident rates were also greater for males than females for adults and children in all classes of casualty.

Table 10.39 Casualties by age, severity and sex, separately for each casualty class (1): Years: 2001-2005 average (Numbers and rates per thousand population)

Casualty class/age	Male			Female		
	Killed	Killed and serious	All Severities	Killed	Killed and Serious	All Severities
Numbers						
Pedestrian						
Total ⁽²⁾	45	515	1,917	26	298	1,238
Child 0-15	5	195	781	4	96	465
Adult 16+	40	320	1,129	22	203	769
Driver or rider						
Total ⁽²⁾	150	1,319	6,603	30	396	3,524
Child 0-15	2	43	233	-	9	54
Adult 16+	148	1,275	6,362	30	387	3,467
Passenger vehicle/pillion						
Total ⁽²⁾	33	351	2,211	31	433	3,330
Child 0-15	2	57	487	2	50	517
Adult 16+	31	292	1,715	29	382	2,800
Rates per thousand population						
Pedestrian						
Total ⁽²⁾	0.02	0.20	0.80	0.01	0.10	0.50
Child 0-15	0.01	0.40	2.00	0.01	0.20	1.00
Adult 16+	0.02	0.20	0.10	0.01	0.10	0.40
Driver or rider						
Total ⁽²⁾	0.06	0.50	2.70	0.01	0.20	1.30
Child 0-15	0.00	0.10	0.50	0.00	0.02	0.10
Adult 16+	0.08	0.70	3.30	0.01	0.20	1.60
Passenger vehicle/pillion						
Total ⁽²⁾	0.01	0.10	0.90	0.01	0.20	1.30
Child 0-15	0.00	0.10	1.00	0.00	0.10	1.10
Adult 16+	0.02	0.20	0.90	0.01	0.20	1.30

Source: STATS 21. Scottish Executive (2006h) *Road Accidents Scotland, 2005*.

1. Due to a small problem with a few records, some of the figures in this table will not match exactly those of other tables.

2. Includes those whose sex and/or age was not known.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/22093058/81>

Table 10.40 below indicates the numbers of casualties and casualty rates, comparing the 1994-98 averages with 2000-2004. This indicates that casualty rates are consistently higher for males than for females, though they have declined for both sexes. It also indicates that the highest casualty rates for the 16-22 age group for both sexes, though it is markedly higher for males.

Table 10.40 Number of casualties and casualty rates per thousand population by age groups: Years: 1994-98 and 2001-2005 averages, 2001 to 2005

Year	Age										All Ages ⁽¹⁾
	0-4	5-11	12-15	16-22	23-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70+	
Numbers											
2005 Male	156	602	496	2,159	1,360	1,888	1,571	930	522	480	10,178
2005 Female	112	375	415	1,369	925	1,294	1,109	815	538	661	7,620
Casualty rates											
Male											
1994-98 average	2.00	5.30	6.00	11.80	8.30	5.90	4.10	3.10	2.60	2.60	5.20
2001	1.70	3.80	4.70	9.70	7.30	6.10	4.30	3.00	2.30	2.30	4.70
2002	1.50	4.00	4.40	9.70	6.90	6.00	4.30	3.00	2.20	2.20	4.60
2003	1.40	3.40	4.20	9.30	6.50	5.70	4.20	3.00	2.40	2.20	4.40
2004	1.40	3.20	4.10	8.70	6.60	5.80	4.10	3.00	2.30	2.10	4.30
2005	1.20	2.90	3.80	9.20	6.30	5.50	4.20	2.80	2.10	2.10	4.10
2001-2005 average	1.50	3.50	4.20	9.30	6.70	5.80	4.20	3.00	2.30	2.20	4.40
Casualty rates											
Female											
1994-98 average	1.70	3.20	4.40	7.50	5.50	3.90	3.10	2.80	2.40	2.30	3.60
2001	1.00	2.70	3.80	6.60	5.00	3.90	3.00	2.60	2.20	1.90	3.30
2002	1.10	2.40	3.50	6.00	4.70	3.70	3.00	2.70	2.00	2.00	3.10
2003	1.00	2.20	3.40	5.90	4.80	3.80	3.00	2.50	2.10	2.00	3.10
2004	1.00	2.20	3.40	6.30	4.70	3.80	2.70	2.50	2.00	1.90	3.00
2005	0.90	1.90	3.30	6.00	4.30	3.50	2.80	2.40	2.00	1.90	2.90
2001-2005 average	1.00	2.30	3.50	6.20	4.70	3.80	2.90	2.50	2.00	1.90	3.10

Source: STATS 21. Scottish Executive (2006h) *Road Accidents Scotland, 2005*.

1. Includes those whose ages were 'not known'.

<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/11/22093058/81>

10.11 SUMMARY

This chapter has looked at evidence of gender differences in access to and usage of transport. 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 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.

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. In general these differences have been declining over time, with in recent years the proportion of women having driving licences increasing at a much faster rate than for men. 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. Within GB they are also under-represented in professional and managerial positions within the transport sector, or in transport related bodies (Hamilton et al, 2005), a situation likely to be similar for Scotland, though no specific data are available on this topic.

Research carried out in Scotland (Reid-Howie Associates, 2000) found patterns of gendered access to transport similar to those reported here, and emphasised 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 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. Constraints were identified as lack of safety, physical access, timing and routes of services, cost, information, and lack of consultation in the development of transport policy.

With respect to disabled people recent research has been critical of transport policy and service provision for lack of recognition of the needs of disabled people and the failure to make vehicles and transport services accessible (Riddell and Banks, 2001), though it was acknowledged that there is a changing policy context in relation to facilitating access for disabled people as a consequence of anti-discrimination legislation. Riddell and Banks also point out the role of road traffic accidents in creating disability, and the particular vulnerability to accidents of child pedestrians in the lowest socio-economic groups. The statistics in this report have also underlined the greater risk to adult males and male children than to females from road accidents, and the greater likelihood of male car drivers being involved in accidents compared to female drivers.

While there has been little research on gender and transport in Scotland, the Scottish Household Survey has greatly improved data on transport in Scotland in general, and on gender and transport in particular. There is, however, the potential for greater analysis of data from the Scottish Household Survey, for example to provide information on gendered patterns of access to transport and of transport use in rural areas, or for particular groups, such as disabled people. Within the context of the Gender Equality Duty, it will be incumbent upon transport policy makers and planners at Scottish Executive level, and on local authorities and regional transport partnerships, to ensure that such data are used appropriately to inform policy development, as well as ensuring that women's views are included in the consultation process.

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CONCLUSION

The purpose of this report has been to review statistical evidence of gender inequalities and differences in Scotland across a range of key areas of social and economic life, and to suggest ways in which such statistical evidence may be used to inform the development of gender equality schemes, the process of undertaking gender impact assessments, and policy formulation. It has also provided guidance on sources of statistics, and suggested areas where further analysis of data and further research would be beneficial. Where possible the report has also attempted to indicate where gender differences interact with characteristics such as ethnicity and disability.

This report has illustrated key trends in respect of gender inequalities and differences in contemporary Scotland. In general the data indicate that despite some convergence in the position of women and men, such changes are slow, and that in some areas significant gender inequalities persist. In the main such inequalities disadvantage women, though in some instances the position of boys and men is disadvantaged compared to girls and women. These patterns, reflecting women's disadvantage economically and socially, are observable internationally, and exist throughout the UK as a whole as well as in many other countries.

KEY TRENDS

Demographic changes and changes in household structure mean that an increasing proportion of the population live in single person households, and that more people experience relationship breakdown, which has both income and housing consequences for those involved. Such changing patterns have particular implications for caring responsibilities, for lone parents and for those with second families, for example, while the ageing of the population has implications for both provision of social security and care for older people. All of these changes have differential impacts on women and men, particularly since the gender division of labour in caring within households remains unequal, with women continuing to carry out the major share of informal caring.

Within political and public life women remain under-represented, though they have increased their share within political institutions and public bodies. Despite this increasing share, within many areas of decision-making and senior management women remain seriously under-represented, such as in the judiciary, senior civil service, and local government, while for other sectors such as business or trade unions there are few or no data available about the gender composition of decision-making bodies. As citizens, women and men are equally active, whether as voters or volunteers, though patterns of voting and volunteering are not identical.

Education is the sphere in which the greatest changes have taken place in comparative performance between males and females, with girls now outperforming boys at all levels within schools, and with young women now making up the majority of entrants to further and higher education. While concern has been expressed about boys' underperformance, there are greater differences in educational attainment between boys and girls from lower socio-economic groups and those from higher socio-economic groups than between girls and boys in general. Despite girls generally achieving better levels of attainment at school, subject choice is still markedly gendered i.e. exhibits distinctive patterns of choice by boys and girls which are systematically different, and this is also reflected within further and higher education.

While women are slightly more likely than men to benefit from work-related training, men make up the majority of participants in government training schemes, some of which continue to reflect gender stereotypes of occupations.

These gendered subject and occupational choices are also reflected within occupational and industrial segregation of men and women in the labour market, which have remained persistent despite women's increasing participation in paid work. Women's rates of employment have been increasing faster than men's and there has been considerable convergence in the propensity of women and men to undertake paid work. However, a far higher proportion of women than men work part-time, and the presence of young dependent children in households has a much more marked impact on women's patterns of labour market participation than it does on men's. Just as women are more likely than men to work part-time, they are more likely to make use of flexible working arrangements in general, though part-time work remains the most common form of these.

Occupational and industrial segregation, and the prevalence of part-time work among women all affect the average levels of earnings of women compared to men. Over time the gender pay gap has steadily decreased but remains significant, with part-time women workers being particularly disadvantaged compared to full-time workers of both sexes. Low pay still affects around a quarter of all employees in Scotland, with a disproportionate share of these being women. In terms of access to individual incomes from all sources of income, women are even more disadvantaged in comparison to men than in access to earnings alone, though the gender gap here has also been decreasing. Women are slightly more likely than men in general to be dependent on benefits and low incomes, and lone parents and single women pensioners are particularly likely to be living in poverty. One consequence of women's intermittent labour market participation and/or part-time work is their lower access than men to occupational pension schemes, and thus more women than men are dependent on state benefits in retirement.

A crucial factor shaping the different patterns of participation of women and men in the labour market is the gender division of labour in caring, both in childcare and caring for adult dependants. Childcare provision in Scotland has increased significantly in recent years, though the provision available is not uniform across Scotland and does not meet the needs of all parents who wish to work. Patterns of informal caring for adult dependants indicate that the gender balance in caring becomes more equal with age, with many men as well as women in older age groups caring for spouses or partners. Women, however, are still the majority of informal carers, and tend to take responsibility for caring for a wider range of people within and outwith the household than do men.

With respect to health there are both points of comparison between women and men in terms of illness and disease and health behaviours, and areas in which there are gender specific diseases and health needs. Women continue to enjoy greater life expectancy than men, though the gap between men and women in average life expectancy has been decreasing. The majority of deaths of both women and men are caused by cancers, heart disease and strokes, though there are different patterns to the incidence and death rates of these diseases for men and women. Women are less likely than men to risk their health through smoking, alcohol consumption or obesity,

though there has been some convergence in trends between the sexes. Men are more likely than women to be physically active. Women's reproductive health needs have resulted in specific health programmes aimed at them, and this brings them into contact with health services more frequently than is the case for men. Women use GP services more frequently than do men, though men are more likely to be hospital inpatients. Patterns of mental health differ between men and women, with women being more likely than men to suffer from anxiety and depression, and men being more likely than women to commit suicide.

Patterns of crime and of victimisation also vary between women and men. Men are much more likely than women to commit crimes, and are also more likely to commit serious crimes. There are far higher numbers of men than of women in prison in Scotland, though numbers have been rising for both men and women, with the rate of increase for women being much faster in recent years, though overall numbers are small. Men are more likely than women to be victims of violent crime in general. However, women are overwhelmingly the victims of crimes such as domestic abuse and rape. Women are more likely than men to be worried about crime, particularly the risk of assault.

While men and women in heterosexual couple households, with or without dependent children, experience the same quality of housing provision, access to housing exhibits gendered patterns. Households in which a man is the highest earner are more likely to have access to better quality housing in general than households in which a woman is the highest earner, for example, being more likely to be home owners. Female headed households, such as lone parents and female lone pensioners, are likely to be more reliant than other types of household on social rented housing. However, single men are the group most vulnerable to homelessness, followed by lone parents and single women. Disputes with relatives are a common cause of homelessness for both sexes, and for lone parents a high proportion of disputes leading to homelessness have involved violence.

Access to car ownership and to transport services and patterns of usage of these are also gendered. Men are more likely than women to hold driving licences and to have access to a car, and they are also likely to drive more frequently than women and to drive greater distances. Women are correspondingly more likely than men to be users of public transport, and in particular of bus services, though are less likely than men to feel safe using bus services at night. Men are more reliant than women on cars for travel to work and work related travel. There are some differences in the purpose of journeys carried out by men and women, with men being more likely than women to be travelling for work purposes, and women being more likely than men to be travelling for food shopping purposes. Very small proportions of both men and women walk on a daily basis or cycle.

Throughout this report, statistics on the gender composition of public sector workforces have been provided in the relevant chapters, including the civil service, teachers in schools, further and higher education, childcare and social care workers, NHS staff, police forces, prison services, and social work services for offenders. These statistics indicate that for most areas of public service provision women make up the majority of the workforce, though in certain areas, such as higher education, the police service, and prison services, men make up the majority. In all cases, women

are under-represented at senior levels. This occupational distribution across professional public service workforces, administration and ancillary services, reflects gender stereotyping in subject choices within education and in occupational choices in adult life. In particular it reflects the gender division of labour in caring, where the gender roles of women and men within the family and in informal caring are mirrored in the roles they play in the education and caring professions.

THE INTER-RELATIONSHIP OF PATTERNS OF GENDER INEQUALITY

The key trends in gender inequalities and differences outlined above indicate not only the persistence of gender inequalities, but that they affect many aspects of social and economic life. They are also in many ways inter-related. Patterns of family change both affect and are affected by employment patterns and levels of income. These influence both decisions about childbearing and about childrearing, and they also influence the capacity of individuals to care for others at different stages in their lifecourse and to ensure that they themselves will be adequately cared for in old age. Expansion of formal care provision and greater support for informal carers provides recognition of the social value of care and the vital role this plays in society. Yet, continuing gender imbalances in informal care still create barriers to gender equality.

The unequal division of labour in caring is one factor contributing to gender differences in patterns of participation in political and public life, since this can restrict the time and money available to women that is needed for active participation. Gender imbalances in access to income and power can also limit the individual autonomy of women, who are more likely than men to be dependent on a partner for material resources, and they may also lack support from partners to put themselves forward for public positions. Access to resources such as transport may also be a factor, especially where women are concerned about their safety.

Access to education is a crucial determinant of subsequent opportunities in life, in terms of job opportunities and careers, remuneration and other work related rewards. It is clear that the major area of disadvantage in relation to educational achievement lies in socio-economic status, where both boys and girls with low levels of attainment are more likely to experience unemployment and/or restricted job opportunities, with employment often following stereotyped gender paths. As a consequence poorly qualified girls are likely to find themselves in poorly paid, low skilled jobs. While young men with few or no qualifications are more likely than young women to be unemployed, they have more opportunities through training programmes to acquire skills leading to better paid jobs. Low levels of educational attainment are also often associated with offending behaviour, and this is a greater problem with regard to young men than young women. Where educational performance is high for both boys and girls, girls' advantage in performance at school and in participation in higher education has not yet carried through to equality at work in terms of position or pay, even where women graduates are working in the same professions and sectors as male graduates, while for many the gendered patterns of subject choice lead to a different distribution across professions. In general this has consequences for average levels of pay with male dominated professions tending to attract higher average pay than female dominated professions.

Subject choice in education is one important factor shaping gender differences in the labour market. The other key difference is the different patterns of participation

shaped by caring responsibilities. Where women are able to restrict time out of the labour market and/or mostly work full-time they are likely to achieve higher levels of seniority and pay. If by contrast in order to manage family responsibilities they work part-time for much of their working life they are likely to remain at relatively low levels of pay, with few promotion prospects. This can often also result in women working at a level below that for which they are qualified, which represents an underutilisation of human capital and a loss to economic productivity.

Given that earnings are the most important source of income for both sexes, patterns of participation in the labour market and in the sharing of care are the most important factors underpinning inequalities in access to income for women and men. As women are more likely to be economically inactive than men, largely on account of caring and family responsibilities, they are more likely to be without any source of independent income. Data on men's and women's individual incomes indicate the extent to which women are likely to be dependent on men for a level of income adequate to maintain themselves and their children, though these data do not indicate how resources are distributed within households. It can, however, leave women vulnerable to abuse by partners who seek to control their lives, a characteristic which is common among perpetrators of domestic abuse. The loss of autonomy for individual women that occurs in such situations is a barrier to participation in work and social life outside the home, and hence a factor contributing to gender inequality.

The impact of care responsibilities on labour market participation and earnings has already been noted. Care responsibilities for adult dependants as well as child-caring and rearing can inhibit labour market participation, and may also have negative impacts on the health of carers, and limit the time available for social activity outside the home. As noted above, women are the vast majority of care workers, many of whom are poorly paid. Arguably, the greater recognition of the social value of care afforded by recent policy changes also needs to be reflected in higher levels of pay for care workers. This would help to mitigate the economic costs to women of the care they undertake.

While biological differences lead to some differences in patterns of health and the health needs of women and men, the different levels of health and life expectancy enjoyed by men and women are significantly influenced by factors such as socio-economic status, which in turn affects the environment they live in and health behaviours. Employment is a crucial factor in shaping health in terms of the quality of working conditions, social benefits, and capacity to maintain a decent standard of living. Ethnicity and disability also affect patterns of health, and are not identical across different minority ethnic groups or different groups of disabled people.

There are a range of factors associated with patterns of offending, such as poor levels of education, difficult circumstances at home or in an individual's family background, and poverty, and these are often compounded by health problems, particularly those associated with drug or alcohol abuse. While patterns of offending take different forms for men and women, these factors are likely to be common to both male and female offenders. With respect to victimisation, socio-economic status contributes to different levels of risk for affluent and for poor communities, with residents of the latter being more vulnerable to crimes such as housebreaking. Some types of crime may also lead to people feeling unsafe outside the home, and even inside the home,

with the risk of physical or sexual assault being a concern for women, and risk of racial abuse or harassment being a concern for people from minority ethnic communities. Fear of crime at night or travelling on public transport is also likely to act as a constraint on social or public activities for some people, in particular women and older people.

The type of housing to which people have access and its location is also important in terms of safety, well-being and health, and access to housing is crucially determined by income levels. Poor quality housing located in areas with poor facilities may have negative impacts on people's health, while making access to shops, facilities, and services time consuming. It may also restrict the job opportunities open to people because of lack of transport facilities, a problem likely to be compounded for women who have responsibility for pre-school and school-age children. Income levels are similarly crucial to access to transport, which has an impact on access to employment and services. Gendered patterns of access to housing and transport tend then to reinforce disadvantage for particular groups of women.

In indicating ways in which aspects of gendered experience are inter-related, it becomes clear that many factors interact to reinforce patterns of gender inequality. There is not one simple cause of gender inequality, but rather disadvantage in one area often contributes to disadvantage in another area. Nonetheless, it is important to stress that while some gender inequalities, such as levels of pay and income or life expectancy, may be generally apparent across socio-economic groups, in terms of quality of life, levels of health, access to housing and other resources, and income levels, the differences between women in higher socio-economic groups and women in lower socio-economic groups are likely to be much greater than the differences between men and women in these groups respectively. Thus policy responses to inequalities need to address the experiences of different groups. Similarly, the ways in which ethnicity interacts with gender, and in which disability interacts with gender, means that there are different experiences for different minority ethnic groups and different groups of disabled people. And insofar as discrimination is a contributory factor, however hard it may be to uncover or to quantify, it needs to be actively challenged. The data and trends described in this report can be used to facilitate this process. Furthermore, the use of good quality gender disaggregated statistics in the production of equality schemes, in conducting gender impact assessments, and in evaluating and monitoring the gender equality objectives that public authorities set themselves, should help to further clarify the extent and nature of gender inequalities, and to assess the impacts of specific policies in bringing about positive changes.

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APPENDIX I

KEY DATA SOURCES

This appendix outlines the key data sources for the statistics included in this report. These key data sources include the General Register Office for Scotland, administrative data from public authorities, and survey data from surveys commissioned by government departments. The order of entries in the section on administrative data follows the order of chapters in this report, while entries on surveys are listed in alphabetical order. The appendix concludes with a list of sources of data for local geographies within Scotland.

1. DATA ON POPULATION AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE

General Register Office for Scotland

The General Register Office for Scotland (GROS) administers the registration of events such as births, deaths, marriages, civil partnerships, divorces and adoptions, and is responsible for the statutes relating to the formalities of marriage and conduct of civil marriage. GROS takes the census of Scotland's population every ten years and prepares and publishes demographic and other statistics for central and local Government, for medical research, and for the private sector. GROS also makes available to customers public records about individuals, and maintains for the Scottish Executive the National Health Service Central Register.

The Registrar General has a statutory duty to report each year on various statistical matters. This Annual Report is then laid before The Scottish Parliament by the First Minister. It contains an overview of what is happening in Scotland, based on demographic data collated for the previous calendar year. The annual report is supplemented by a set of Reference Tables that include detailed information on births, deaths (including information on cause of death), marriages, divorces, and population estimates for the same period. GROS also produces a provisional Quarterly Return containing demographic data for the current year. In addition to the range of standard statistics (including Scottish census statistics) available, GROS produces other statistical output to order.

2. ADMINISTRATIVE DATA

Many of the statistical bulletins and other statistical publications produced by the Scottish Executive provide analyses of administrative data collated from public authorities and services, including local government, education and training bodies, the NHS in Scotland, police services, and prison services. The key types of administrative data are outlined below.

Education and Training

The Scottish Executive Education Department collates and publishes data on education at all levels and on training drawn from local authority returns, the annual pupil census (which is to be replaced by a sample survey), the independent schools census, the annual staff census, the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA), Careers Scotland, the Student Awards Agency Scotland, Further Education Colleges, Higher Education Institutions, the Higher Education Statistics Agency, the Scottish Funding Council and Enterprise Networks.

Care services: children, disabled people, and older people

Data on pre-school and childcare provision Scotland are provided from the pre-school education and day care census, and the childminder survey. Data on Home Care Services are provided in Home Care Statistical Returns H1 by local authorities. Data on Day Care Services are provided in Day Care Services Census D1-B returns by local authorities. Data provided on registered blind and partially sighted people are provided in Registration of Blind and

Partially Sighted Return Form SWB by local authorities. There is an annual survey of local authorities on the number of disabled adults known to them, their living arrangements and what services are provided for them.

Health

The General Register Office for Scotland (GROS) and Information Services Division (ISD) Scotland collate and publish data from administrative returns on a wide range of aspects of health including patterns of mortality and morbidity, births, infant mortality, abortion, contraceptive services, inpatient episodes, mental health, use of GP services, cervical screening services, and breast screening services. ISD Scotland also collates and publishes statistics on the NHS workforce.

Crime and Justice

The Justice Department of the Scottish Executive collates and publishes data on recorded crime, court proceedings, sentences and other disposals such as community orders, and the prison population. Data are provided by police forces, local authority returns on social work and probation services, and computerised records systems such as the Scottish Offenders' Index, the Scottish Criminal Records Office, and the Prison Records System.

Housing and homelessness

Statistics on statutory homelessness are based on returns made by local authorities to an electronic data capture system, which allows cases to be registered and updated on a continuous basis, as well as enabling applications made by the same household to be linked. Data on housing support through Supporting People Funding Scotland are collated from returns from local authorities.

Transport

STATS21 is the personal injury road accident reporting system. Local and national government, and police forces, work closely to achieve a common reporting standard. These statistics are the key source of data on road accidents, though other sources used include Coroners' data, and police force screening breath test data. STATS21 data can be disaggregated for England, Scotland, and Wales, and also to local authority level.

3. SURVEYS

Annual Business Inquiry

The Annual Business Inquiry (ABI) is conducted in two parts: one dealing with employment, the other with financial information. The financial inquiry covers about two thirds of the UK economy including: production; construction; distribution and service industries; agriculture (part), hunting, forestry and fishing. The coverage of the employment inquiry is wider. Regional data are available for Government Office Regions in England, for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

The Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE) provides information about the levels, distribution and make-up of earnings and hours worked for employees in all industries and occupations. The ASHE is a new survey developed to replace the New Earnings Survey (NES) from 2004, including improvements to the coverage of employees, imputation for item non-response and the weighting of earnings estimates. In 2005 a new questionnaire was introduced for ASHE, which included improvements to the collection of data relating to allowances and incentive pay. The annually published ASHE volumes contain UK data on

earnings for employees by sex and full-time/part-time workers. Further breakdowns include by region; occupation; industry; region by occupation; and age-groups, for the following variables: gross weekly pay, gross hourly pay, gross annual pay, weekly pay excluding overtime, hourly pay excluding overtime, overtime pay, shift pay, gross hours worked and overtime hours worked.

British Household Panel Survey

The British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) is designed as a research resource for a wide range of social science disciplines and to support interdisciplinary research in many areas. The main objective of the survey is to further our understanding of social and economic change at the individual and household level in Britain, to identify, model and forecast such changes, their causes and consequences in relation to a range of socio-economic variables. Data has been collected annually since 1991, and data is available for England, Scotland, and Wales.

Census UK

The Census is a survey of all people and households in the country. It provides essential information from national to neighbourhood level for government, business, and the community. It covers information about household type, housing tenure, car ownership, and economic activity, ethnicity, and religion, among other things, and it contains questions on general health and long-term limiting illness. The Census is conducted every 10 years, and the most recent Census was on 29 April 2001.

Family Resources Survey

The Family Resources Survey is a continuous survey of private households commissioned by the UK Department of Work and Pensions (DWP). The target number for fully co-operating households on the FRS is approximately 24,000 per annum throughout the UK. Adults eligible for inclusion in the survey are asked a wide range of questions about their circumstances including tenure and housing costs, and childcare and carers. The sample size allows for analyses of the circumstances of specific groups and sub groups, including regional breakdowns.

Health Education Population Survey

The Health Education Population Survey (HEPS) monitors general population trends in Scotland in adults' knowledge, attitudes and motivation to change in relation to health-related behaviours. It also measures behaviours and self-perceived health. The survey is conducted by BMRB International with a nationally representative annual sample of around 1800 adults aged between 16 and 74 years and response rate around 70%. The continuing value of the HEPS will be assessed early in 2007 once the revised shape of the Scottish Executive's Scottish Health Survey is established.

Households Below Average Income

Regular analyses of Households Below Average Income (HBAI) are published, showing the proportions and numbers of children, working age adults and pensioners living in low income households in Scotland. These estimates are derived from the UK Department of Work and Pensions' HBAI analysis, which is based on the Family Resources Survey.

Labour Force Survey

The Labour Force Survey is a quarterly survey of households living at private addresses in the UK. Its purpose is to provide information on the UK labour market that can be used to

develop, manage, evaluate and report on labour market policies. The survey seeks information on respondents' personal circumstances and their labour market status in a specific reference period, normally a period of one week or four weeks, prior to the interview. It covers a range of aspects of economic activity and inactivity, including type of work, hours of work, industry, occupation, and travel to work. Data can be disaggregated for England, Scotland and Wales, and also for various regional or local units, such as local authority areas. Information on local labour market, learning and skills issues is also available from the Annual Population Survey (APS). The APS, which has replaced the Annual Local Labour Force Surveys (ALALFS) combines results from the quarterly LFS with local area boost surveys in England, Scotland and Wales. It is published quarterly on a rolling annual basis. Data relevant to education and training from the Labour Force Survey include participation in government training schemes, participation in in-work training, and the highest level of qualification held.

National Travel Survey

The National Travel Survey is a continuous survey which collects 'travel diary' details from a sample of households across Great Britain. It provides information about travel patterns, journey lengths and frequency, purpose of journeys, access to cars, and methods of travel. Until 2002, results from the survey were grouped together and reported on for a three-year period in order to improve statistical reliability. In 2002, the sample size was considerably increased. In 2003-04, the sample covered 16,380 households, and 38,666 adults across Great Britain. Prior to 2002 in Scotland, only around 300 households were included, but this has now increased to 1,563 households (and 3,657 individuals) in 2003-04.

New Earnings Survey

The New Earnings Survey (NES) was an annual sample survey of the earnings of employees in Great Britain. The main purpose of the survey was to obtain information about the levels, distribution and make-up of earnings, and for the collective agreements which cover them. From October 2004 the New Earnings Survey (NES) was replaced by the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE).

Scottish Crime and Victimization Survey

The Scottish Crime and Victimization Survey (SCVS), formerly the Scottish Crime Survey, was re-launched in 2004 after a review of the Scottish Crime Survey carried out by the Scottish Executive. The most recently published data from the Scottish Crime Survey was gathered in 2003, and was a household survey of people's experiences and perceptions of crime, based on interviews with over 5,000 adults throughout Scotland. This was the sixth such survey, and the last in that form. The larger SCVS represents a major shift in design, methodology and sample size from previous surveys, and it is now a continuous survey with an annual sample of 27,500 adults interviewed by telephone. The new SCVS will report on a financial year basis, not a calendar year basis as previously, and will therefore provide data comparable with the British Crime Survey, which also reports on a financial year basis.

Scottish Health Survey

Closely modelled on the Health Survey for England, the Scottish Health Survey is commissioned by the Scottish Executive Health Department. The survey was carried out in 1995, 1998 and 2003 by the National Centre for Social Research (which also carries out the Health Survey for England). The aim of the Scottish Health Survey is to gain knowledge about the health of the population of Scotland, and the survey collects key household data from one member of the household and individual health data from one adult and up to two children in the household. It collects information on a wide range of health-related

information, including: details of physical activity, eating habits, smoking, drinking, blood pressure, obesity, respiratory, blood and cardiovascular problems, and general health matters.

Scottish Household Survey

The Scottish Household Survey was developed in order to provide a better source of information for Scotland, which had previously experienced difficulties with UK/GB information sources which were too infrequent, insufficiently detailed, or based on too small samples to provide reliable information for Scotland. It began in 1999, and over the first four years achieved a sample of approximately 62,000 households collected continuously. Approximately 3,900 households are being interviewed each quarter. The survey aims to provide household and individual information not currently available in Scotland, and in particular to support work in policy areas relevant to the Development Department's responsibilities in Communities, Transport and Local Government. Data can be disaggregated for larger local authority areas on an annual basis, and for all local authorities every two years.

Scottish Social Attitudes Survey

The Scottish Social Attitudes survey was launched by research organisation NatCen Scotland in 1999. Its aim is to provide independent, authoritative, high quality data on social and political attitudes in Scotland. This data helps inform public policy and facilitate the academic study of public opinion, in much the same way that NatCen's British Social Attitudes Survey has done since 1983 across Britain as a whole. The SSA explores issues in much greater detail than opinion polls are able to, and aims to identify underlying patterns in people's attitudes and values and how these patterns change over time. The survey takes place annually and is based on a random sample of around 1,600 people across Scotland (including a booster sample of respondents in rural areas). The SSA is therefore large enough to explore variations across key sub-groups.

4. AVAILABILITY OF GENDER DISAGGREGATED DATA AT LOCAL LEVEL

As noted in the introduction, the vast majority of the statistics included in this report are for Scotland as a whole, though a small number of tables showing gender disaggregated data for local authority areas have also been included. There is, however, a range of gender disaggregated data available for local geographies within Scotland including, for example, local authority and health board areas. Many of the statistical publications produced by the Scottish Executive which include gender disaggregated data tend to do this only at Scottish level, though there are some instances of gender disaggregated data for local authority areas being included in such publications, for example, housing support and homelessness. Gender disaggregated statistics for local geographies within Scotland which are currently available are mostly available in online form, rather than in hard copy publications. It should also be noted that all Scottish Household Survey data are capable of being analysed by gender and different geographical regions within Scotland, such as local authority areas or combinations of these. Scottish Household Survey data are managed by the Economic and Social Data Service (ESDS) core services. For further information on how to access SHS data and on SHS publications see: www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/16002/22719 and www.esds.ac.uk

Key sources of gender disaggregated statistics for local geographies in Scotland are as follows:

Most of the 2001 Census data are available at all local level, because the scale of the Census permits this level of disaggregation. Results from the census can be generated by individual users independently using the SCROL software that can be accessed on the General Register Office for Scotland's website, at www.gro-scotland.gov.uk/

A range of health data, both gender disaggregated and gender specific, for local authority and for health board areas is available on the ISD website at www.isdscotland.org

Data on employment rates, economic activity, etc, from the Annual Population Survey (formerly Annual Local Labour Force Survey) at local authority level are available via the Scottish Executive statistics website at: www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/15648/9711

Local authority and parliamentary constituency economic profiles, both of which contain some gender disaggregated data are also available via the Scottish Executive statistics website at www.scotland.gov.uk/Topics/Statistics/15648/9711

Data on economic activity and inactivity, unemployment, and benefit claimants, at local authority and at ward level are available at www.nomisweb.co.uk

Data on earnings from the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE) are available at local authority, parliamentary constituency, and travel to work area levels both by residency and by place of work on the ONS website at www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=13101

The major source of data for local geographies within Scotland is the Scottish Neighbourhood Statistics database. This provides data for a range of topics for a range of geographies. Key topics covered include: Access to Services; Business; Community Care; Crime and Justice; Economic Activity; Benefits; Education, Skills and Training; Higher Education and Further Education; Health; and Housing. Data are available for different geographies including Scotland, local authority, health board, Parliamentary constituency, wards, Community Planning Partnership areas, local community regeneration areas, and data zones (small area data). It must be emphasised, however, that not all types of data are available for all geographies, nor are gender disaggregated data available for all indicators grouped under each topic heading. Nonetheless, this is an important and significant resource, which should enable public bodies to build up local profiles which include a range of gender disaggregated data. The Scottish Neighbourhood Statistics database is accessible at www.sns.gov.uk/

APPENDIX II

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES CONCERNING ANALYSIS OF MULTIPLE DISCRIMINATION, AND KEY INEQUALITIES EXPERIENCED BY SELECTED GROUPS

There are limitations in how far some topics can be disaggregated by gender and other equality dimensions included in this report. As noted, where possible statistics showing disaggregations by gender and ethnicity and gender and disability have been included in the relevant topic chapters. Such data can be derived from both administrative and survey sources. With regard to the latter, data taken from sample surveys often contain small numbers, which may be prone to sampling error, and trends based on such data can show a high degree of volatility. This may result in combining data from several years to provide a figure, or, if numbers are very small, they may be suppressed to protect individual confidentiality. Outlined below are the key methodological difficulties in producing data disaggregated by gender combined with ethnicity or disability (for discussion of these issues, see also Scottish Executive (2006) *High Level Summary of Equality Statistics: Key Trends for Scotland*). Also outlined below are the key trends in inequalities experienced by minority ethnic groups, disabled people, and people of different religions.

Ethnicity

There are few sources of statistics which combine analysis by gender and ethnicity, and examples of these have been included in relevant chapters. In general there are difficulties concerning the availability of data on different ethnic groups in Scotland, and the best source of recent data remains the 2001 Census. There are methodological challenges to providing data on the characteristics of different ethnic groups in Scotland, because of the small size of the minority ethnic population (2% of the Scottish population according to the 2001 Census). Since the Census covers all households in Scotland every 10 years, this provides the most comprehensive information about various characteristics of the population, and permits an analysis by different ethnic groups. However, even with Census data, where an analysis attempts to describe characteristics of sub-sections of the population, for example, Hindu women and men aged between 15-24, this may become impossible because the numbers of people in this category are too small to be statistically significant, and there are issues of confidentiality in that people in such small groups may be identifiable if such data were to be published.

The problem of the size of sub-groups within the population becomes even greater for analysis of other types of survey data, which do not survey the whole population, but survey only representative samples. Many official surveys are of this nature, such as the Scottish Household Survey and the Labour Force Survey. There are some ways in which this problem of small sample size may be tackled, such as aggregating data for more than one year, or for more than one group in the population (Afkhami, 2006). A further way of tackling the problem is to use a boosted sample in a survey. A boost sample is an extra set of interviews carried out with a specific sub-group of the survey population, and this method has sometimes been used to generate better data about the characteristics of minority ethnic populations, as for example was the case with the 2000 Scottish Crime Survey. The addition of a boosted sample to a survey can be prohibitively costly, and depending on the nature of the issue which is being investigated, it may be more cost effective to undertake qualitative research with relatively small numbers of people within the relevant populations.

A further difficulty for the production of quantitative data on minority ethnic groups is that definitions of ethnicity changed the 1991 and 2001 Census. Definitions of ethnicity are subject to change over such time periods as it is necessary to ensure that the classifications used accurately reflect the ethnic diversity of the population which in itself can be subject to significant change over time. Given this, the Scottish Executive are currently conducting a review of Census ethnicity classifications in order to establish whether further revision is required in the 2011 Census. Since 2001, patterns of migration to the UK have changed considerably, especially as a consequence of the accession of eastern European states to the European Union. Currently, the definitions of ethnicity used in the Census and data gathered on migration do not capture the differences between White Europeans in terms of ethnic origin. A review of data gathering on migration by the Office for National Statistics is underway, and it is likely that there will be changes reflecting this new situation.

The key reasons which make it difficult to produce good quantitative data on different minority ethnic populations in Scotland have been outlined above, and it is for these reasons that there is limited availability of information on gender and ethnicity. In general, however, the analysis of 2001 census data suggests differences between minority ethnic groups and the White majority population, and in particular indicates the disadvantaged position of some minority ethnic groups (Scottish Executive, 2004a). The key characteristics emerging from this analysis are outlined here, together with gender specific points.

In 2001, minority ethnic groups made up 2% of the population of Scotland, with 70% of such groups being of Asian origin, and among these people of Pakistani origin being the largest group. It should be noted that although the 2001 Census provides the most comprehensive source of data on minority ethnic populations these data are now some years out of date. It should also be noted that while the overall minority ethnic population in Scotland is around 2%, the distribution of minority ethnic groups across Scotland varies considerably, with there being larger populations in cities, in particular in Glasgow and Edinburgh. In general minority ethnic groups have a younger age profile than does the White majority population. There are differences in the incidence of divorce and lone parenthood between different minority ethnic groups, such as people of Caribbean and Black African groups compared to groups of Asian origin. In particular, in these latter groups there are very few lone parents. There are differences in patterns of housing tenure, both between minority ethnic groups and the White majority population, but also between different minority ethnic groups, with Pakistani and Indian people having the highest rates of home ownership. Minority ethnic people living in rented accommodation are much less likely than the White majority group to live in social rented accommodation.

There are large variations in the levels of educational qualifications held by different ethnic groups. All minority ethnic groups were at least as likely as the White majority group to have a degree or equivalent, with the groups being most likely to have degrees being Africans, those in the 'Other' ethnic group, and Indians. People from the White majority and Pakistani groups were least likely to have degrees, whilst Pakistanis were most likely to have no qualifications. African and Chinese populations had the highest proportions of full-time students. In terms of employment, with the exception of the Caribbean group, all minority ethnic groups had lower rates of economic activity than the White majority population, with there being similar differences in employment rates. In particular Pakistanis and Bangladeshis had low employment rates compared to the White majority population. Conversely, minority ethnic groups had higher rates of unemployment than the White majority group. Between different minority ethnic groups, there are very different rates of labour market participation

by women, with Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Other South Asian groups having high proportions of women who had never worked. A high proportion of people in some minority ethnic groups are self-employed and/or work in small organisations, with this being particularly the case for Chinese and Pakistani people, while a high proportion of Indian people are in professional occupations. There were differences between minority ethnic groups according to the types of industry they were more likely to be working in, with 45% of Pakistanis and 22% of Indians working in the Wholesale and Retail trade, and 51% of Chinese people and 45% of Bangladeshis working in Hotels and Restaurants. Substantial proportions of Africans, Indians and people in the Other South Asian group, worked in Health and Social Work.

With respect to health, self perceptions of health and experience of long term limiting illness are closely related to age. Given that minority ethnic populations tend to have a younger age profile than the White majority population, for some groups the numbers of those experiencing poor health were therefore relatively small. For some minority groups ethnic there appeared to be a degree of disadvantage in terms of poor health within particular age groups. For example, in the 35-39 age group and in the 60+ age group Pakistanis were most likely to report having a disability or long term limiting illness.

Disability

There is a wider range of data available which combines analysis of gender and disability, much of which is contained in the Scottish Executive publication *Social Focus on Disability* (Scottish Executive, 2004b). Nonetheless, there are also challenges to the provision of good quality data on disability. Firstly, as in the case of minority ethnic groups, disabled people are not an homogenous group within the population, since the type and degree of impairment of individuals varies, some impairments or disabilities are visible while others are not, and people's self-perception as disabled or not may differ from the types of categorisation of disability used by official sources. Furthermore, different types of data on disabled people use different definitions of disability, to some extent reflecting the purposes for which such data has been gathered, for example, whether it relates to the provision of education or of health services.

Definitions of disability have also been subjected to a conceptual critique, in particular by those who have made a distinction between medical and social models of disability. The focus on the functioning of individuals has been defined as a medical model of disability. The Disability Discrimination Act 1995 defined disability as 'a physical or mental impairment which has a substantial and long-term adverse effect on a person's ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities' (see Riddell and Banks, 2001). This then places the onus on individuals to demonstrate that their impairments prevent them from undertaking normal day to day activities, rather than focussing on aspects of the social or cultural environment which may create barriers to the inclusion of people who have impairments. Furthermore, the fact that survey questions often conflate health and disability is regarded as problematic as the two categories are not the same. A person with a disability may be perfectly healthy, with for example, there being a great difference in both the experience and the needs of a person who is a wheelchair user following an accident and an older person who has Alzheimer's Disease. By contrast a social model of disability suggests that people with impairments are systematically excluded as a consequence of social, cultural and political factors, and that thus it is society which causes disability, rather than it being inherent in the individual. Thus rather than recording and counting medically defined impairments, the focus should be on identifying and removing barriers to social inclusion.

Differences in definitions of disability, and differences in conceptualisation of disability, mean that some of the key sources of official statistics about disability are not strictly comparable, and it also means that some of the official statistics used remain open to criticism on conceptual grounds. Definitions of disability used by different government departments vary, according to the function of the department. For example, with respect to social security benefits criteria for establishing disability for entitlement to specific benefits are based on a requirement to demonstrate deficiency in normal daily functioning. Within schools education, the definition of Special Educational Need includes children who have much greater difficulty in learning than most other children of their age group as well as those who have a disability that prevents them being educated with their own age group. While most disabled children are recorded as having Special Educational Needs, not all disabled children are in this category. With respect to Further and Higher Education, students self-classify into a number of medical categories of disability. Within health data, the term limiting long term illness is used alongside disability, and it is not always possible to distinguish these categories in analysis of data. In this report, given its focus on gender disaggregated statistics from official sources, we have included statistics on gender and disability from official sources, such as those on limiting long term illness, while acknowledging that such terms may be regarded as unsatisfactory.

The data presented in *Social Focus on Disability* are drawn primarily from the 2001 Census, the Scottish Household Survey 2001 and 2002, and the Labour Force Survey in Scotland, with data from some other sources also being included. The key characteristics emerging from this analysis are outlined here, together with gender specific points. The proportions of men and women in the population who reported a disability or limiting long term illness were very similar, 18% and 19% respectively. Disability is connected with age, with older age groups reporting higher levels. Households with disabled and long term ill members were more likely to be renting their homes than non-disabled people, and of those renting, they were more likely to be renting from a social landlord. Around 30% of households in Scotland contained a disabled or long term ill person. Disabled or long term ill people were more likely than non-disabled people to give their neighbourhood a poor rating, to be more aware of anti-social behaviour, more likely to feel unsafe (especially women), to be more worried about crime (especially women), to be less involved in the local community, to find services less convenient, to be less likely to volunteer, and to be less likely to use the internet (especially women).

With respect to education the numbers of children with special educational needs has doubled over the last 14 years or so, though this is partly due to wider diagnostic criteria being used, earlier diagnosis (with the increase in numbers of children in pre-school education), and greater awareness, or a combination of such factors. Boys were more likely than girls to have a Record of Needs or Individualised Educational Programme as a result of having Special Educational Needs. Around 4% of Higher Education students declared a disability with the proportion of men doing so being slightly higher than the proportion of women, 4.3% compared to 3.9% respectively. A higher proportion of graduates with a declared disability than those without a declared disability obtained a first or second class degree. However, people who reported a disability or long term illness were more than twice as likely to have no qualifications as those who did not, though there is a link to age with people in older groups being less likely in general to have qualifications.

In terms of employment, economic activity rates for both disabled men and women were much lower than for non-disabled men and women. Unemployment rates were higher for disabled than for non-disabled people. A higher proportion of disabled workers than non-disabled workers worked part-time. For the majority of economically inactive disabled people, over three quarters, their disability or illness was given as the reason for not working. There were, however, considerable variations in the levels of economic activity of disabled people depending on the type of disability. Disabled people earned on average about 90% of the earnings of non-disabled people.

As might be expected, adults with a disability or long term illness are much more likely than non-disabled people to report poor health. They are also likely to visit their GPs much more frequently. They are more likely to smoke than non-disabled people. The most common type of disability reported in the Scottish Household Survey related to hands or feet, with 55% of disabled adults reporting this, and 44% of disabled adults required regular help and care. Disabled adults were more likely than adults with a long-term illness to have special equipment or adaptations to their homes, and women were more likely than men to have these. Of those admitted to hospital with a mental health illness in 2001, men made up 52% of admissions and women made up 46%. Of those adults with learning disabilities in 2003, 55% were male and 45% were female. There were more women registered blind than men, with this to some extent reflecting the predominance of women in older age groups. Of those disabled adults requiring regular help and care, 64% were women and 36% were men. Of those with a long-term illness only requiring regular help and care, 65% were women and 35% were men. Women with a disability or long-term illness were more likely than men to have a home help, 19% compared with 12%.

Households with disabled members are more likely to be on low incomes than those without disabled members, with 41% of households where at least one member has a disability and 42% of households where at least one member has a long-term illness having an annual income of £10,000 or less (in 2001/2002) compared to 26% of households with no member with a disability or long-term illness. Of claimants of at least one key benefit in August 2003, 65% were from the sick or disabled client group, representing 11% of the working population, and 31% of income support claimants were also from this group. With respect to benefits for disabled people and/or their carers, there are some gender differences relating to qualifying conditions. For example, the majority of claimants of Incapacity Benefit were male (59%), but since this is a contributory benefit some women may not have made sufficient contributions to be eligible. The majority of claimants for Severe Disability Allowance, available to those with insufficient contributions to claim IB, are women, 59%. Of recipients of Attendance Allowance in 2003, available to those so disabled that they require help with personal care, 69% were women.

Transport is a significant resource enabling access to employment and services, and the Disability Discrimination Act 1995 places a duty on transport providers to avoid discrimination against disabled people in respect of matters such as timetables, booking facilities and waiting rooms. Regulations also require vehicles of various types to be made accessible to disabled people. While changes are occurring in this respect, disabled people still experience restrictions in their access to and use of transport facilities. Disabled people and people with a long-term illness were much less likely than non-disabled people to have a full driving licence, and disabled women were less likely than disabled men to do so, 27% compared to 55%. Households with at least one member with a disability or long-term illness were less likely to have access to a car than households with non-disabled members, though

those in rural areas were much more likely to have access to a car than those in urban areas. Though there is little difference in the usage of bus services by disabled and non-disabled adults, disabled adults are more likely not to use buses for health reasons, or because of access difficulties.

Religion

A question on religion was asked for the first time in the 2001 Census, and an analysis of this data has indicated that there are some differences between groups of people of different religious affiliations, and has also provided some information about gender (Scottish Executive, 2005). There were variations between people of different religions in terms of marital status, divorce, and cohabitation, which suggest different views about marriage and gender roles. Religion was closely related to ethnicity, with most Christians being of White ethnic origin, Sikhs and Hindus being predominantly Indian, and two-thirds of Muslims being of Pakistani origin. There was little difference in the proportions of men and women who had a religious affiliation, though there was a slightly higher proportion of women than men within Christian groups, Church of Scotland, Roman Catholic, and other Christian. Men were more likely than women to have no religion, 25% compared to 19.3%.

There were differences in economic activity rates (i.e. being employed or looking for work) between different groups, with Muslims being least likely to be economically active. In particular a minority of Muslim women were economically active (35%), while Sikh and Hindu women were also much less likely to be economically active than Christian women. For most groups men were more likely than women to be unemployed. However, there were higher proportions of Muslim, Sikh and Hindu women than men who were unemployed. For all groups women were more likely to have never worked than were men. However, in Christians groups this difference was very slight, with 5% of women never having worked compared to 4% of men, while for Muslims 45% of women had never worked, compared to 17% of men.

With respect to health, there were some differences related to religion, age and gender. For most groups women aged 75 and over were more likely than men to report themselves as being in poor health, and for some groups this was linked to the greater proportions of women living longer. Of all groups Hindi women and Sikh men reported the worst health. However, Sikh and Muslim women aged 75 or over were more likely than any other group to report a disability or long-term illness. Analysis of care provided by people of different religions suggested that, as a ratio of people providing care to the number of people of pensionable age and above within each group, Muslims were most likely to be providing care. In general, this analysis suggests that religious beliefs are likely to be associated with differences in gender roles, including the extent to which women participate in the labour market and the extent to which care for others is provided by family members

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APPENDIX III

GLOSSARY OF TECHNICAL TERMS AND DEFINITION

Age Participation Index

A measure of the proportion of young people who enter Higher Education, this effectively estimates the share of 17 year olds in the population who can be expected to enter HE for the first time before their 21st birthday.

Blue Badge holders

The Blue (formerly Orange) Badge Scheme provides a national arrangement of on-street parking concessions enabling people with severe walking difficulties who travel either as drivers or passengers to park close to their destinations. The Scheme also applies to registered blind people and people with severe upper limb disabilities who regularly drive a vehicle but cannot turn a steering wheel by hand.

Body Mass Index

Body mass index (BMI) is the most widely used measure of obesity. BMI is defined as weight (kg) divided by the square of height (m²).

Cerebrovascular Disease

Stroke.

Disability

The definition of disability given in the Disability Discrimination Act 1995 is as follows: 'A person has a disability... if he has a physical or mental impairment which has a substantial and long-term adverse affect on his ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities'. Information on disability currently collected by the Scottish Executive is, however, based on different definitions, which have varied depending on the reason for which the data has been collected. The Scottish Executive is currently working towards a harmonised definition of disability for its core surveys.

Economic activity rate

A measure of the proportion of people of working age (16-64 for men, 16-59 for women) who are in work or actively seeking work. This includes registered unemployed people.

Economic inactivity rate

A measure of the proportion of people of working age not in work, or not seeking work for a variety of reasons, including participation in education, ill health, disability, early retirement, or domestic or caring responsibilities.

Employment rate

A measure of the proportion of people in employment in relation to the population of working age.

Ethnicity

The categories used in the question on ethnicity in the 2001 Census were as follows:

White: Scottish, Other British, Irish, Any other White background;

Mixed: Any Mixed background;

Asian: Asian Scottish or Asian British, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese, Any other Asian background;

Black, Black Scottish or Black British: Caribbean, African, Any other Black background;

Other ethnic background: Any other background.

The Scottish Executive are currently conducting a review of Census ethnicity classifications and more details on the review can be found on the OneScotland website at:

http://www.onescotland.com/onescotland/osmc_display_leveldown.jsp?pContentID=168&p_applic=CCC&pElementID=102&pMenuID=10&p_service=Content.show&

Fertility Rates

General Fertility Rate: The number of births per 1,000 women aged 15-44.

Total Fertility Rate: The average number of children that a group of women would expect to have if they experienced the observed age-specific fertility rates in each of their childbearing years.

Flexible working

A range of working patterns including part-time work, job-share, term time working, annualised hours, compressed week, etc, arrangements.

Full-time work

Normal working hours of 30 or more hours a week.

Gender earnings ratio

Women's average earnings expressed as a proportion of men's average earnings.

Highest Income Householder

The highest income householder is taken as the household reference person for the first part of the Scottish Household Survey interviews. This must be a person in whose name the accommodation is owned or rented or be otherwise responsible for the accommodation.

Households Below Average Income – relevant income definitions

Total household income: Total income from all sources including from Tax Credits, before deductions of income tax and National Insurance.

Net household income: Total income after deductions for income tax and National Insurance contributions.

Net disposable household income: Total income after deductions for income tax, National Insurance contributions, council tax, pension contributions and maintenance payments.

Equivalised net disposable household income: 'Equivalised' income is used to allow comparisons of living standards between different household types. Income is adjusted to take account variations in size and composition of the household. This adjustment reflects the fact that a family of several people requires a higher income than a single person in order for both households to enjoy a comparable standard of living. The key assumption is that all individuals in the household benefit equally from the combined (equivalised) income of the household. There are several different equivalence scales. The household income estimates contained in this report use the

McClements equivalisation scale. There are distinct equivalence scales used for income before housing costs (BHC) and income after housing costs (AHC).

Before housing costs: Net disposable income, equivalised using the before housing costs equivalisation scale. Certain incomes in kind are included such as free school meals and TV licences for over 75s.

After housing costs: Net disposable income with income as for BHC but with rent/mortgage payments, water charges, structural insurance premiums, ground rent and service charges deducted. This is equivalised using the after housing costs equivalisation scale.

Relative low income: Individuals living in households whose equivalised income is below 60% of GB median income in the same year.

Individual Incomes definitions

Total individual income: Equal to gross income, defined as income from all sources received by an individual, plus tax credits.

Net individual income: Income from all sources received by an individual net of income tax and National Insurance contributions.

Disposable individual income: includes Housing Benefit, Council Tax Benefit and property income from letting and sub-letting (apportioned across household adults where appropriate), and deducts National Insurance contributions, income tax payments, childcare costs, travel to work costs, parental contributions to students living away from home, maintenance and child support payments (which are deducted from the income of the person making the payment), and housing costs (including Council Tax, all costs apportioned across household adults where appropriate).

Ischaemic Heart Disease

Coronary heart disease.

Long term unemployed

People who have been unemployed for a year or more.

Low Pay Threshold

Two-thirds of male median earnings.

Mean earnings

Average earnings.

Median earnings

The median represents the mid-point of a distribution, with half of the sample less than or equal to the median, and half of the sample greater than or equal to the median.

MOSAIC classification

Scottish MOSAIC is a neighbourhood classification system developed by Experian. It draws on a large number of Census variables, augmented by some published non-Census information, to generate a way of discriminating between postcodes in terms of housing and population types, and densities. The system has 12 broad groups, subdivided into 47 types. The whole of each postcode is allocated to whichever MOSAIC category appears the most appropriate, on the basis of the overall statistics for the postcode. This 'geo-demographic' system has been used in the sampling for the SHS.

Part-time work

Normal working of hours of less than 30 hours a week.

Receptions for fine default, etc

'Receptions' are not equivalent to 'persons received'. Where a person has several sentences imposed on him by one court in one day this is counted as one reception. However, where custodial sentences are imposed on the same person by two or more courts in one day, two or more receptions are counted. Where a person is reconvicted while serving a sentence and a further custodial sentence is imposed on him this too is regarded as a further reception.

Regression analysis

Regression analysis aims to summarise the relationship between a 'dependent' variable and one or more 'independent' variables. It shows how well a respondent's score on the dependent variable can be estimated from knowledge of their scores on the independent variables. This technique takes into account relationships between the different independent variables (for example, between education and income, or social class and housing tenure). Regression is often undertaken to support a claim that the phenomena measured by the independent variables cause the phenomena measured by the dependent variable. However, the causal ordering, if any, between the variables cannot be verified or falsified by the technique. Causality can only be inferred through special experimental designs or through assumptions made by the analyst. All regression analysis assumes that the relationship between the dependent and each of the independent variables takes a particular form. In *logistic regression*, it is assumed that the relationship can be adequately summarised by an S-shaped curve, where the impact of the dependent variable of a one-point increase in an independent variable becomes progressively less the closer the value of the dependent variable approaches 0 or 1.

Standard industrial classification

A Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) is used in classifying business establishments and other statistical units by the type of economic activity in which they are engaged. The classification provides a framework for the collection, tabulation, presentation and analysis of data and its use promotes uniformity.

Standard occupational classification

The current Standard Occupational Classification system has been in use since 2000 and is currently being reviewed. This is a system for classifying occupations according to the kind of work performed i.e. job, and the competent performance of the tasks and duties i.e. skill.

Unemployment rate

A measure of the proportion of people unemployed in relation to the population of working age. There are two measures of unemployment typically used. The official claimant count includes only those people claiming unemployment related benefits. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) measure of unemployment covers people who are out of work, want a job, have actively sought work in the previous four weeks and are available to start in the next fortnight, or out of work and have accepted a job that they are waiting to start in the next fortnight.

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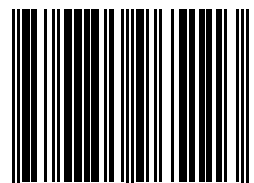
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