Pressing for progress: women’s rights and gender equality in 2018

Executive summary
Introduction

This is the executive summary of the Equality and Human Rights Commission’s (EHRC) full report on the state of women’s rights and gender equality in 2018. It represents our formal response to the UK Government’s eighth periodic report to the United Nations (UN) Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. It assesses the progress on women’s rights since 2013,1 when the implementation of the rights included in the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) was last examined by the UN. By ratifying CEDAW in 1986, the UK Government pledged to be bound by the obligations contained therein.

Devolution and the scope of this report

The UK comprises four countries – England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The UK Parliament has devolved various powers to the Scottish Parliament, the National Assembly for Wales and the Northern Ireland Assembly, and it maintains responsibility for matters that have not been devolved (‘reserved’ matters) and for England. Responsibility for implementing CEDAW therefore lies with the UK and devolved governments.

In addition, there are three separate legal systems in the UK – England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Supreme Court is the UK’s highest court of law. It is the final court of appeal for all UK civil cases. It also decides ‘devolution issues’ about whether the devolved authorities in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have acted, or propose to act, within their powers.

Our report aims to cover England and Wales for all areas, and Scotland for issues that are reserved to the UK Parliament (although in some cases, statistics and evidence for the UK or GB as a whole are presented). The full report, including our recommendations, is available on our website at: www.equalityhumanrights.com/cedaw. The recommendations are addressed to the UK and Welsh governments only, though they may also be relevant to other devolved administrations.

The separate submission of the Scottish Human Rights Commission (SHRC) will cover areas devolved to the Scottish Parliament and the separate submission of the Northern Ireland Human Rights Commission (NIHRC) will cover Northern Ireland. Cross-governmental working across the whole of the UK will be needed. The EHRC expects all of the UK’s governments to work together to fully realise the rights set out in CEDAW.
Role and remit of Equality and Human Rights Commission

The EHRC was established by the UK Parliament through the Equality Act 2006 as an independent body with a mandate covering equality and human rights. Among other human rights responsibilities, the EHRC is responsible for ‘encouraging good practice in relation to human rights’. Our geographic remit for human rights covers England, Wales and those issues in Scotland that are reserved to the UK Parliament.

The EHRC also has responsibilities to assess and report on the UK’s progress in realising the human rights in the treaties it has ratified. The EHRC works with other National Human Rights Institutions (NHRIs) in the UK – SHRC and NIHRC – and liaises with government departments and agencies to fulfil this role. All three NHRIs hold ‘A status’ accreditation with the UN.

Enhancing the status of international human rights in domestic law

While the European Convention on Human Rights has been incorporated into domestic law via the Human Rights Act (HRA) 1998, many international treaties affecting the rights of women, in particular CEDAW, do not form part of the UK’s domestic legal framework and therefore cannot be enforced by domestic courts. A number of CEDAW rights are given partial effect through the Equality Act 2010, which is not fully implemented, and the HRA, which the UK Government has committed to replacing with a British Bill of Rights. We are concerned that there is no coherent plan for achieving the full realisation of CEDAW, especially given the significant constitutional uncertainty in the UK following the EU referendum in June 2016. The UK’s withdrawal from the EU may mean that future equality and human rights protections from the EU are not binding in UK law and that existing ones may be removed. Employment rights and funding for women’s services are areas of particular concern.

Participation in political and civic life

In the UK, women make up 32% (a record high following the 2017 election) of representatives in the House of Commons, which ranked the UK at just 41st globally in May 2018. Only 4% of MPs are ethnic minority women. Women’s representation in local councils is also unequal:

- In England, 33% of council members and 17% of council leaders are female.
- In Wales, 33% of local councillors and 18% of council leaders are female.
Only 4% of MPs are ethnic minority women. Women’s representation in local councils is also unequal.

Poor public perceptions of politics and the intimidation of MPs are considered major barriers to women’s enjoyment of the right to participate in political and public life.10

The number of women being appointed chairs of public bodies in England and Wales remains low (28%),11 although the overall trend in public appointments since 2012 has been positive; women made up 45.5% of all public appointments and reappointments in 2016/17 in England and Wales.12 The boards of private companies fare worse: in October 2017 the representation of women on boards in FTSE 100 companies was 27.7%.13

In 2017, the judiciary published an action plan to improve diversity.14 As of 1 April 2017, only 28% of court judges and 45% of tribunal judges in England and Wales were women.15

Gender-based violence, harassment and abuse16

The continuum of violence against women and girls (VAWG), in its many forms, reflects the wider structural gender inequalities in the UK. Women are much more likely than men to experience particular forms of violence, such as sexual offences (an estimated 95% of all rape victims are female),17 domestic violence and so-called ‘honour-based’ violence. Of the Crown Prosecution Service’s VAWG caseload in 2016/17, 83% related to domestic abuse.18
In the year ending December 2017, the police recorded a 25% increase in sexual offences in England and Wales. Reports of so-called ‘honour-based’ violence to police forces in the UK have increased by 53% since 2014. Yet, under-reporting and under-recording, low referral rates to support services and low prosecution and conviction rates of VAWG crimes are persistent problems. The Office for National Statistics estimates that four in five (79%) survivors of partner abuse do not report it to the police; the charity Rape Crisis estimates that only around 15% of survivors of sexual violence report their experience to the police.

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Many police forces across England and Wales are not sufficiently prepared to protect victims of so-called ‘honour-based’ violence. Furthermore, due to reduced funding, there have been cuts to women’s support services, while demand has continued to rise.

Some groups are disproportionately subjected to VAWG, including women and girls with learning disabilities, mental health issues or drug/alcohol dependency and those facing homelessness. The UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women reported in 2015 that women from some ethnic minorities may face further consequences of sexual violence, such as family or community shame, stigmatisation and rejection. Disabled women experience disproportionate levels of all forms of violence and abuse from carers, partners and those in the community, and face additional barriers to accessing appropriate support.

‘Disabled women experience disproportionate levels of all forms of violence and abuse from carers, partners and those in the community’

In 2015, the Violence against Women, Domestic Abuse and Sexual Violence (Wales) Act was introduced, and, in England and Wales, a new offence of ‘controlling or coercive behaviour in an intimate or family relationship’ came into force. In 2016, the UK Government published a revised VAWG strategy. The strategy aims to reduce all forms of VAWG and to increase reporting, police referrals, prosecutions and convictions. There is no clear accountability, however, if departments do not deliver against the VAWG strategy action plan. Moreover, a UK-wide response is required under the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (‘Istanbul Convention’). The UK signed the Convention in 2012 but still has not achieved ratification. In 2017, the UK Government pledged to introduce a Domestic Abuse Bill, and consulted on its proposals in 2018.
Female genital mutilation (FGM) is a form of VAWG, severely violating women’s and girls’ rights. According to estimates from 2011, 137,000 women and girls in England and Wales were affected by FGM, but the exact number is unknown. The UK Government established a specialist FGM unit and published multi-agency statutory guidance in 2016. The Serious Crime Act 2015 expanded and strengthened the legal framework for FGM.

There are no separate offences or enhanced sentencing provisions for hate crimes on the basis of a person’s sex or gender, and there is a lack of publicly available data regarding victims’ sex or gender, as reported to the police. The national project for measuring anti-Muslim incidents has found that more than half of those who reported incidents in 2016 were female, and two-thirds of those could be described as ‘visibly Muslim’ at the time of the incident. Moreover, women have been found to be particular targets for abuse and misogynistic harassment online. Civil society organisations report that around two-thirds of female users of Facebook and Twitter have received abuse online, including sexist messages, politically extremist hate and threats of violence.

An EHRC survey of 50 lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) people (half of whom were women) found that verbal abuse, intimidation and harassment on the basis of sexual orientation and/or gender identity were identified as regular experiences.
Access to civil justice

Since the introduction of the Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act 2012, legal aid is no longer available in certain areas, including most private family law, housing and debt matters. This is likely to have had a disproportionately adverse impact on women, who are over-represented in these areas of law, potentially limiting their access to justice.45

A Court of Appeal ruling found that the evidence regulations to prove domestic abuse were unlawful and created barriers for women survivors in accessing legal aid.46 The UK Government subsequently increased the range of acceptable evidence and removed the five-year time limit on evidence.47

‘Sex discrimination and equal pay claims, in which women represent four-fifths of claimants, fell by 76% and 57% respectively by 2017’

In July 2013, fees were introduced to access employment tribunals. This had a disproportionate effect on women in relation to discrimination claims48: sex discrimination and equal pay claims, in which women represent four-fifths of claimants, fell by 76% and 57% respectively by 2017. The number of pregnancy and maternity discrimination claims fell by 42%.49 In July 2017, the UK Supreme Court declared the employment tribunal and employment appeal tribunal fees order to be unlawful. In addition to fees, the requirement to bring a pregnancy and maternity claim within three months of the discrimination happening has been identified as a barrier.50

Human trafficking and modern slavery

In 2015, the Modern Slavery Act (MSA) came into force in England and Wales, unifying and simplifying previous legislation, stipulating increased penalties for trafficking offences and strengthening protections.52 In spite of an increase in the number of referrals to the UK’s oversight body, the National Referral Mechanism (NRM),53 the numbers are still small compared to the Home Office’s estimate of 10,000-13,000 victims in the UK,54 and even this estimate may be too low.55 Data suggests that increasing referrals are not translating into an increase in the number of investigations, prosecutions and convictions.56
A number of shortfalls have been identified in the MSA, such as gaps in the definition of trafficking offences and the absence of a clear obligation of non-prosecution of child victims and of an explicit legal duty to provide victims with support, as well as protection and support gaps in relation to overseas domestic workers, the majority of whom are female.57

Following concerns regarding the operation of the NRM,58 the UK Government commissioned a major review in 2014,59 and in 2017 announced a number of changes that aim to make the referral process easier and streamline decision making. However, concerns remain around recording and reporting, care standards, and the availability and accessibility of legal advice services.60

Civil society organisations have called upon the UK Government to consider the distinct requirements of women in prisons, and the need to reduce the reliance on custodial sentences.62 Women in prison are more likely to self-harm than men.63 Liaison and diversion schemes (called diversion services in Wales), which help to identify adults and children with particular needs and are already required to develop gender-specific pathways for women, could help reduce the use of custodial sentences.64 However, many services are significantly under-resourced. Quality and availability of support services remain patchy, especially for women from ethnic minorities.65 66

Immigration detention should be used as a last resort. The UK is the only European state without a maximum time limit for immigration detention.67 Most women are held at Yarl’s Wood Immigration Removal Centre, where there have been allegations of sexual abuse and inappropriate behaviour by staff.68 The Immigration Act 2016 introduced time limits for how long pregnant women may be detained and reinforced that they should only be detained in exceptional circumstances; yet, pregnant women continue to be detained.69 It also required statutory guidance to improve safeguards against detention for vulnerable individuals.70 However, evidence suggests that this guidance has reduced protection for women who are victims of gender-based violence and trafficking.71 Moreover, stakeholders have reported that the screening process for such individuals is inadequate, and vulnerable women continue to be detained.72
In England, refused asylum seekers and people with insecure immigration status are ineligible for free healthcare except for primary care and emergency treatment.\textsuperscript{73} Confusion about eligibility for healthcare could delay their access to treatment, including perinatal care, and have a detrimental impact on their health.\textsuperscript{74} The Welsh Government introduced regulations in 2009 to allow refused asylum seekers to access free healthcare.

Further concerns have arisen around a data-sharing agreement in the form of memorandum of understanding (MoU) between the Department of Health, NHS Digital and the Home Office, allowing Home Office staff to make requests to NHS Digital for patient data in England for the purpose of enforcing immigration law.\textsuperscript{75} Concerns have been raised about the potential of this agreement to further deter people from accessing and receiving healthcare.\textsuperscript{76} The MoU was suspended in May 2018.\textsuperscript{77} It is unclear whether there will be any changes to the legislation that provides the legal basis for data sharing between these bodies.

In 2016, we intervened in a case that found that excluding spouses of refugees from receiving protection under the Destitution Domestic Violence concession – a rule that enables victims of domestic violence with insecure immigration status to apply for indefinite leave to remain – was discriminatory.\textsuperscript{78} The Immigration Rules have yet to be formally amended to reflect the court’s decision.

**Adequate standard of living and social security\textsuperscript{79}**

Welfare and tax policy changes made between May 2010 and January 2018 have had a disproportionate adverse impact on women’s, especially ethnic minority women’s, rights to an adequate standard of living and social security. Our analysis found that in the year 2022, women overall on average stand to lose just under £400 per year from the reforms, whereas men would lose only around £30. Lone parents, 90% of whom are women,\textsuperscript{81} stand to lose the equivalent of up to 25% of their net income.\textsuperscript{82}
Universal Credit was introduced by the UK Government in October 2013, with the stated aim of simplifying the benefits system through consolidating the payments of a number of benefits into a single payment, which is paid jointly to couples. However, this causes serious concern for women’s economic independence, particularly in situations of domestic abuse.\textsuperscript{83} [HS2]Other changes to social security entitlements include the introduction of a benefit cap, which particularly affects lone parents, and the two-child tax credit limit, as a result of which households in Wales and England with three or more children will lose at least £900 per year on average by 2021/22.\textsuperscript{84}

Under the Pensions Act 1995, the state pension age (SPA) for women was to gradually rise to 65 by 2020 to bring it in line with the then current SPA for men. Subsequent legislation has accelerated these changes and raised the equalised SPA to 66 by October 2020 and 67 by 2028.\textsuperscript{85} Some women’s SPA is now several years later than planned for, which may have a significant detrimental impact on their financial wellbeing.\textsuperscript{86} Disabled women, carers and ethnic minority women are likely to be particularly affected.\textsuperscript{87} However, the UK Government has consistently rejected calls to change the equalisation timetable or to provide any financial compensation.\textsuperscript{88}

According to the homelessness charity Crisis, in 2017 an estimated 236,000 individuals in GB were homeless, an increase of 33\% since 2011.\textsuperscript{89} Evidence suggests that women sleeping rough may be particularly vulnerable. Moreover, in 2013, the UK Government introduced the ‘spare room subsidy’, when tenants have their housing benefits reduced if they have spare bedrooms. The Supreme Court found in 2016 that this discriminated against disabled people, but dismissed the claim of a woman survivor of domestic violence who had a ‘safe room’ in her home.\textsuperscript{91} The case was appealed to the European Court of Human Rights in January 2018.\textsuperscript{92} The lack of residential and transit accommodation across GB routinely affects Gypsy and Traveller women’s right to an adequate standard of living.\textsuperscript{93}
In the UK between December 2017 and February 2018, the overall employment rate for women was 71%, compared with 79.8% for men. Women were more likely to be in lower paid, part-time and insecure jobs. The employment rate varies significantly when factoring in other protected characteristics, such as ethnicity or disability.

It is still commonplace for women to bear the majority of domestic work and caring responsibilities. The high cost of childcare can be prohibitive. Analysis by the TUC revealed that while real wages fell in England between 2008 and 2016, childcare costs rose by 48% over the same period. The UK and Welsh Governments have extended their free childcare, though availability and implementation of this varies. The introduction of shared parental leave is also welcome. However a survey of parents and businesses suggested that just 1% of men had taken this up.

Harassment in the workplace is also an issue for women. Our research found that around half of the respondents who had experienced sexual harassment at work had not reported it, and of those who did, half said that employers took no action as a result. Many others said they faced negative consequences of reporting.

Our research into pregnancy and maternity discrimination in the workplace found that 11% of mothers reported that they were forced to leave their job, equivalent to 54,000 women every year.
Occupational segregation is prevalent and considered a significant contributing factor to the gender pay gap. In 2017, in the UK, the difference in average hourly pay between all men and all women overall was 18.4%. This figure includes those employed both full-time and part-time. The difference in average hourly pay between men and women in full-time work was 9.1%. When compared with White British women, the pay gap is particularly wide for Pakistani and Bangladeshi immigrant women, and for disabled women (depending on the type of impairment, between 4.3% and 18.9%). We welcome the adoption of the Equality Act 2010 (Gender Pay Gap Information) Regulations 2017, which apply to private and voluntary sector employers in England, Scotland and Wales, and require employers with 250 or more employees to publish prescribed information about their gender pay gap. Similar requirements have been introduced for public sector employers.

“The pay gap is particularly wide for Pakistani and Bangladeshi immigrant women, and for disabled women”

The UK Government introduced the new National Living Wage in April 2016, which has had a positive statistical effect on women’s earnings. However, organisations have highlighted that the rate falls short of a ‘real’ living wage.

**Highest attainable standard of health**

Women with particular protected characteristics have different health outcomes and difficulties in accessing health services. For example, the probability of Black African women being detained under the Mental Health Act 1983 is more than seven times higher than for White British women. Health outcomes of Gypsies and Travellers are worse than those of other groups in society, but the lack of data makes it very difficult to pinpoint the specific experiences of Gypsy and Traveller women. Transgender women face a range of significant problems in using general health services and accessing gender identity services.
Evidence from 2017 suggests that the mental health of young women and girls in both England and Wales has deteriorated over recent years.\textsuperscript{116, 117} Difficulties persist for women and girls of all ages in accessing the mental health support they need.\textsuperscript{118} Disabled women face particular barriers to accessing sexual and reproductive health and information services. For example:\textsuperscript{119}

- Few services offer support and information about sex and relationships for people with a learning disability.\textsuperscript{120}
- Women with learning disabilities do not make their own decisions about the use of contraception, or have their choices constrained.\textsuperscript{121}

In 2017 just 12\% of clinical commissioning groups (CCGs) in England were following national guidance allowing eligible women aged under 40 three in vitro fertilisation (IVF) cycles as part of their assisted reproduction services (compared to 24\% in 2013). This is in stark contrast to the situation in Wales, where access criteria and provision are standardised.\textsuperscript{122}

Equality in education\textsuperscript{123}

On average, girls in England and Wales continue to do better in education than boys.\textsuperscript{124} However, this better performance in education does not extend into the workplace, partly due to bias in subject choices. The UK Government has committed to assessing current careers provision in English schools and colleges, and will produce information about ‘what works’ to better support schools and colleges to encourage STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) take-up, especially for girls.\textsuperscript{125}

Current relationships and sex education (RSE) guidance for schools in England is outdated,\textsuperscript{126} and the current curriculum only requires compulsory teaching of the biology of sex. We welcome the UK Government’s announcement that it will introduce mandatory age-appropriate RSE in schools in England. RSE can play an important role for both girls and boys in promoting healthy relationships and preventing child sexual abuse, harassment and exploitation.\textsuperscript{127} In Wales, RSE is a compulsory part of the basic curriculum in secondary schools, though teaching varies between schools.\textsuperscript{128}
Relationships and sex education can play an important role for both girls and boys in promoting healthy relationships and preventing child sexual abuse, harassment and exploitation.

Bullying and harassment in schools is a serious concern. Research by the Department for Education (DfE) showed that girls aged 14-15 in England were more likely than boys to be bullied (42% against 33%). Bullying harms young people’s attainment, ambitions, emotional wellbeing and health, with many effects continuing into later life.

A survey of girls and young women aged 13-21 across the UK found that nearly a fifth had experienced unwanted touching at school or college. A BBC investigation found reports of 4,000 alleged physical sexual assaults and more than 600 rapes in UK schools in the period 2012-15, a fifth of which were carried out by other children. The DfE has published advice requiring schools and colleges to make clear that sexual violence and harassment are not acceptable, highlighting that monitoring and recording of sexual violence and sexual harassment reports is essential. However, DfE guidance on bullying in general still states that schools can use their discretion about recording such incidents. The Children’s Commissioner for Wales suggests that there has been a lack of consistency in handling bullying complaints.

The full report, including our recommendations, is available on our website at:

www.equalityhumanrights.com/cedaw
This submission aims to cover England and Wales for all areas, and Scotland for issues that are reserved to the UK Parliament (although in some cases, statistics and evidence for the UK or Great Britain as a whole are presented). Human rights issues that are devolved to the Scottish Parliament will be covered by the submission of the Scottish Human Rights Commission.

2 Relating to CEDAW articles 2 and 3, CEDAW concluding observations (CO) paragraphs 9, 11, 13, 17, 29, 66 and 67 and Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 10.


4 Relating to CEDAW articles 4, 5, 7 and 8, CO paragraphs 31 and 43.a and SDGs 5, 9, 10, 11 and 16.


16 Relating to CEDAW articles 1, 2, 5.a, 9 and 16, CO paragraphs 21, 35.a-d and 37 and SDGs 5 and 16.


22 Partner abuse is defined as any non-physical abuse, threats, force, sexual assault or stalking where the perpetrator is a partner or ex-partner. See: https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/compendium/focusonviolentcrimeandsexualoffences/yearendingmarch2016/domesticabusesexualassaultandstalking [accessed: 19 May 2018].


39 There are enhanced sentencing provisions for hate crimes that allow judges to uplift a sentence to reflect that hostility against a protected characteristic was an aggravating feature. See sections 145 and 146, Criminal Justice Act 2003. Available at: https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2003/44/contents [accessed: 23 March 2018].


44 Relating to CEDAW articles 2.c and 15, CO paragraphs 23.a-b and 47.e and SDG 16.


51 Relating to CEDAW article 6, CO paragraphs 39.a-b and 55.e and SDGs 5, 8 and 16.


53 The NRM is the framework for identifying victims of human trafficking or modern slavery and ensuring they receive support. It was introduced in 2009 to meet the UK’s obligations under the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings. The NRM is also the mechanism through which the Modern Slavery Human Trafficking Unit (MSHTU) collects data about victims.


60 In particular we also called for:
* The introduction of a trafficking care standard and an end-to-end service for trafficking victims.
* The provision of legal advice from the point at which a potential victim of trafficking is identified.
* A clear statutory duty to record and report trafficked children who go missing from care.
* Work with local safeguarding children boards’ chairs and local authorities to build their awareness of the importance of the identification and support of child victims, including the role of clear indicators.
* Clarity that only a credible suspicion is required to trigger the provision of support and assistance, including legal aid, to victims, in accordance with the State’s positive obligations to investigate under Article 4 ECHR.
* A requirement for public authorities, including health authorities, schools, prisons, probation services, competent authorities and voluntary organisations performing a public function, to record and report suspected victims of trafficking.

61 Relating to CEDAW articles 2 and 15, CO paragraphs 55.a-d, 57.a-b and 59.a and SDGs 3 and 16.


64 Prison Reform Trust (2017), ‘There’s a reason we’re in trouble: Domestic abuse as a driver to women’s offending’. Available at: http://www.prisonreformtrust.org.uk/PressPolicy/News/ItemId/494/vw/1 [accessed: 27 May 2018].


Section 60 Immigration Act 2016. ‘Limitation on detention of pregnant women’. Pregnant women may only be detained if they will shortly be removed from the UK, and if there are exceptional circumstances to justify the detention. They may not be detained for longer than 72 hours, extendable up to a week in total with ministerial approval.

Statutory guidance issued under Section 59 Immigration Act 2016, ‘Guidance on detention of vulnerable persons’. The guidance notes there is a presumption against the detention of vulnerable women at risk of harm in detention. However, this presumption will be set against any immigration control factors in deciding whether they should be detained.

The new guidance changed the definition of torture used by the Home Office to identify people who should only be detained in ‘very exceptional circumstances’ to exclude women who had experienced gender-based violence (GBV) or trafficking perpetrated by private actors. This restrictive definition of torture was successfully challenged in the case of Medical Justice & Otrs v SSHD [2017] EWHC 2461 (Admin), in which the EHRC intervened. The old definition of torture has been temporarily reinstated until the Government confirms how it will amend the guidance and associated policies to comply with the judgment.

Women for Refugee Women (2017), ‘We are still here: the continued detention of women seeking asylum in Yarl’s Wood’. Available at: http://www.refugeewomen.co.uk/research/ [accessed: 29 April 2018].


Just Fair and Doctors of the World (2017), ‘Right to health for all’. Available at: http://docs.wixstatic.com/ugd/8a2436_dbec80f5004c42229e1e0a683c668f93.pdf [accessed: 23 August 2017]


Relating to CEDAW articles 2, 3, 13 and 14, CO paragraphs 21, 61.b and 63, and SDGs 1, 3, 5, 8 10 and 11.


90 See, for example, St Mungo’s (2016), ‘Written evidence to the Housing, Communities and Local Government Committee’. Available at: http://data.parliament.uk/writtenevidence/committeeevidence.svc/evidencedocument/housing-communities-and-local-government-committee/homelessness/written/28524.html [accessed: 29 April 2018].


94 Relating to CEDAW articles 2, 5 and 11, CO paragraphs 47.a-d, 49, 59.b and 61.a and SDGs 4, 5, 8 and 9.


97 https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandemployeetypes/bulletins/uklabourmarket/april2018/relateddata

In Wales, parents can access 30 hours of free childcare for 48 weeks of the year, and in England, 30 hours’ free childcare for 38 weeks of the year. See Family and Childcare Trust. 2017. Help with your childcare costs. [ONLINE]. Available at: https://www.familyandchildcaretrust.org/help-your-childcare-costs [accessed: 23 June 2017].

My Family Care and the Women’s Business Council (2016), ‘Shared parental leave: One year on. Where are we now? A survey of over 1000 parents and 200 businesses’ [accessed: 22 June 2017].


They were dismissed, made compulsorily redundant or treated so poorly that they felt they had to leave.


The median is preferred to the mean by the ONS because the median is not affected by extreme values, such as the changes to earnings of small numbers of very high earners.


Relating to CEDAW articles 12 and 16, CO paragraphs 53.a-b and 61.a and SDGs 3 and 5.


123 Relating to CEDAW articles 5 and 10, CO paragraphs 45.a-d and 61.a and SDG 4.


Published in 2000, it makes no reference to topics relating to new technologies, such as online safety or sexting. It was also produced at a time when the now-abolished Section 28, which prohibited local authorities from ‘promoting’ homosexuality, was still in place. See Department for Education and Employment (2000), ‘Sex and relationship education guidance’. Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/283599/sex_and_relationship_education_guidance.pdf [accessed: 5 January 2018].


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