

THE SOGIE MINORITIES SOCIETAL POSITIONING INDEX

Ghent University in association with
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*IN SEARCH OF A
EUROPEAN
COMPOSITE INDEX*

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1. Preface

Recently, several countries and cross-national activist parties have been making the call to measure, track and adjust societal evolutions with regard to the conditions of living of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) people throughout Europe. One of the means proved to be valuable in pushing needed change toward improving these conditions, has been the development of so called ‘pan-European comparative indices’. Such indices allow to easily reflect the societal situation or position of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender people in a given country, and compare several countries with each other, sending powerful benchmark messages to the involved governments.

From the 1st of November 2015 until the 31st of March 2016, we have been working on a project contributing to this issue, commissioned by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science of the Netherlands (MECSN), where the secretariat of the European Governmental LGBT Focal Points Network is temporarily staffed. Our research team consisted of Hanne roelandt (researcher), prof. dr. Alexis Dewaele, Prof. dr. Ann Buysse (Ghent University, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Department of Experimental-Clinical and Health Psychology) and prof. dr. Mieke Van Houtte (Ghent University, Faculty of Political and Social Sciences, Department of Sociology). During the process of carrying out this project, we maintained an extensive dialogue with a group of international experts on LGBT rights. As such, Prof dr. Roman Kuhar (University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Arts, Department of Sociology); Katrin Hugendubel (Advocacy Director ILGA-Europe); prof. dr. Paulo Corte-Real (Nova School of Business and Economics, former Co-Chair of the ILGA-Europe Board, and Vice-President of ILGA Portugal); Joz Motmans (PhD and coördinator Transgender Infopunt); Lisette Kuyper (PhD and researcher at The Netherlands Institute for Social Research (SCP), affiliate of the University of Amsterdam, Research Institute of Child Development and Education); and prof. dr. Kees Waaldijk (professor of comparative sexual orientation law at Leiden University, Grotius Centre for International Legal Studies) were part of the steering group in this project¹.

The aim of this collaboration was to develop a composite measure that reflects rights, treatment, chances, protection and social acceptance of LGBT’s throughout 49 European countries: Albania – Andorra – Armenia – Austria – Azerbaijan – Belarus – Belgium – Bosnia & Herzegovina – Bulgaria – Croatia – Cyprus – Czech Republic – Denmark – Estonia – Finland – France – Georgia – Germany – Greece – Hungary – Iceland – Ireland – Italy – Kosovo – Latvia – Liechtenstein – Lithuania – Luxembourg – FYR Macedonia – Malta – Moldova – Monaco – Montenegro – the Netherlands – Norway – Poland – Portugal – Romania – Russia – San Marino – Serbia – Slovakia – Slovenia – Spain – Sweden – Switzerland – Turkey – Ukraine – the United Kingdom.

¹ We would like to thank them for their contributions to this project. Also, our gratitude goes out to Miriam Vanderhave, Nina Callens and Ben Baks (commissioner of this project and coordinator of the LGBT Equality Policy Unit of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science of the Netherlands).

At this point, ILGA-Europe has been making considerable efforts to build and refine an extensive indicator measuring legislation that probes protection and equality in rights and treatment of LGBT people. Their 'rainbow map index' reflects the above mentioned countries' situation regarding 48 legal aspects considered crucial in the process of evolving towards full equality and protection. However, efforts to include other dimensions to further understanding in the societal position of LGBT people should be made for covering the complexity underlying their living conditions. Because legal aspects are believed to reflect one dimension only, the secretariat of the European Governmental LGBT Focal Point Network (temporarily executed by the MECSN), has been developing an index reflecting practical public policies, which are believed to constitute a second main dimension that needs to be taken into account in reflecting the societal position of LGBT people. Furthermore, a recent large-scale interview based study targeting public officials and professionals in 19 EU Member States shows that, although the legislative and policy framework opposing discrimination and promoting equality has been a main driver for change, prevailing negative social attitudes and stereotypes are seen as a major barrier to tackling discrimination and hate crime (Fundamental Rights Agency, 2016). As such, social acceptance among the general population within each of these countries should also be included as a third important dimension that reflects the societal position of LGBT's in society.

In short, in this project, we developed a composite pan-European measure that reflects three dimensions of the position of LGBT people in society. In this composite index, datasets on legislation, practical public policies and social acceptance are combined meaningfully to reflect the bigger picture. During this undertaking, challenges arose: from capturing and nuancing diversity and specificity within the concept of LGBT issues, over the difficulties in managing the differences in types of data considered crucial in composing this measure, their validity and quality, and eventually to the methodological choices underlying the development of an index that reflects the crucial dimensions of LGBT's societal position. This report will transparently show how we approached these challenges.

2. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Trans people in Europe

The LGBT acronym: what's in a name ?

Over the past decades, the 'LGBT acronym' has grown to be a recognizable term across many regions. As it refers to specific target groups, policy makers have been gratefully using it for several benchmarking purposes. However, because of its nature, there are a few misconceptions surrounding this acronym. Firstly, since it is an amalgam of the four letters referring to respectively lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans people, the acronym gathers very different groups of people under one umbrella. It thus creates a rather vague, homogeneous combination of various minority groups. Secondly, the acronym creates the expectation of being all encompassing. However, it intends to capture highly individual and even culture-specific rather than universal aspects of a person's life. The fact that it refers to personal self-identification (people can only be included in the LGBT minority group if they identify as being lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender), limits its capacity to be all encompassing².

In essence, the acronym refers to both sexual and gender minorities, and thus to a conceptual distinction between two related but different constructs: sexual orientation (SO) versus gender identity and expression (GIE). This distinction has led to the emergence of the 'SOGIE acronym'.

Sexual orientation (SO)

Sexual orientation encompasses both (a) behavior: with whom one is sexually involved, (b) desire/attraction: towards whom are sexual fantasies oriented, and (c) identity: how does one self-identify (Buysse et al., 2013; Laumann, 1994). As such, sexual orientation refers to "an enduring pattern of emotional, romantic, and/or sexual attractions to men, women, or both sexes, as well as to a person's sense of identity based on those attractions, related behaviors, and membership in a community of others who share those attractions" (American Psychological Association, 2008). Moreover, sexual orientation does not have to be a stable 'trait' throughout the life course. Research shows that sexual attractions, sexual behavior, and sexual identities might shift over time (Diamond, & Savin-Williams, 2000; Ott, Corliss, Wypij, Rosario, & Austin, 2011).

It is thus important to note that the group of people gathered under the term of 'sexual minorities' is not at all a homogeneous group, nor are the problems they are facing. The complexity of the definition of sexual orientation only gives a limited idea of the diversity underlying the terms of 'lesbian', 'gay', or 'bisexual'. Nevertheless, the communities of LGB persons are commonly blended into one sexual minority group. The simplicity of a binary categorization of the concept of sexual orientation into homo- versus heterosexual still seems to be appealing for the vast majority of people. In fact, as Easterbrook and colleagues (2014)

² The growing number of letters in the acronym indicates that there as many identities as there are people. See recent additions of Q (= queer, questioning), I (= intersex), A (= allies and asexuals) to the acronym (LGBTQIA).

state in their recent study, the LGB community (gathering lesbian, gay, and bisexual people) should be considered as a 'mosaic' of communities of different sexual minority subgroups, that differ significantly in goals and ideologies. As such, they argue that the needs of bisexual people are often invisible because they miss a 'B-specific community'. LGB public spaces and media often do not cater their needs or identity issues. Although sexual orientation is often discussed in narrow categorical terms, research has shown that sexual orientation actually ranges along a continuum, from exclusive attraction to the other sex to exclusive attraction to the same sex (Savin-Williams & Vrangalova, 2013). Besides that, the traditional gender gap contributes to significant differences in societal positioning and needs of lesbian and bisexual women versus gay and bisexual men. Conclusively, we can state that the term 'sexual orientation' gives us a sense of conceptual cohesiveness, however, at the same time, it covers broad diversity.

Gender identity/expression (GIE)

The term gender minorities refers to a group of people whose gender identity and/or gender expression is different from the gender norms associated with their sex assigned at birth. Gender identity refers to a person's identification of being male, female or something else. Gender expression refers to the way a person communicates gender identity to others through behavior, clothing, hairstyles, voice or body characteristics (American Psychological Association, 2011). The 'T' in the LGBT-acronym refers to transgender or 'trans' people, a group of individuals with broad variations in potential gender roles and gender identities, including people engaging in transvestitism³, genderqueer or gender nonconforming individuals⁴ and transsexual persons⁵ (Motmans, 2009).

It is important to note that specific issues (e.g. issues concerning legal gender recognition and bodily integrity that may lead to violations of the right for equal treatment) for transgender individuals can differ significantly from those encountered by lesbian, gay or bisexual people, since they refer to very different conceptual realities. However, research indicates that gender and sexual minority identities can co-occur. Whereas many LGB people are cisgender (their inner felt gender identity matches their assigned sex at birth), the amount of trans people who also identify as gay, lesbian or bisexual is relatively large. In a recent FRA survey carried out in Europe, of the 6579 respondents, only 14% self-identified as straight/heterosexual (27% identified as gay, 27% as bisexual, 18% as lesbian and 14% choose other or don't know) (FRA, 2014, p. 117).

³ Transvestitism refers to the situation when someone's gender identity mainly corresponds with their biological sex, but he or she wants to sporadically express another gender identity using clothing, language, behavior, posture.

⁴ Genderqueer or gender nonconforming persons are those who do not see themselves as belonging to one of both traditional sexes (male versus female). They have both male and female identity characteristics or would like to transcend them. Their identity is located somewhere in-between male and female or combines both aspects. It is therefore possible to feel neither man nor woman or both..

⁵ Transsexualism refers to the situation in which the sex assigned at birth (biological sex) does not match the inner felt gender identity or internal experiences of being male versus female (psychological identity).

In short, an index combining lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender groups into one measure should consider the issue of disaggregation and differentiation on different possible levels. However, even if we distinguish sexual minority groups from gender minority groups, great variation on the group level as well as on the individual level will remain. While it is important to understand that sexual orientation and gender identity are not the same thing, they do both reflect different forms of traditional gender norm transgression and share an intertwined social and political history (American Psychological Association, 2011). Due to both groups shared minority status, gender and sexual minorities are both subject to potential discrimination and prejudice.

What about the I?

The definition provided by the Organization Intersex International (OII) states that ‘intersex is a term that relates to a range of physical traits or variations that lie between stereotypical ideals of male and female. Intersex people are born with physical, hormonal or genetic features that are neither wholly female nor wholly male; or a combination of female and male; or neither female nor male’ (OII, 2014). Recently, political and social movements in the field of sexual and gender minorities are evolving to include intersex⁶ rights in their domain of advocacy (cfr. ILGA) (FRA, 2015). The fact that intersex people -just like lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans people- are discriminated against due to non-adherence to binary sex and gender norms probes this evolvment within LGBT-I activism. Intersex advocates (ISNA, Bodies Like Ours, OII, AGGPG, etc.) have been working on this ground of discrimination for more than two decades now, since the treatment of intersex people by society, and by health professionals in specific, induces severe violations of human rights. However, as the definition states, intersex refers to internal and/or external physical aspects of the body or biological sex make-up, not to diversity in sexual orientation or gender identity/expression. As such, although international legal language conflates trans and intersex issues under one discrimination ground of gender identity (The UN Committee on economic, social and cultural rights, 2009), organizations that advocate for intersex people’s rights have been arguing that the recognition of a specific discrimination ground of ‘sex characteristics’ would best address their specific needs.

Today, disorder/difference of sex development (DSD)⁷ terminology has come to replace intersex language in the medical sphere (Hughes et al., 2006). This term was raised and advocated for by the Intersex Society of North America (ISNA) in an attempt to improve medical care and mobilize (peer and parent) support (Davis, 2015). However, the DSD nomenclature has raised divide within the intersex community. Some intersex people accept and engage with DSD language as it provides them access to supportive

⁶ ‘Intersex’ is a scientific term first used in the early 20th century, preferred over other terms like ‘intersexuality’ (which wrongly implies that it refers to a sexual orientation), ‘hermaphrodite’ (which is scientifically inaccurate and fetishes intersex people’s sex), ‘intersexed’ (which wrongly implies that something has been done to a person), and ‘disorders of sex development’ (which may lead society to believe that there is something wrong with being intersex).

⁷ As defined by ‘congenital conditions in which development of chromosomal, gonadal or anatomical sex is atypical’ (Hughes et al., 2006). Notice that the definition does not refer as such to what constitutes ‘typical sex’ or the typical male or female.

relationships with health providers and family members, while others firmly reject it on the grounds that such pathologizing language conflicts their understanding of the own intersex body and colonizes their bodily authority (Davis, 2015). Despite this tension, the desire to improve the lives of intersex people is shared within the advocacy community. The medicalization process surrounding intersex issues and the underlying societal belief that individuals actually fit into ‘existing’ (but in essence socially constructed) sex categories, directly induces stigmatization of those who do not seem to fit in (Karkazis, 2008; Davis, 2015). Furthermore, this may lead intersex people to be subjected to medical or even cosmetic and other non-medically necessary ‘normalizing’ interventions without free and fully informed consent, directly installing severe violations of physical and mental integrity and deprivation of the ability to choose over one’s own body.

Because intersex issues are almost always, and often from the very start of life (at birth) treated as mere medical problems by good-willing health professionals guided by the same narrow societal beliefs, intersex people often find their issues falling out of the scope of public scrutiny. This lack of public awareness finds its reflection in the scientific literature. The scarcity of sociocultural research into intersex’ voices and experiences, from fields beyond the medical one, results in a serious lack of data, theorizing on and understanding of psychological, social and legal mechanisms accompanying the experience of intersex issues (FRA, 2015). Some surveys are addressing people under the assumption that intersex people all have gender identity issues or that they all have changed bodily features, which is not representative of the struggle of the vast majority of people belonging to the intersex group. The short history of sociocultural studies published, shows their struggle of confronting the stigma of being differently bodied, sometimes contested by identity-formation and the empowering process of connecting with others (e.g., through support groups) (Preves, 2003; Davis, 2015).

The historical and present tensions between (and within) the intersex community and health providers complicate the inclusion of intersexuality in an index like ours. Above all, because of the lack of valuable cross-national data on the societal position of intersex people⁸, we believe that our index could, at this point, not pretend to reflect this position. Nonetheless, the gross violations of human rights that intersex people are facing every day (FRA, 2015), should definitely probe the collection of new and comparable data that are able to also push social change in this regard. From a human rights perspective, it is clear that intersex people are at risk for serious fundamental rights violations. These range from discrimination, compulsory cosmetic and other non-medically necessary interventions without consent, violations of physical and mental integrity, deprivation of the ability to choose over one’s own body, and exclusion from the institution of marriage (ILGA, 2015). The fact that all basic aspects of a person’s legal status, social status or health conditions are, at this point, defined by the binary sex classification, gives rise to very fundamental grounds for discrimination (FRA, 2015) that call for raising awareness in the public eye as a first step in fighting discrimination.

⁸ Steps are being made to include intersex issues into cross-national and comparable datasets. However, at this point, ILGA Europe’s rainbow map on legal aspects of minority groups, is the only dataset that offers insight in intersex issues on a large scale, using three intersex-specific items.

The societal position of SOGIE minorities

What constitutes the societal position? The theory of human development

Since the aim of our index is to reflect the complex structures determining the conditions of living of sexual and gender minorities throughout Europe, in the following pages we will depict some fundamental theoretical insights defining the societal position of these minority groups and the effects this position can possibly sort in the everyday lives of lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans people.

To get a better understanding of what can be understood under the term ‘societal position’, we refer to Welzel and colleagues’ (2003) theory on human development. The authors give a sense of what constitutes the broader social environment and the societal position of an individual in that environment (see Figure 1). In its origin, the theory clarifies how societies progress to more ‘developed’ societies by broadening the ability of human choice on a mass level. The authors state that social progress is, in its essence, a developmental process toward establishing ‘the capability of human beings to choose the lives they want’. The more a given society ensures this ability, the more it is considered a progressed or developed one. Over the past decades, waves of emancipatory evolutions have taken place in the European continent, leading to fundamental changes in the societal climate affecting and influencing sexual and gender minorities’ everyday lives. From a theoretical point of view, it is argued that any such evolution and the accompanying extension of the ability of human choice depends on changes within three (often co-evolving) dimensions of society: the institutional, cultural and economic one (Figure 1).

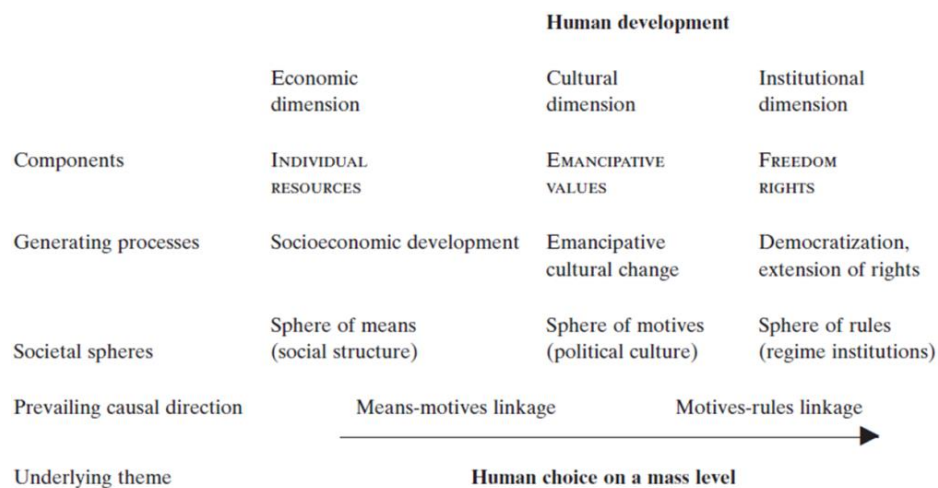


Figure 1. The theory of human development (Welzel, Inglehart, & Klingemann, 2003).

Firstly, the institutional dimension refers to the institutionalization of freedom rights that guarantee the possibility of making choices in private and public activity, which contributes to the rules underlying human choice. In their theory, Welzel et al. (2003) distinguish between formal institutionalization and effective institutionalization, stating that codifying rights only creates formal institutionalization, which is a necessary yet insufficient component of effective institutionalization. Effective institutionalization refers to the degree to which regimes effectively set these rights into practice. In the field of sexual and gender minorities, Waaldijk and Bonini-Baraldi (2006) distinguish eight steps in a country's formal legislation that have to be taken to accomplish full legal equality related to sexual orientation: equal age of consent, depenalization of homosexuality, the installation of an anti-discrimination legislation and assignment of civil rights for sexual minorities are crucial aspects in the struggle for recognition and equality. From a juridical point of view, a positive evolution has taken place in the last decade in most of the European countries. Yet, there still are several difficulties related to prejudice and discrimination that affect actual and effective equality in different spheres of life (actual access to the labor market, health care, education, public sphere, ...) (Dewaele Cox, Vanden Berghe, & Vincke, 2006).

Secondly, emancipative changes in the cultural dimension can probe social progress. When the individuals in a given society emphasize values such as the strive for self-realization, autonomy and emancipation, the desire to actually exercise freedom of choice and control over one's own life increases (Welzel et al., 2003). In contrast, when traditional conformity values are stressed within a society, and human autonomy is considered subordinate to community discipline, this reflects serious constraints on the ability of human choice. As such, the cultural dimension relates to the motivational aspects of choice. In this regard, ESS polls show that there is a great amount of variation when it comes to tolerance regarding LGBT people. Western and Northern European countries seem to reflect relatively positive attitudes regarding homosexuality, while the Eastern European countries (and the southern European countries to some extent) reflect rather negative attitudes (Kuyper, 2015). Even in countries where the overall attitude towards homosexuality can be considered positive (like Belgium and the Netherlands), researchers refer to a climate of superficial tolerance and underlying heteronormativity (Dewaele et al., 2006).

Lastly, the economic dimension refers to processes like improving health and life expectancy, increasing incomes and rising levels of education. As such, progress in this economic dimension diminishes existential constraints on human choice by increasing individual resources which provide people with the means for broadening human choice. Recent studies suggest that LGBT individuals are vulnerable to employment discrimination and receive little legal protection in this regard. As a result, sexual minorities sometimes report lower salary expectations than heterosexual individuals or engage in identity management to conceal their sexual identity (Priola, Lasio, De Simone, & Serri, 2014). Studies exploring the forms of sexual discrimination within the workplace made the distinction between formal (exclusion during hiring or promotion processes, lack of access and distribution of resources) and informal discrimination (verbal and nonverbal behaviors limiting the respect, credibility and psychological well-being of sexual minorities) (Munoz & Thomas, 2006). While there is evidence that formal discrimination might currently be less common in the western world, heterosexism and homophobia are often reflected

in informal and subtle acts towards LGBT workers. Recent studies show that even in organizations that explicitly strive towards inclusion of sexual minorities, the existence of a culture of silence may prevent employees from constructing a work identity which encompasses their sexual identity, and thus forcing them to remain silent. Furthermore, social stigma, discrimination, and denial of civil and human rights of sexual and gender minorities are found to relate to health disparities (Zelle & Arms, 2015). Research indicates that LGBT people are more likely to delay or even avoid seeking health care (MAP, 2010). As such, stigma and discrimination may continue to result in barriers to accessing care for sexual and gender minorities. Zelle and colleagues (2015) identify four major drawbacks in health care access for sexual and gender minorities: reluctance to disclose sexual or gender identity, insufficient amount of providers competent in dealing with issues specific for these minorities, structural barriers that impede access to health insurance, and a lack of culturally appropriate prevention services.

The experience of minority stressors: the minority stress model

The specific societal position of people belonging to minority groups can have significant impact on their everyday lives and health. This is reflected in the Minority Stress Model (MSM; Meyer, 2003; Meyer & Frost, 2013), which states that members of minority groups are exposed to additional stressors related to the minority status characteristic of their societal position (see Figure 2). In essence, the minority stress concept is an elaboration on the construct of social stress, which refers to the believe that conditions in the social environment are sources of stress (next to personal events) that may lead to mental and physical illness. In the model, minority stress originates from social processes, institutions and structures beyond the individual rather than individual events or conditions that characterize general stressors. As such, minority stress refers to the excess of stress to which individuals belonging to stigmatized social groups are exposed as a result of their societal (minority) position. It is thus related to social and cultural structures and conditions characterized by stigma, prejudice, and discrimination, each creating a hostile and stressful social environment affecting minorities' everyday lives.

Such additional stressors can significantly influence mental as well as physical health of the individual. Minority stressors stem from the general environmental circumstances in which people live (box a). An important aspect of these circumstances is the minority status (box b) that people belonging to minority groups hold. In general, the broader environmental circumstances lead to exposure to both general stressors (box c) and minority stressors unique to minority group members (box d). Moreover, the minority status that people hold, may lead to personal identification with this status (box e), leading to additional stressors related to individuals' perception of the self as stigmatized and devalued. Minority stressors that have been specifically identified with regard to sexual minorities, include actual experiences of prejudice, violence, discrimination, expectation of rejection, hiding ones sexual orientation, and internalizing homophobia⁹. All of these are interdependent, for example, the stressor of antigay violence is likely to increase processes of vigilance and expectations of rejection.

⁹ Internalized homophobia refers to the process of directing societal negative attitudes towards the self.

Although the MSM does not explicate processes with regard to gender minorities, a recent study shows that trans people might be at risk for a high prevalence of clinical depression (44.1%), anxiety (33.2%), and somatization (27.5%), and that the social stigma experienced by gender minorities is positively associated with indicators of psychological distress. These associations would be universal for different possible gender identities (Bockting et al., 2013). In this regard, a recent report of the European Union Agency For Fundamental Rights (FRA, 2014) shows that discrimination, intimidation and violence toward trans people result in frequent violations of their fundamental rights. Moreover, it is stated that these experiences affect trans people even more than lesbian, gay, or bisexual survey respondents (FRA, 2014).

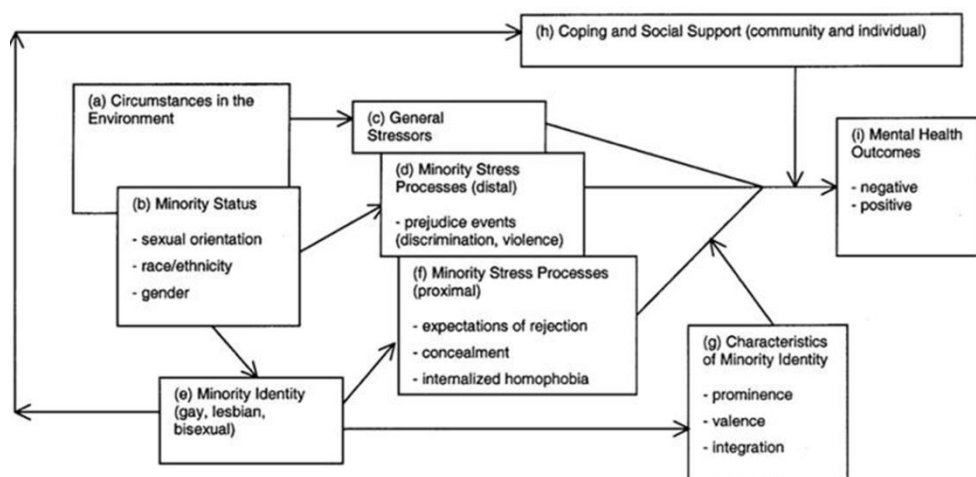


Figure 2. Minority stress processes in lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations, the minority stress model (Meyer, 2003).

In short, we argue that the degree of access to individual resources, presence of emancipative values, and formal and effective freedom rights contribute to defining the societal position of sexual and gender minorities. Respectively, factors like labor market discrimination, heteronormativity, homophobia or transphobia carried out in the public opinion, and laws excluding sexual and gender minorities from the institution of marriage, housing, etc., all restrict the degree to which individuals within these minority groups have the possibility to make fundamental choices in their lives. As such, characteristics of these dimensions significantly impact the lives of sexual and gender minorities as they are a potential source of additional stressors. As predicted by the minority stress model, experiencing these additional stressors might impact the physical and mental health of individuals belonging to these minority groups.

3. Capturing societal position: the use of a composite index

To provide policy makers with information on the societal position of sexual and gender minorities within their country, and enable them to measure, follow up, or adjust social evolutions and changes concerning their life situation, it is relevant to reduce the complexity of such information into a more manageable and traceable form. This can be done by creating a so called 'composite index'. A composite index is an approximation of a multidimensional reality that cannot be measured directly. It gives an indirect approach of a certain situation, construct or reality. Methodologically, this means that composite indices are used to summarize a number of underlying individual indicators or variables (each measuring distinct dimensions of the underlying reality), resulting in one simple number. As such, a set of individual indicators, quantitatively reflecting partial dimensions of a complex reality, are combined into one synthetic index. A typical composite index of n indicators will be the weighted average of this set of individual indicators (Joint Research Centre-European Commission, 2008).

In short, the function of an index is fourfold. Firstly, it points out in which direction policies and actions pushing change should go (an indicative function). Secondly, it should enable accountability, which means that they provide a mean for holding policy makers responsible for their policies. Thirdly, each index has a communicative function in that it invites stakeholders to discuss and translate abstract issues into clear target-numbers. Finally, it provides a way to prioritize the allocation of resources (Anaf, 2002; Poelman, Hermans & Van Audenhove, 2011). The creation of a composite index would, on the long term, allow us to carry out follow up by systematically collecting, analyzing and reporting data relevant to social change in the field of sexual and gender minorities. This could probe the search of explanations that possibly underlie the observed trends and effects, which would allow more focused action in improving the societal position of gender and sexual minorities. The results of this process of evaluation and monitoring can include confirmation, adjustment or even reversal of the norms and ways of policy making (Anaf, 2002; Poelman, Hermans, & Van Audenhove, 2011).

It must be noted that composite indices - by their nature of summarizing complex information into one number - are incapable of perfectly reflecting the complexity as depicted in the first section of this report. Furthermore, the methodology behind a simple composite index, formulated as an average of individual indicators, implicitly assumes the substitutability of its components (Joint Research Centre-European Commission, 2008). This means that a composite index combining legal information, policies and social acceptance, is built on the implicit assumption that full legal equality can compensate for poor social acceptance, which is obviously not the case. In fact, the complex multidimensional¹⁰ and very nuanced structure of the reality of different sexual and gender minorities could argue against the use of composite indices. These nuances might possibly be better reflected in a set of individual indicators. The more

¹⁰ The index combines datasets on dimensions reflecting very different and non-comparable aspects of the societal position.

comprehensive a composite index intends to be, the weaker it may be in adequately reflecting the complexity underlying the reality it is designed to measure.

4. Towards a 'SOGIE minorities societal positioning index'

In the following section, the process of developing the 'SOGIE minorities societal positioning index' will be explained in detail. The focus in this report will be on transparency in choices, limitations and other valuable considerations made along the way of developing the index.

Step 1. Data exploration

As outlined in the preface, the aim of this project was to combine three readily available datasets into one composite measure covering the European geographical region (49 countries). In the previous pages of this report, we outlined a theoretical framework that underlies the idea of combining separate indices to reflect the dimensional complexity making up the societal position of sexual and gender minorities. In defining this position, we relied on the above mentioned theory of human development (Welzel et al., 2003), which states that social progress results from evolutions within the institutional, cultural and economic dimensions making up society. A composite measure aiming to reflect the societal position of SOGIE minorities should thus ideally combine a set of individual variables/indicators reflecting each of these dimensions on a cross-national level.

Based on the datasets commissioned for use in this project, and the current data gaps considered, the operational model guiding the development of this index will differ from the full theoretical model (see Figure 3) as depicted earlier. At this point, no valid cross-nationally comparable datasets are available to map the economic dimension contributing to the societal position of gender and sexual minorities in the European countries. However, having a glance at recent findings of research carried out on a country-level or in other continents, might shed a first light on the importance of trying to fill the gaps in our current knowledge regarding this dimension of sexual and gender minorities' societal position in Europe. Badgett and colleagues (2013) show that people belonging to sexual minority groups in America are more likely to be poor than heterosexual people: one third of lesbian couples and 20.1 % of gay male couples without a high school diploma are in poverty, compared to 18.8% of different-sex married couples. Furthermore, their children are particularly vulnerable to spend their future life in poverty: almost one in four children living with a male same-sex couple and 19.2% of children living with a female same-sex couple are in poverty, compared to 12.1% of children living with married different-sex couples. The British labour force survey shows that homosexual men in England tend to earn less than heterosexual men if controlled for level of education (Arabsheibani, Makin, & Wadsworth, 2005). Also, there is evidence of the existence of a glass ceiling for gay and bisexual men in British universities: they tend to have smaller chances at promotion on all levels of university compared to their heterosexual counterparts. However, lesbian and bisexual women would have higher changes at making promotion compared to heterosexual women (Frank, 2006). Research within the Flemish population (N=2880) shows that LGB's are more than twice as likely to be unemployed compared to the heterosexual population (12% change versus 5%), even after controlling for level of education (Lenaers, 2006). In light of lack of cross-national and comparable European data in this respect, data from the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA)

showed that of those LGB participants who had a paid job at any time during the past five years, 67% had witnessed negative comments or conduct towards a colleague perceived to be lesbian, gay, bisexual or trans, 66% had experienced a generally negative attitude towards sexual and gender minorities. Of those who were employed in the year preceding the survey, 19% stated that they've personally felt discriminated against at work because of their sexual or gender minority status. The findings were significantly worse in the case of transgender individuals (FRA, 2012), possibly being the result of the inability to obtain identity documents reflecting a new identity, reluctance of employers to accept the new sex, and increased vulnerability to bullying and harassment by colleagues. In many cases, transgender workers are completely excluded from formal employment (International labor office, 2013).

The results of these valuable first steps towards narrowing the knowledge gap with regard to the socio-economic dimension of sexual and gender minorities' societal position should witness the need to gather large-sample, comparative cross national and representative data in this respect. Mapping inequalities with regard to health and life expectancy, incomes and educational chances for sexual and gender minority groups is much needed. However, we are not the first to make this call for gathering new data in this regard. In 2014, the United States and the Netherlands urged the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to include LGBT and intersex issues in its work on economic inclusiveness.

The operational model underlying the process towards this composite index, will include both the institutional – including the distinction between formal and effective institutionalization – and cultural dimension composing SOGIE minorities' societal position. However, due to lack of reliable data, the economic dimension will not be included.

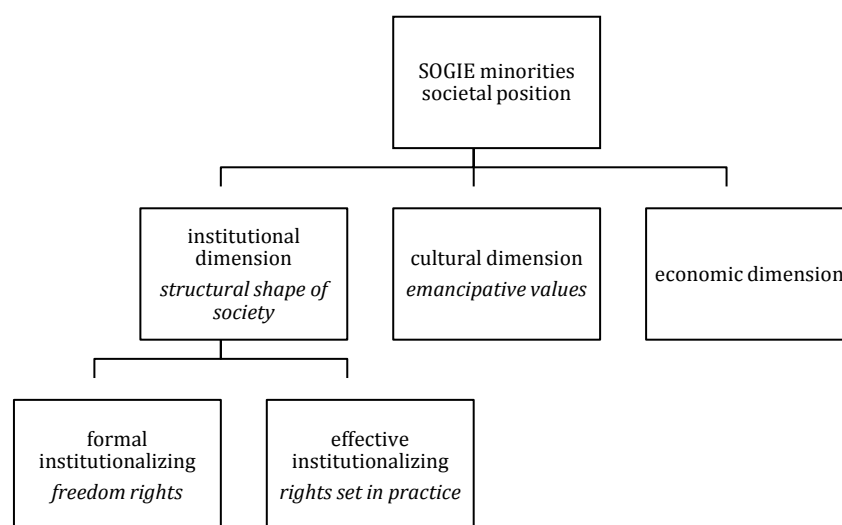


Figure 3. Conceptual framework underlying the SOGIE minorities societal positioning index.

To reflect the legal aspects referring to formal institutionalization, ILGA Europe's rainbow map index is used. As outlined in the theoretical framework of this paper, the ability of personal choice requires effective freedom rights to shape a legal space allowing for such choices. However, codifying rights and thus drawing the formal structure of society may not necessarily imply that regimes effectively set these rights in practice. As such, when talking about this institutional dimension, we distinct the formal rights from the extent to which these rights are actually set into practice. This is measured through use of the practical public policy index (PPPI), as developed by the MECSN. Next to the institutional sphere, the nature of cultural values towards SOGIE minorities carried out in society contributes to their societal position. The Eurobarometer survey dataset is used to gain insight in social acceptance towards gender and sexual minorities in the general public. The degree to which a society's values are restrictive versus accepting towards sexual and gender minorities, is reflected in the social acceptance index.

In the next pages, we will reflect on the phase of exploration of each of these separate datasets.

ILGA-Europe's Rainbow Map Index

[Status per day: February 17th of 2016]

Dataset description

The first dataset articulated as a basis for the development of a composite index, is the one gathered by ILGA-Europe for the composition of their Rainbow map index. ILGA-Europe (the European region of the International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association) is an international organization (with member organizations from 45 European countries) striving for dignity, freedom and full enjoyment of human rights for everyone, regardless of their actual or perceived sexual orientation, gender identity, gender expression and intersex status.

The organization has developed the Rainbow index to provide insight in the legal, political and social situation of LGBT and intersex people in Europe. It is constructed as a tool for advocating human rights and provides a basis for monitoring the legal situation for both sexual and gender minorities, as well as intersex people. As such, it provides a ranking of the 49 European countries, reflecting the degree of violations and discrimination versus respect of human rights and full equality for these minority groups in each one of these countries.

The index is based on a continuous registration of the existence of laws and policies that are considered to have a direct impact on the human rights of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people under 6 categories: equality and non-discrimination; family; hate motivated speech/violence; legal gender recognition; freedom of assembly, association and expression; and asylum. ILGA maps evolutions with the help of its local member organizations and a team of national experts to validate the relevant data,

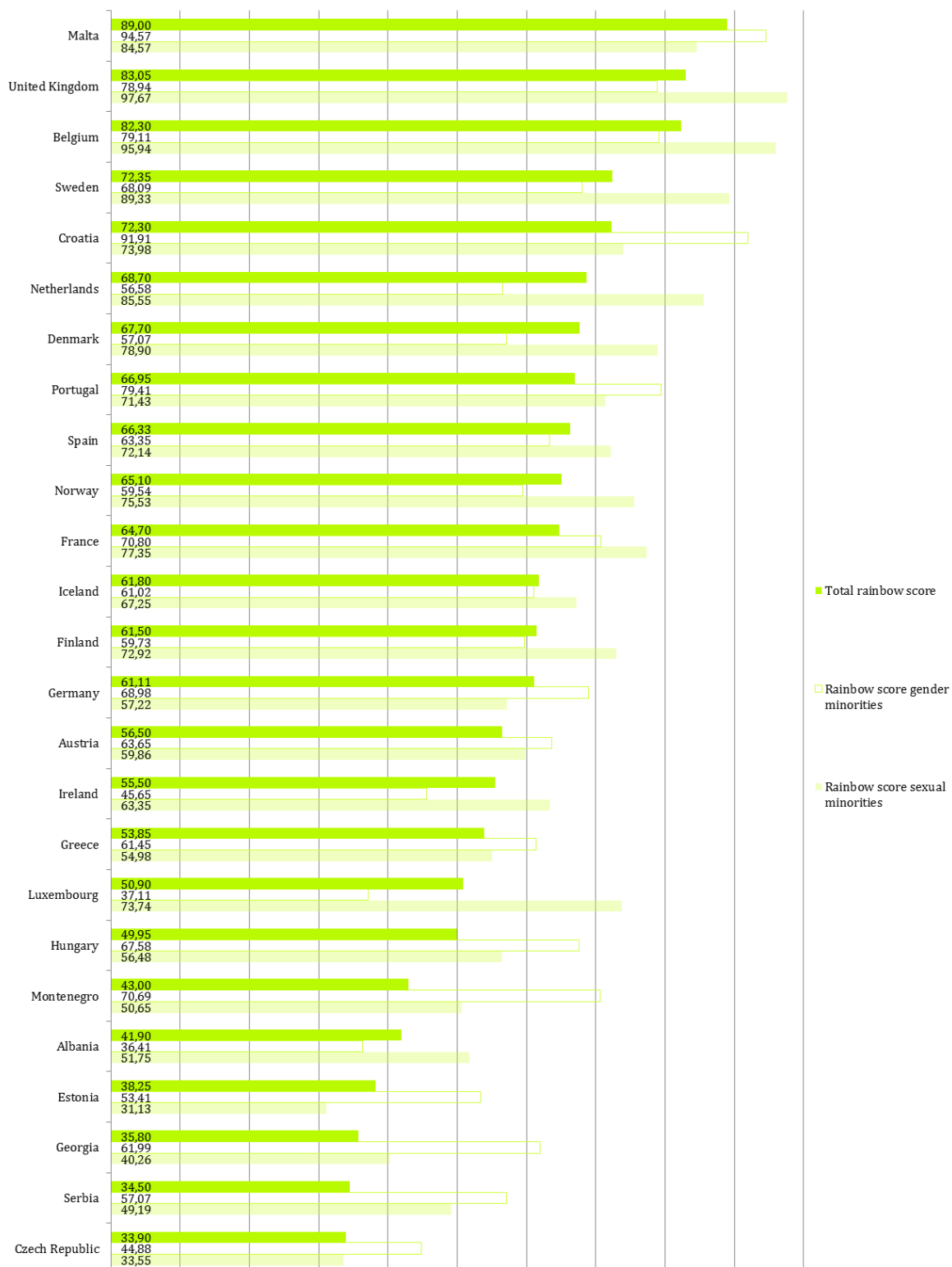
resulting in an ever evolving¹¹ European equality map that reflects the most up to date legal situation of minority groups.

The overall index is the result of a weighted sum of the existent laws and policies within each country. The weightings are decided upon and annually revised by experts who estimate the impact of each of these laws/policies on the lives of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people. As such, the weightings allocated to each of the laws/policies, reflect benchmarking values in advocacy towards most needed change. Appendix 1 provides a detailed list of criteria guiding the allocation of points (reflecting the existence or non-existence of certain laws/policies) and their weight in the overall index.

Figure 4 shows the country ranking based on the total index score as registered on February 17th 2016. However, since we consider the issue of disaggregation as highly relevant and necessary in reflecting the nuanced reality of both sexual and gender minorities, a specific rainbow score regarding sexual versus gender minorities is added. This score is obtained by using only those items¹² specifically addressing sexual orientation versus gender identity as a ground for discrimination. Relative weights, as decided upon by the ILGA experts, have been retained.

¹¹ This means that the index can change daily (resulting in a status per day), since ILGA Europe is constantly involved in ongoing consultation with legal experts. ILGA officially consults their national experts every year before May, but in between throughout the whole year; the index is constantly updated.

¹² See Appendix 1. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 45, and 46 are used for computing the rainbow score for sexual minorities. Items 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 25, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 47, and 48 are used for computing the PPPI score for gender minorities.



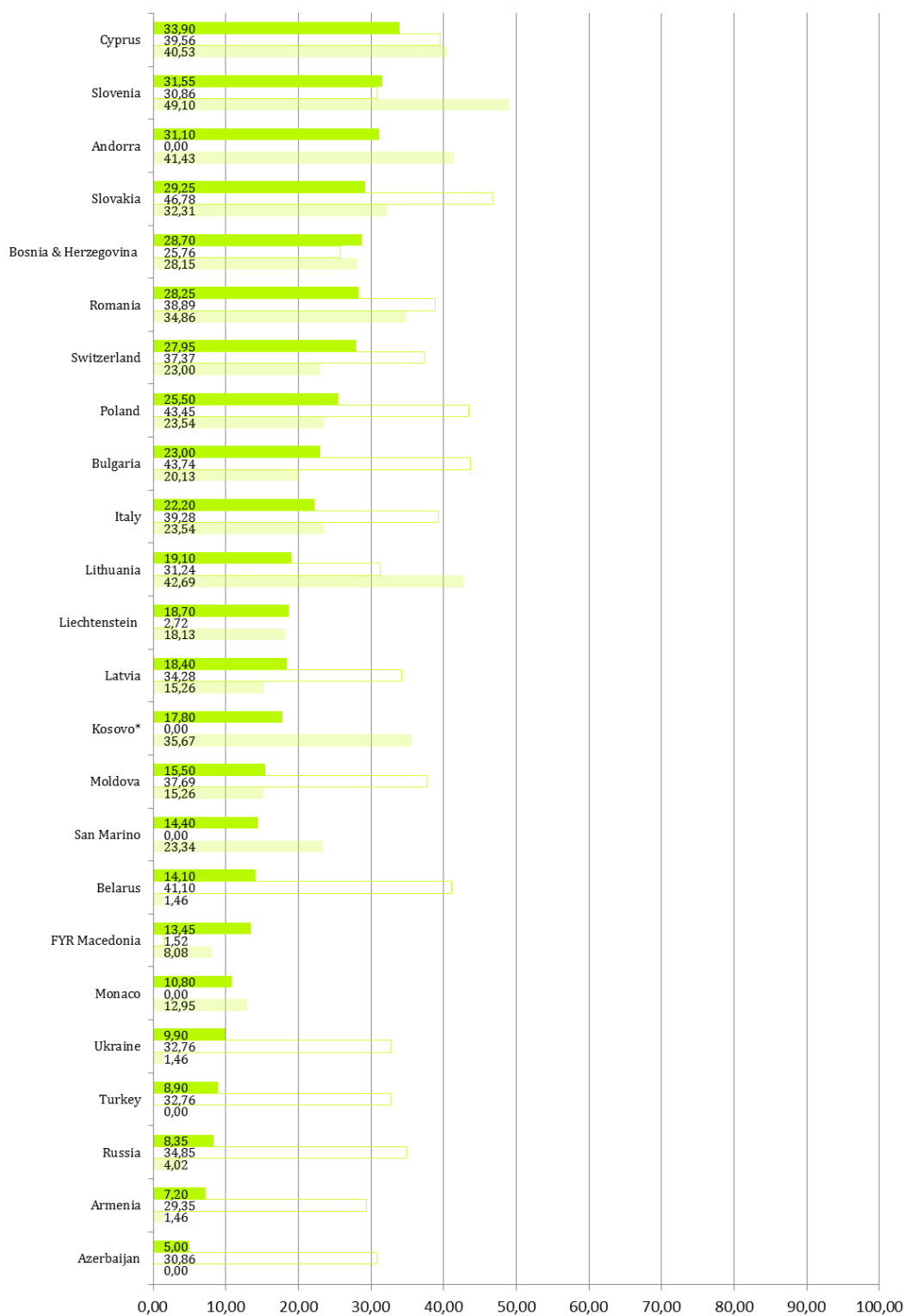


Figure 4. Country rankings based on the rainbow index score (%). Note. Source: <http://www.rainbow-europe.org/country-ranking>, retrieved on the 17th of February 2016.

Strengths and challenges

A first visual exploration and content analysis of the dataset reflects specific strengths as well as challenges with regard to the development of a composite index reflecting SOGIE minorities' societal position.

Since the categories and criteria are decided upon by experts and member activist organizations, the rainbow dataset meets both the need of information of stakeholders and expectations and specific needs of the population of sexual and gender minorities (relevance). Besides that, its sensitivity is of great value to the field: because of the fact that the rainbow index dataset is updated continuously, it evolves easily to reflect the most recent state of the art regarding legal equality. The indicator is also accepted by a broad spectrum of people who use it (i.e., activists on the field). Furthermore, ILGA Europe made considerable efforts to contribute to the transparency of the scoring procedure, by providing the sources that guided the process of awarding or not awarding points.

Although these strengths contribute greatly to the value of the rainbow index as an advocacy tool for promoting change, the dataset also imposes certain challenges that may impair its robustness and validity from a pure scientific point of view. In essence, although the choices underlying both inclusion and weighing of items are the result of expert opinions, they are based on an estimation of needs of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people. They are thus advocacy choices in pushing change, rather than 'objective' information. A second challenge can be found in the fact that the overall theoretical frame underlying the index is twofold. Most items gather information on legal grounds of equality whereas other items do so for policy issues. These differences in conceptualization seem to not be taken into account during the process of weighing. In light of the theory of human development, which differentiates between formal and effective rights, it could be useful to consider policy and laws as two domains of equality that have to be distinguished. On item-level, additional challenges arise. Firstly, the criteria on which the awarding of points is based, are often not unambiguously. This is especially the case if pragmatic considerations overrule this need for unambiguousness. Moreover, because of the index' advocacy properties, in subsequent editions of the index, criteria are added and changed in order to adapt benchmark properties to current progress and evolutions. This may cause the index to lack stability. Finally, the statistical properties of the dataset hinder solid analysis. The dataset provides in data points ranging from zero to one, reflecting the degree to which criteria are met within the country (0= absence of criteria, 1= full presence of criteria, everything in between reflects the proportion of regions that meet the criterion). Furthermore, the number of variables (47 criteria) is too big considering the number of cases (49 countries) to carry out valid exploratory analyses (like factor analysis).

Table 1

Strengths and challenges of the rainbow map index.

Strengths	Challenges
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sensitivity • Relevance • Transparency • Easy and simple to measure • Acceptation • Refers to aspects of policy making that are susceptible to influences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of stability • Challenges to scientific validity • Incoherent theoretical frame • Ambiguous criteria • Statistical weaknesses of the dataset

Practical Public Policy Index

[February 2016]

Dataset description

The second dataset to be used for development of the composite index is the Practical Public Policy Index (PPPI). Since 2004, the secretariat of the MECSN is getting information on public policies in a growing number of European countries. Based on desk research, previous roundtable reports and ministerial meetings they have recently compiled a list of 15 practical public policy criteria (Appendix 2), divided into five broad domains that are considered crucial in guaranteeing equality in treatment of gender and sexual minorities. Two broad criteria were followed in the selection and development of items for this questionnaire: firstly, items should guarantee transparency and thus be easy to check, secondly, items should be contextually neutral and nonbiased. The indicator was built to the example of the ILGA Rainbow Index.

A preliminary scoring procedure was carried out on the basis of desk research by the secretariat. Eventually, governmental officials of the capital cities of the 49 above mentioned countries were asked to validate the findings of the secretariat, with a resulting response of 75,5%¹³ of all European countries. For the aim of transparency and accountability, the secretariat has archived not only all data, but also all

¹³ Twelve countries did not engage in the validation process: Andorra – Armenia – Azerbaijan – Belarus – France – Hungary – Latvia – Monaco – Poland – Russia – San Marino – Turkey. Their scores are considered missing.

The 37 remaining countries are each provided with a practical public policy score. Albania – Austria – Belgium – Bosnia & Herz. – Bulgaria – Croatia – Cyprus – Czech Rep. – Denmark – Estonia – Finland – Georgia – Germany – Greece – Iceland – Ireland – Italy – Kosovo – Liechtenstein – Lithuania – Luxembourg – fyr Macedonia – Malta – Moldova – Montenegro – Netherlands – Norway – Portugal – Romania – Serbia – Slovakia – Slovenia – Spain – Sweden – Switzerland – Ukraine – United Kingdom.

correspondence and legal files underlying the scores per country. The source material can be disclosed upon request from and to its members.

As such, the index provides in a ranking of a total of 37 European countries, based on their respective scores ranging from 0 to 15. For each item, a binary scoring procedure is used (reflecting the presence or absence of a given criterion). Half points are allocated when policies are only regionally applied. Each item is allocated equal weight in the total sum of practical public policies. Figure 5 shows the country ranking based on the total PPPI index score. However, since we consider the issue of disaggregation as highly relevant and necessary in reflecting the nuanced reality of both sexual and gender minorities, a specific PPPI score regarding sexual versus gender minorities is added. This score is obtained by using only those items¹⁴ specifically addressing sexual versus gender minorities.

¹⁴ See Appendix 2. Items 1, 6, 8, 11 and 13 are used for computing the PPPI score for sexual minorities. Items 2, 7, 9, 12 and 14 are used for computing the PPPI score for gender minorities.

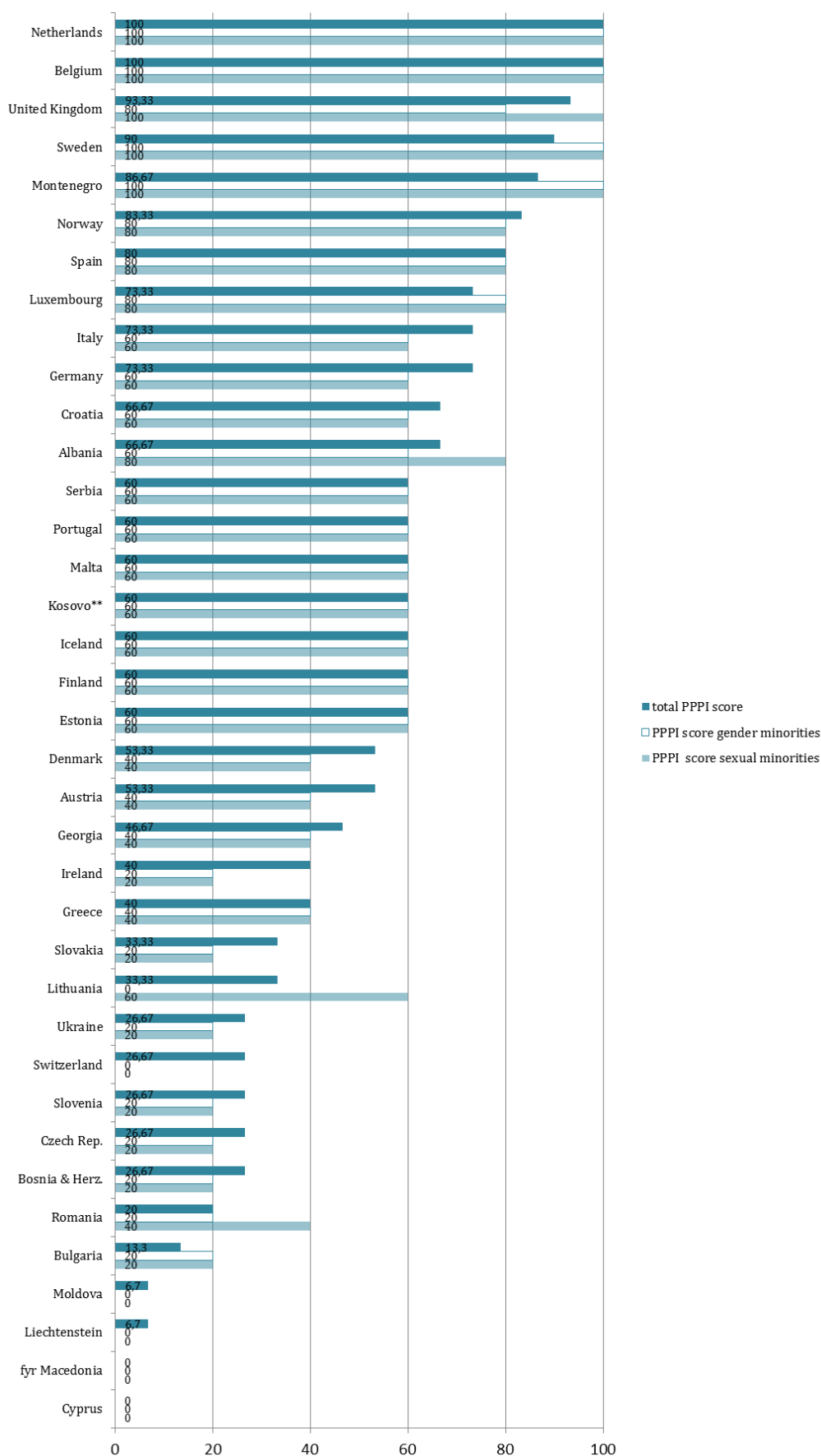


Figure 5. Country rankings based on the practical public policy index score (%). Note: data gathered by the MESCN.

Strengths and challenges

A first visual exploration and content analysis of the dataset reflects both specific strengths and challenges with regard to the development of a composite index.

In the process of developing the Practical Public Policy index, the secretariat has made considerable efforts to contribute to the need for transparency of the scoring procedure, by requesting written sources underscoring the granting of points. The criteria are the final result of an evaluation process striving for unambiguity. As such, all items are scanned and corrected for hidden questions, indicators of double questions, double negations, and conceptual incoherence. To guarantee reliability and validity in the transnational scoring procedure, each question is formulated as clearly as possible, consisting of simple and universally understood words (or providing definitions if this is not the case) and providing clear, mutual exclusive answer formats.

However, there are some challenges linked to the use of the PPPI. Firstly, there are possible differences in sensitivity of this measure in different political, social and cultural structures. For example, in some countries, activists have to act to get a meeting with the government, whereas it works the other way around in others. Besides that, small governments may not have networks of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender people within their department, solely due to their extensiveness. As such, countries may not always be comparable in terms of practical policies. Since the criteria are developed and listed by one of the European member states (the Netherlands), this might induce bias in the instrument. Intense dialogue with experts from different European regions might contribute in challenging this one-sided conceptualization. Finally, similarly to the rainbow map index, the statistical properties of the dataset hinder solid analysis. Since the public policy index has only recently been developed, at this point, we have no clarity on important aspects and features of the index, like its relevance to stakeholders and to sexual and gender minorities, as well as its sensitivity and acceptance by the broader public.

Table 2

Strengths and challenges of the PPPI.

Strengths	Challenges
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Transparency in scoring procedure• Easy and simple to measure• Refers to aspects of policy making that are susceptible to influences	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Challenges to scientific validity• Incoherent theoretical frame• Lack of transparency in criteria• Statistical weaknesses of the datasets

Social Acceptance Index

Dataset description

A screening of existing public value surveys indicated several datasets that include items that measure aspects of social acceptance towards sexual and gender minorities. In the ultimate selection of a dataset to be used in the composition of an index, a few criteria were considered decisive: the dataset should be readily available and gathered within an open access policy, the chosen dataset should cover as much countries constituting the geographical area of Europe as possible, and data should enable to reflect acceptance towards both sexual and gender minorities.

At this point, the majority of the surveys providing information on social acceptance, only includes items covering sexual orientation. As such, the European social survey (ESS; wave 2014) addresses acceptance towards lesbian and gay minorities in one question. It only covers a limited part of the countries (15 to be exact) within the European geographic region. The European Values Study (EVS; wave 2008) includes three questions of use for measuring social acceptance towards gay men and one more ambiguous item questioning family norms. Although the EVS covers 91,8% of the countries under study, the current available dataset is seriously outdated. Furthermore, waves are only carried out over 9 years. The World Values Studies questionnaire includes two of the EVS items, and covers only a small part of the countries (32,6%) aimed to map in this index, with a still increasing number of countries dropping out. The Pew global attitudes surveys include only two items addressing attitudes towards gay men. The survey only covers a small part (20,4%) of the countries under study. The Ipsos opinion poll of 2015 includes two questions on attitudes towards same-sex couples but covers only 20,40% of countries under study. The ISSP includes two questions on same-sex couples and covers 57,14% of countries under study. Appendix 3 provides an overview of all items included in these datasets.

In 2015, the Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers of the European Commission requested a survey on discrimination in the EU (European union, 2015). As such, in 2015, wave 83.4 of the Eurobarometer survey was carried out in the 28 member states of the European Union, involving 27 718 respondents in total. The survey draws on several questions asked in previous waves and an addition of a number of new questions to provide insight into perception, attitudes, knowledge and awareness of discrimination based on several grounds in the European Union.

As such, it is the first study to focus on acceptance of LGBT people to cover both sexual orientation and gender identity as grounds for discrimination. At this point, it is the only survey that provides information on acceptance towards transgender people. A preliminary screening of this questionnaire showed 14 items (see Appendix 3) to be of use in measuring social acceptance towards sexual and gender minorities¹⁵.

Eventually, a total of six questions (listed below) was selected based on three main criteria: 1) validity; does the question measure the degree of social acceptance? 2) uniform scaling procedure; are the items making up the index measured using the same answering categories? 3) comprehensiveness of the set of items: does the set of items provide equal information for both sexual and gender minorities?

- a. *QC4_2: Using a scale from 1 to 10, please tell me how you would feel about having a **gay, lesbian or bisexual** person in the highest elected political position in your country? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable")*
- b. *QC4_8: Using a scale from 1 to 10, please tell me how you would feel about having a **transgender or transsexual** person in the highest elected political position in your country? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable")*
- c. *QC13_10: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your colleagues at work was a **gay, lesbian or bisexual** person? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable")*
- d. *QC13_11: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your colleagues at work was a **transgender or transsexual** person? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable")*
- e. *QC14_10: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your children was in a love relationship with a **person of the same sex**? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable")*
- f. *QC14_11: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your children was in a love relationship with a **transgender or transsexual** person? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable")*

¹⁵ Next to these question, two questions focus on lived experience of people belonging to both minority groups (QC2_3 and CQ2_8), ten questions focus on the public opinion or public view on discrimination, diversity promotion, and exclusion with regard to sexual and gender minorities (QC1_7; QC3_6; QC3_7; QC7_3; QC7_8; QC12_6; QC12_8; QC15_2; QC15_7), one question reflecting openness about sexual orientation (CQ11_4), and three more descriptive questions on belonging to a sexual or gender minority group (SD1_3; Sd1_6; SD2_3).

For constituting the social acceptance index, the mean score (on a scale from 1 – 10) for each individual was calculated first (arrhythmic mean of the scores on the six variables for social acceptance towards SOGIE minorities, arrhythmic mean of the scores on questions a, c and e for social acceptance towards sexual minorities, arrhythmic mean of the scores on questions b, d and f for social acceptance towards SOGIE minorities). Important to note is that the Eurobarometer adds additional answering categories to the 10 point rating scale such as ‘*indifferent*’, ‘*it depends*’ and ‘*don’t know*’. Because these categories fail to reflect the degree of social acceptance, they were excluded from the analysis (Table 3 reflects the number answers excluded for this reason per variable). No imputation techniques were used, since the excluded answers cannot theoretically be understood as missing data. However, an analysis of correlations shows that the choice of these answering patterns is linked to country specific factors, belonging to religious, sexual and disabled minority groups, specific religious background, political positioning, marital status, age, occupational characteristics and self-assessments of social class of the respondent. The exclusion of these categories led to a loss of 30.1% of the cases in calculating the overall mean score.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of the selected variables

	N			Mean	Median	Mode	Range
	Total (%)	Included (%)	Excluded (%)				
elected politician: homosexual	27718 (100)	23620 (85.2)	4098 (14.8)	6,33	7,00	10	9
colleagues at work: gay lesbian bisexual	27718 (100)	23213 (83.7)	4505 (16.3)	7,37	9,00	10	9
love relationship of child: person of same sex	27718 (100)	24421 (88.1)	3297 (11,9)	5,26	5,00	1	9
elected politician: transgender/-sexual	27718 (100)	23746 (85.7)	3972 (14.3)	5,56	5,00	10	9
colleagues at work: transgender/-sexual	27718 (100)	23023 (83.1)	4695 (16.9)	6,84	8,00	10	9
love relationship of child: transgender/-sexual	27718 (100)	24255 (87.5)	3463 (12,5)	6,84	3,00	1	9

Note. Source: Data published by GESIS, Cologne: ZA6595, data set version 1.0.0, doi: 10.4232/1.12387. Data produces by European Commission, Brussels: Eurobarometer 83.4, May-June 2015. TNS opinion, Brussels.

The composition of the social acceptance index is based on a scaling procedure using the above mentioned six questions. Underlying this procedure is the hypothesis that individuals have certain attitudes or beliefs underlying social acceptance of sexual and gender minorities that can be measured using a scale. If these beliefs are shared by individuals constituting the population of a country, we can speak of a ‘culture’ within that country. To assess the existence of such a culture, an examination of the homogeneity of the

degree of acceptance of sexual and gender minorities within a given country (the degree in which scores of individuals constituting the population of one given country are similar) is needed. This can be done by means of an analysis of variance (Glick, 1985). The intraclass correlation of a one-way analysis of variance ($ICC = (\text{between mean square} - \text{within mean square}) / \text{between mean square}$) (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979) shows whether the variance between countries is sufficiently larger than the variance within countries, indicating thus the relative degree of homogeneity within versus between countries. The result of this ICC calculation must be above the cutoff of 0.60 to sustain aggregation to the country level (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979; Glick, 1985). For the items constituting our scale, we obtain an ICC of 0.99, which gives a sound ground for such aggregation. In Table 4 standard deviations, standard errors and confidence intervals for the calculations of the mean scores can be found.

Figure 6 shows the resulting country rankings based on the mean social acceptance scores for each country [on a scale from 1-10]. Since we consider the issue of disaggregation as highly relevant and necessary in reflecting the nuanced reality of both sexual and gender minorities, a specific social acceptance score regarding sexual versus gender minorities is added. These scores are obtained by applying the same procedure as outlined above, but now on two separate datasets covering only those items addressing sexual minorities (item a, c and e) versus gender minorities (item b, d and f). Both intraclass correlations obtained were above .99, which sustains aggregation. Overall, the European countries show a mean social acceptance towards sexual and gender minorities of 5,9972; a mean acceptance score of 5,5999 towards gender minorities, and a mean acceptance score of 6,3574 towards sexual minorities.

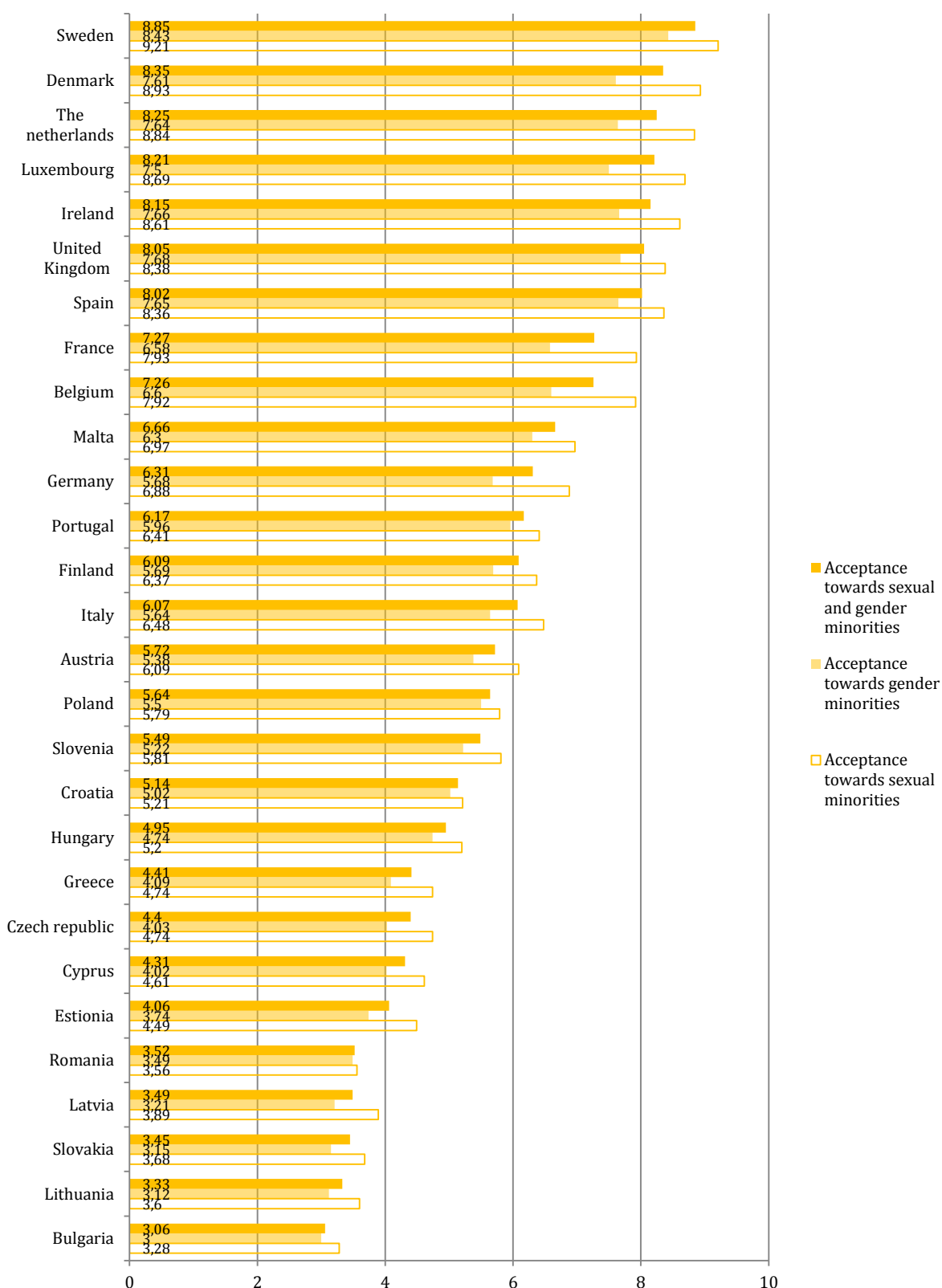


Figure 6. Country ranking based on social acceptance index score. *Note.* Source: Data published by GESIS, Cologne: ZA6595, data set version 1.0.0, doi: 10.4232/1.12387. Data produces by European Commission, Brussels: Eurobarometer 83.4, May-June 2015. TNS opinion, Brussels.

Table 4

Social acceptance index: mean, std. deviation, std. error and confidence intervals.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Sweden	938	8,8517	1,63990	,05354	8,7466	8,9567
Denmark	613	8,3490	2,01520	,08139	8,1891	8,5088
The Netherlands	877	8,2501	1,74661	,05898	8,1343	8,3658
Luxembourg	266	8,2078	2,14725	,13171	7,9485	8,4671
Ireland	846	8,1469	2,18787	,07524	7,9992	8,2946
Uk	1172	8,0506	2,28467	,06673	7,9197	8,1815
Spain	695	8,0215	2,26340	,08583	7,8530	8,1900
France	805	7,2700	2,36564	,08337	7,1064	7,4337
Belgium	924	7,2611	1,97963	,06514	7,1332	7,3889
Malta	376	6,6620	2,44177	,12596	6,4143	6,9097
Germany	749	6,3113	2,72098	,09941	6,1161	6,5065
Portugal	573	6,1650	2,61998	,10947	5,9500	6,3800
Finland	537	6,0943	2,77639	,11979	5,8590	6,3296
Italy	712	6,0718	2,35141	,08813	5,8988	6,2448
Austria	548	5,7207	3,00029	,12821	5,4689	5,9726
Poland	834	5,6393	2,93863	,10176	5,4396	5,8390
Slovenia	554	5,4898	3,17365	,13479	5,2250	5,7545
Croatia	758	5,1409	2,88898	,10491	4,9350	5,3469
Hungary	755	4,9463	2,65959	,09681	4,7562	5,1363
Greece	851	4,4101	2,70349	,09267	4,2282	4,5920
Czech republic	691	4,4002	2,51566	,09571	4,2123	4,5881
Cyprus	409	4,3110	2,60980	,12902	4,0574	4,5647
Estonia	444	4,0554	2,95954	,14048	3,7793	4,3315
Romania	689	3,5224	2,63188	,10029	3,3255	3,7193
Latvia	671	3,4876	2,57151	,09930	3,2927	3,6826
Slovakia	644	3,4472	2,01261	,07929	3,2915	3,6029
Lithuania	810	3,3332	2,51568	,08838	3,1597	3,5067
Bulgaria	622	3,0619	2,17643	,08728	2,8905	3,2333
Total	19362	5,9972	3,05431	,02195	5,9542	6,0403

Note. Source: Data published by GESIS, Cologne: ZA6595, data set version 1.0.0, doi: 10.4232/1.12387. Data produces by European Commission, Brussels: Eurobarometer 83.4, May-June 2015. TNS opinion, Brussels.

Strengths and challenges

An exploration of the social acceptance index reveals both strengths and weaknesses when we aim at combining it into a composite measure.

First of all, the robustness and validity from a pure scientific point of view are a major strength of this index. The solid methodology used in gathering this data, the technical background of the scaling procedure leading to this index, and the fact that the dataset provides in a direct measure of social acceptance on the individual level, all contribute to this. As such, the social acceptance index has some powerful statistical properties. Furthermore, full transparency is provided in the dataset en procedures of data gathering by Eurobarometer.

Albeit these are major strengths supporting the use of the social acceptance index, there are some challenges too. First of all, as outlined in the data exploration part, the dataset is impaired by the fact that there is a high rate of missing data due to poorly developed answering categories. We would recommend to adjust these categories in future waves. This rather easy undertaking would significantly strengthen the properties of the dataset. Second, as the index is based on a large scale survey on the individual level, it takes a lot of time to carry out each wave, which may impact its sensitivity. Next to that, gathering data using large-sample surveys on this individual level demands a much higher financial input than, for example the two above mentioned datasets, which may impede policy makers to carry out subsequent data gathering waves. Next, although there could be arguments that the index meets the need for information¹⁶ we have no clarity about acceptance, relevance to other stakeholders and the degree to which the index meets the expectations and needs of sexual and gender minority groups since the index is only being developed for the first time. Finally, the most challenging drawback in the use of social acceptance index, is the fact that there is no certainty about the inclusion of the needed items in future waves of the Eurobarometer surveys.

Table 5

Strengths and challenges of the social acceptance index

Strengths	Challenges
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Transparency• Scientific robustness and validity• Statistical strengths of the dataset• Solid methodology• Data on the individual level	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• No certainty about inclusion of items in future waves• Demanding data gathering process (high costs)

¹⁶ The data gathering procedure is requested by the Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers of the European Commission and the theoretical framework suggests the relevance of measuring social acceptance.

Step 2. Combining the datasets

Towards a combined dataset

In the development of the composite index, and thus combining the three above discussed datasets, only those countries that are assigned valid scores in all three of the above mentioned datasets are covered. As such, the index provides a ranking of 24 European countries: Austria – Belgium – Bulgaria – Croatia – Cyprus – Czech Republic – Denmark – Estonia – Finland – Germany – Greece – Ireland – Italy – Lithuania – Luxembourg – Malta – Netherlands – Portugal – Romania – Slovakia – Slovenia – Spain – Sweden – United Kingdom. Overall, the combination of these different datasets is not an easy undertaking, since they are developed for very different purposes.

A first necessary step in combining the datasets underlying the practical public policy index, the ILGA-Europe rainbow map index, and the social acceptance index into one composite index, is to disentangle them. Ideally, each of them should reflect one distinct dimension of the conceptual framework outlined above (respectively the effective institutional dimension, the formal institutional dimension, and the cultural dimension), and all of them should cover one and the same target population (sexual and gender minorities). However, as Appendix 4 shows, this may be a particular problem when looking at the ILGA-Europe rainbow map index. In this index, there are three items covering the minority group of intersex people. Since we do not pretend to cover intersex issues because of the challenges listed in the first part of this report (*What about the I?*), we excluded these items from the dataset. In excluding these items, the maintenance of the relative weights of both items and categories was guaranteed. Furthermore, as outlined above, for two items, there is a complete overlap between the PPPI and rainbow index (the equality action plan item for both sexual orientation and gender identity). To avoid double counting, both items were excluded from the rainbow index, but kept in the PPPI as such. Again, the maintenance of the relative weights of both items and categories as decided upon by the experts was guaranteed. Appendix 4 shows that the ILGA index includes four more items covering effective institutionalization, and five more items covering formal (legislation) as well as effective (practical policies) institutionalization or making no clear distinction between both. Since we believe these items to reflect valuable information which would be lost otherwise, these items were not excluded for the aim of calculating the composite index. However, we argue that it might be valuable in making the clear distinction between both conceptual dimensions.

A second important step in combining the scores on each of the indices, is to rescale them to one and the same measurement unit. As such, all indices are rescaled to reflect a score on a total of 100 points (%).

Weighting and aggregation

To aggregate the three indices into one composite SOGIE minorities societal positioning index, for each country, we calculated a weighted sum of the scores on the three composing indices. Guided by our theoretical model, we have chosen to weight the institutional dimension equally to the cultural dimension. Both formal and effective institutionalizing scores are contributing equally to the institutional dimension. As such, the PPPI contributes for a total of 25% to the overall SOGIE minorities' societal positioning index score; whereas the ILGA rainbow index contributes for another 25%. In sum, the indices measuring the institutional dimension account for 50% of the composite score. The social acceptance index then accounts for the remaining 50% of the total composite score. The resulting country ranking is reflected in the bar graph in Figure 7.

To guarantee comparability, the relative weighting as decided upon by ILGA, is kept as it is. Since the weighing procedure of the different dimensions captured in the ILGA index is the result of a decision making process by experts and country officials, we choose not to alter the relative weights allocated to each item and each dimension. With regard to the practical public policy index and social acceptance index, all items and domains are weighted equally.

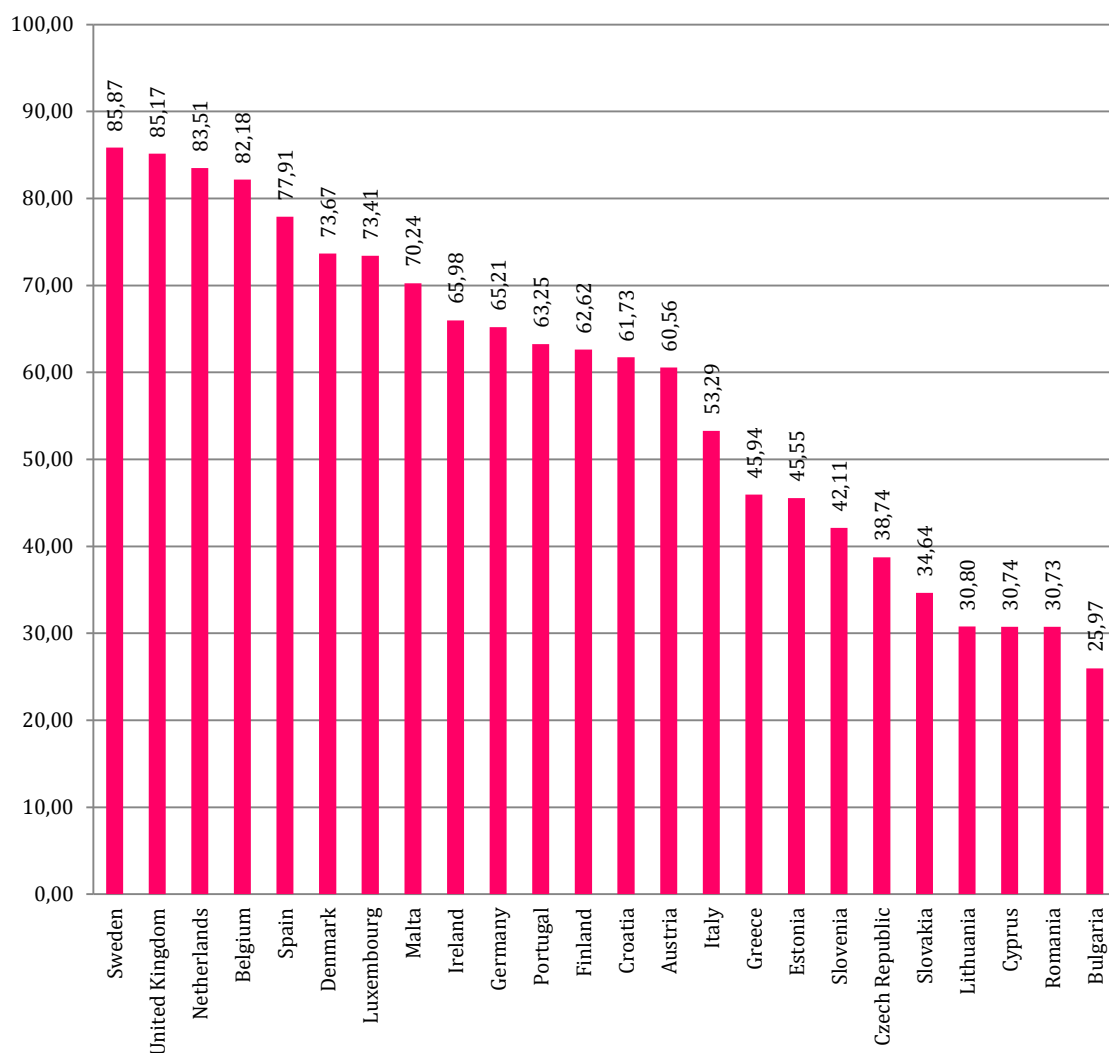


Figure 7. Country ranking based on the total SOGIE minorities societal positioning index score.

Step 3. Decomposition

As outlined above, by the nature of composite indices to summarize information into one single number per country, the total scores and country rankings resulting from the SOGIE minorities societal positioning index are by definition incapable of fully reflecting the complexity underlying the multidimensional and very nuanced structure of the reality of sexual and gender minorities. To be able to capture these nuances to some degree, the composite index allows for decomposition and disaggregation on two separate levels. We believe that these decompositions should be taken into account to counterbalance little nuanced inferences that could be made based upon the country ranking resulting from the composite index,

From composite index to composing indices

For the aim of nuancing, the SOGIE minorities societal positioning index allows for decomposition of the country scores in scores for each of the indices composing the composite index. Since the assumption of substitutability is not plausible in the context of the societal position of sexual and gender minorities (full

legal equality cannot compensate for poor social acceptance, nor can high degrees of acceptance compensate for the existence of policies suppressing sexual and gender minorities), each total score should be disaggregated into the composing scores on each of the underlying dimensional scores. As such, the SOGIE minorities societal positioning index provides in the possibility of disaggregating the total score reflecting a country's SOGIE minorities' overall societal position, in separate scores reflecting the country's situation regarding laws (formal institutionalization), practical policies (effective institutionalization) and public acceptance (culture), each contributing to this societal position (Figure 8). This decomposition could serve as a zoom-lens shedding its light on those specific dimensions that require some more work to be done.

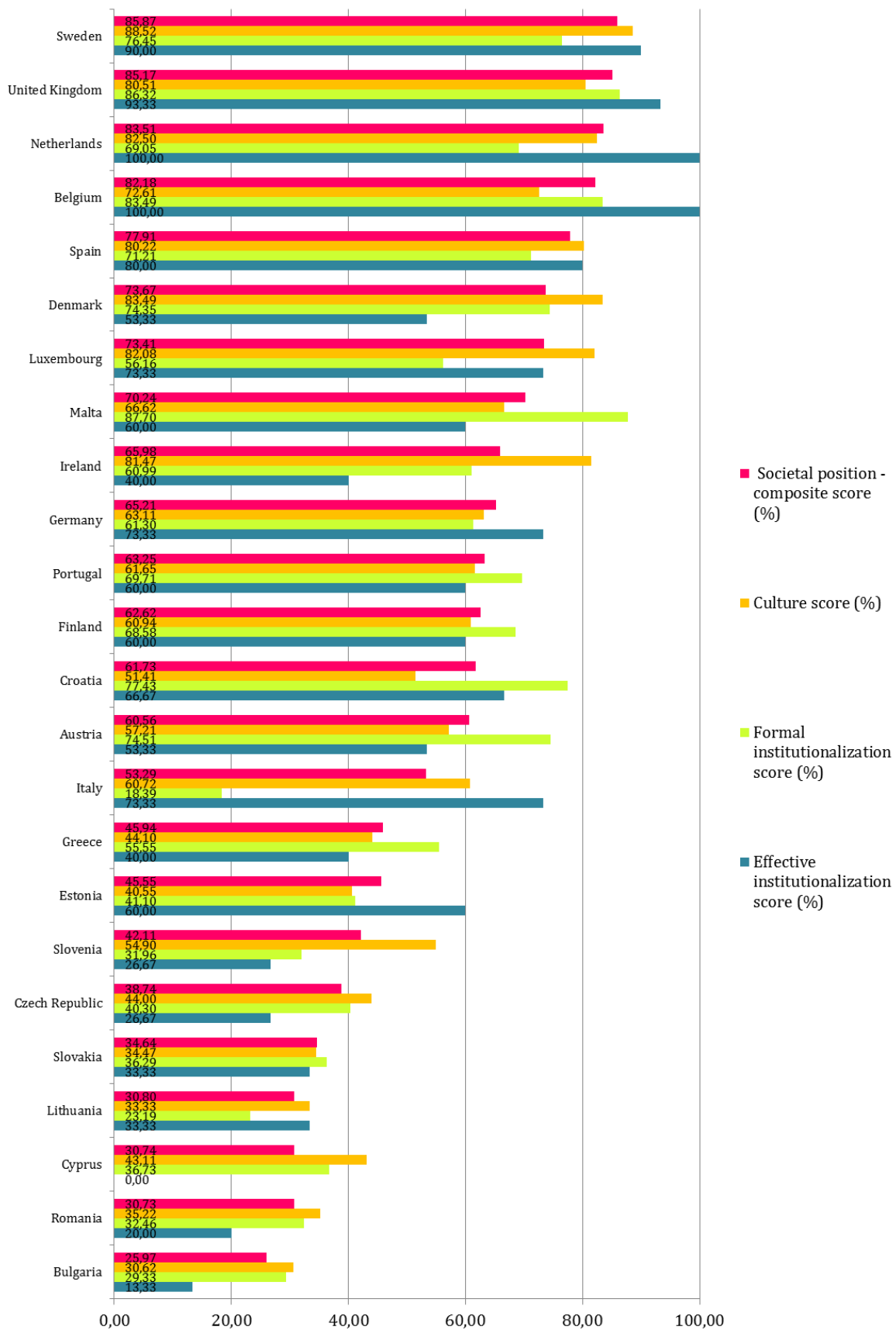


Figure 8. Decomposition of composite scores into composing index scores.

From SOGIE minorities societal positioning to SO versus GIE minorities societal positioning

A second decomposition can be made by disentangling sexual minorities' societal position from gender minorities' societal position. As outlined above, the specific challenges encountered by gender minorities differ significantly from those encountered by sexual minorities. Since both minority groups constitute very different conceptual realities, the index provides in the possibility of disaggregating the total score reflecting SOGIE minorities' societal position in separate scores reflecting each minority group's position (Figure 9). Step 1 (exploring the datasets) shows that not all items covered for in the composite index differentiate between both groups. As such, only items purely focusing on one of both minority groups contribute to the score reflecting their specific societal position. Appendix 5 contains a list of these items. In calculating these decomposition scores, maintenance of the relative weights of both items and domains is guaranteed.



Figure 9. Decomposition of composite score into SO score versus GIE score.

Step 4. Relating the dimensions composing the societal position to outcome measures: exploratory results

Finally, the different sub-indices composing the societal positioning index were related to different outcome measures. As depicted in the beginning of this report, the dimensions constituting the societal position of sexual and gender minority groups are believed to potentially affect the living conditions of sexual and gender minorities. The Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003; Meyer & Frost, 2013) shows that the specific societal position of people belonging to a minority group can have significant impact on their everyday lives, since it is believed to induce additional stressors linked to their specific minority status. As such, relating the different dimensions constituting this societal position to relevant outcome measures concerning lived experiences might give us some preliminary insight in the added value of combining several indices into one composite measure and the relative value of each of these separate indices. However, since these analyses are drawn from a rather small sample (24 countries), it must be noted that the results cannot be generalized, nor seen as reflecting reliable effects. Hence, no conclusions can be drawn from these results.

For the selection of our outcome variables, we turned to the FRA ‘European LGBT survey’ (FRA, 2012). Between April and July 2012, the Fundamental Rights Agency carried out a large-scale survey in the EU to discover the everyday issues affecting sexual and gender minorities¹⁷. With 93 079 LGBT participants (all aged 18 years and above, self-selected), this survey was the first (and only up to this point) to collect comparable data on the lived experiences of these minority groups across 28 European countries (27 EU member states¹⁸ + Croatia). Through an anonymous online questionnaire, topics like experienced homophobia and/or transphobia; discrimination; violence and harassment and resulting feelings of fear and unsafety in public places were assessed. Since the online methodology of the survey guarantees anonymous responding, it was one of the few that actually reached “closeted” respondents to describe their experiences in a confidential way. Although the sample cannot be considered representative of the population of LGBT people in the EU, it is the largest of its kind to date and resulted in the most wide-ranging and comprehensive picture of the lived experience of sexual and gender minorities up to this point. As such, the data reflect the collective experiences¹⁹ of a very large number of individuals who might suffer from a sexual or gender minority status.

¹⁷The target group was defined as ‘people who describe themselves under the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual or the Transgender umbrella terms (allowing for sub-categories in the transgender group, such as transsexual, cross-dresser and queer)’.

¹⁸ Austria – Ireland – Belgium – Italy – Bulgaria – Lithuania – Cyprus – Luxembourg – Czech Republic – Latvia – Germany – Malta – Denmark – Netherlands – Estonia – Poland – Greece – Portugal – Spain – Romania – Finland – Sweden – France – Slovakia – Hungary – Slovenia – United Kingdom

¹⁹ It should be noted that these subjective experiences have not necessarily been confirmed by administrative or judicial processes.

Eventually, a selection of four relevant outcome-variables was made. Each of them reflects an important outcome variable on country-level. The first one considered relevant in light of our theoretical frame, is the degree of openness of people belonging to sexual or gender minority populations. To assess general openness about either lesbian, gay, bisexual or trans background in the social environment of each of 26 countries, FRA created a single indicator based on the responses to the question *'G3. To how many people among the following groups [family members other than partners; friends; neighbours; work colleagues/schoolmates; immediate superior/head of department; customers, clients or other contacts at work; and medical staff/health care providers] are you open about yourself being Lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender?'* [None – A few – Most – All – Does not apply to me]. Based on the responses on this question, each reflecting openness with regard to one particular group of people, a 4-scale measure (never, rarely, fairly or always) of general openness was compiled using the arrhythmic mean of the separate questions²⁰. Table 6 shows the percentage of people within each country that claims to never or rarely be open about sexual orientation or gender identity.

²⁰ In the case of 'open to none' the calculations included also those who provided such an answer (open to none) for all other groups except 'friends', while the 'open to all' included also those who responded that they were not open to most 'customers'. These decisions were made on the assumption that even the most closeted people in social life may have had a few friends to whom were openly LGBT, and, on the other hand, that expressing sexual orientation or gender identity towards clients and customers may not be commonplace, and therefore cannot mark a person as less open in case of not sharing their orientation with clients.

Table 6

General openness of lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans people: % that claims to be never or rarely open

	Trans people	Lesbian women	Gay men	Bisexual women	Bisexual men	Total
Austria	70	38	49	68	84	53
Belgium	54	36	35	67	82	43
Bulgaria	88	84	84	87	96	85
Cyprus	88	91	87	83	94	88
Czech Republic	73	61	63	87	89	67
Germany	68	34	40	70	89	48
Denmark	69	20	18	56	74	30
Estonia	87	77	80	82	90	80
Greece	88	83	83	97	95	85
Spain	66	49	50	79	83	57
Finland	81	42	50	71	85	56
France	68	56	52	80	87	60
Croatia	81	83	85	90	95	86
Hungary	79	72	80	92	96	81
Ireland	76	43	34	80	86	48
Italy	71	78	75	94	95	79
Lithuania	97	94	94	94	98	95
Luxembourg	56	52	45	90	78	53
Latvia	100	88	84	92	95	88
Malta	73	54	60	87	89	65
Netherlands	53	17	15	57	75	27
Poland	93	85	88	92	96	88
Portugal	93	80	78	94	93	82
Romania	90	91	91	92	96	91
Sweden	69	26	31	51	80	39
Slovenia	83	72	72	74	97	75
Slovakia	80	74	82	96	93	83
United Kingdom	61	32	29	71	75	40

Note. Source: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-and-maps/survey-data-explorer-lgbt-survey-2012>.

The second outcome considered relevant to assess the everyday experiences of gender and sexual minorities, impacted by the position they hold in society, is the experience of discrimination. This experience is measured using question C4: *'During the last 12 months, have you personally felt discriminated against because of being lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender in any of the following situations: when looking for a job; at work; when looking for a house or apartment to rent or buy (by people working in a public or private housing agency, by a landlord); by healthcare personnel (e.g. a receptionist, nurse or doctor); by social service personnel; by school/university personnel. This could have happened to you as a student or as a parent; At a café, restaurant, bar or nightclub; At a shop; In a bank or insurance company (by bank or company personnel); At a sport or fitness club; When showing your ID or any official document that identifies your sex. [Yes, no, don't know]'*. Table 7 shows the percentages of people within

each country that stated having felt discriminated against because of being lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender in any of these situations during the last 12 months.

Table 7

% of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender people that have felt discriminated against.

	Trans people	Lesbian women	Gay men	Bisexual women	Bisexual men	Total
Austria	44	53	39	40	29	41
Belgium	46	36	30	28	24	32
Bulgaria	34	52	49	42	33	47
Cyprus	48	41	47	35	25	44
Czech republic	41	38	30	34	25	32
Germany	53	48	37	39	26	40
Denmark	44	29	25	27	19	27
Estonia	33	43	39	31	40	39
Greece	36	47	40	39	31	40
Spain	45	37	29	37	27	33
Finland	46	40	31	25	22	33
France	48	47	35	40	29	39
Croatia	46	55	47	43	37	47
Hungary	38	45	39	34	23	38
Ireland	49	44	36	49	37	40
italy	34	46	38	40	29	39
Lithuania	60	52	48	41	39	48
Luxembourg	37	31	33	44	23	33
Latvia	50	42	44	35	38	43
Malta	44	43	43	30	39	42
Netherlands	49	35	23	29	17	27
Poland	41	46	43	36	30	42
Portugal	26	48	41	41	30	40
Romenia	38	47	46	46	30	44
Sweden	45	43	29	33	24	33
Slovenia	21	48	34	30	32	35
Slovakia	44	50	37	36	37	40
United kingdom	58	47	35	41	31	39

Note. Source: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-and-maps/survey-data-explorer-lgbt-survey-2012>.

The third outcome variable considered relevant in reflecting the conditions of living of gender and sexual minorities is that of general life satisfaction. Question G5 was used for this aim: *'All things considered, how satisfied would you say you are with your life these days? Please answer using a scale, where 1 means very dissatisfied and 10 means very satisfied. [Scale from 1-10]'*. Table 8 shows the mean satisfaction level for lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender respondents in each of the countries, ranging on a scale from one to ten.

Table 8

Mean satisfaction level (scale 1-10)

	Trans people	Lesbian women	Gay men	Bisexual women	Bisexual men	Total
Austria	6,6	7,3	7,1	7	6,9	7,1
Belgium	6,5	7,5	7,3	7,1	6,9	7,2
Bulgaria	5,1	5,7	5,4	6	5,9	5,5
Cyprus	6	5,1	5,5	6,3	6,2	5,6
Czech Republic	6,4	6,9	6,9	6,4	6,5	6,8
Germany	6,2	7,2	7	7	6,6	7
Denmark	6,5	7,8	7,7	7,1	6,9	7,5
Estonia	6,3	6,4	6,1	6,2	6,3	6,2
Greece	5,5	5,8	5,6	5,8	6	5,7
Spain	6,4	7,2	7,1	6,9	6,8	7
Finland	6,3	7,5	7,3	7,2	7	7,2
France	6	6,7	6,8	6,6	6,5	6,6
Croatia	5,8	6	5,9	6,5	5,8	6
Hungary	5,3	6	5,8	6,5	5,8	5,9
Ireland	5,4	6,9	7	6,2	6,4	6,7
Italy	5,6	6,1	6,1	6	6	6
Lithuania	4,6	6,1	5,8	6,3	5,9	5,8
Luxembourg	6,7	7,2	7,3	6,1	7,2	7,1
Latvia	4,6	6,2	5,9	6,4	6,7	6
Malta	5,5	6,7	6,7	6,6	6,3	6,6
Netherlands	6,7	7,7	7,6	7,4	7,4	7,5
Poland	4,9	5,8	5,9	6	5,6	5,8
Portugal	5,8	6,5	6,5	6,6	6,2	6,4
Romania	6,1	6	5,7	6,2	6,4	5,9
Sweden	6,2	7,2	7,1	6,7	6,7	7
Slovenia	6,1	6,6	6,7	7	6,4	6,6
Slovakia	5,4	6,2	6,2	6,2	5,9	6,1
United Kingdom	6,1	7,3	7	7	6,3	7

Note. Source: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-and-maps/survey-data-explorer-lgbt-survey-2012>.

Finally, the avoidance of places out of fear was considered a fourth relevant outcome variable. Question E2 (*'Do you avoid certain places or locations for fear of being assaulted, threatened or harassed because you are lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgender? [Yes; No; Don't know]'*) maps this avoidance tendency. Table 9 shows the percentages of LGBT people within each country that stated to have avoided places for fear of being assaulted, threatened or harassed.

Table 9

% of lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans people that avoid places for fear

	Trans people	Lesbian women	Gay men	Bisexual women	Bisexual men	Total
Austria	43	44	40	27	30	39
Belgium	47	49	60	45	44	54
Bulgaria	55	54	69	42	50	61
Cyprus	56	39	58	22	35	49
Czech Republic	39	40	47	30	42	43
Germany	54	44	50	27	31	45
Denmark	49	27	42	21	31	37
Estonia	42	49	61	31	70	55
Greece	39	48	49	36	42	46
Spain	42	44	41	38	38	41
Finland	44	26	40	15	22	34
France	52	57	53	46	45	53
Croatia	51	61	68	41	57	62
Hungary	58	68	72	58	58	68
Ireland	65	51	55	40	45	53
Italy	37	48	49	38	45	46
Lithuania	60	60	75	44	74	68
Luxembourg	34	43	30	19	27	32
Latvia	63	47	66	33	50	58
Malta	72	47	50	28	44	49
Netherlands	44	35	46	23	30	41
Poland	51	53	69	38	54	61
Portugal	49	42	50	33	42	46
Romania	42	55	66	53	61	61
Sweden	48	35	41	24	28	38
Slovenia	38	52	55	42	47	51
Slovakia	57	48	59	48	46	55
United Kingdom	67	54	57	34	46	55

Note. Source: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-and-maps/survey-data-explorer-lgbt-survey-2012>.

For each of these selected outcome measures, a multiple linear regression analysis was carried out to assess the relative importance of each of the composing indices (rainbow map index, PPI, public acceptance index) in explaining the variance in the outcome measure under study. All indices are significantly ($p < 0.001$) correlated to each other (Table 10), which is what we would expect when they are measuring different dimensions of one and the same construct. However, these correlations are beneath the threshold of .90, which gives an indication for the absence of data-based multicollinearity.

Table 10

Correlation matrix composing indices

	Acceptance index	Policy index	Rainbow index
acceptance index	1,000		
policy index	,745***	1,000	
rainbow index	,700***	,665***	1,000

Note. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 11 shows that all composing indices show significant correlations to each of the outcome measures. The acceptance index seems to be the index with the highest correlation with each of the four selected outcome variables. The size of this correlation gives a first indication of each index' potential in predicting the degree of openness about sexual and gender background, experienced discrimination, mean levels of life satisfaction and the occurrence of avoidance out of fear within the 24 countries included in the composite index.

Table 11

Correlations between the outcomes and the composing indices

	Outcome 1	Outcome 2	Outcome 3	Outcome 4
	Openness	Discrimination	Satisfaction	Avoidance
acceptance index	-,869***	-,670***	,806***	-,607**
policy index	-,683***	-,509**	,668***	-,360*
rainbow index	-,676***	-,361*	,664***	-,377*

Note. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The standardized beta-coefficients shown in Table 12 give an estimation of the netto contribution of each of the indices in predicting the outcome measures. If these coefficient are found to be significant, this means that they make a significant contribution to the prediction of the outcome. Table 12 shows that, in the prediction of each of the four selected outcome measures, the acceptance index is the only significant contributor.

Table 12

Standardized Beta coefficients.

	Outcome 1	Outcome 2	Outcome 3	Outcome 4
	Openess	Discrimination	Satisfaction	Avoidance
acceptance index	-,754***	-,763*	,617**	-,781*
policy index	-,041	-,102	,098	,195
rainbow index	-,121	,241	,166	,040

Note. * p<0.05, ** p< 0.01, *** p<.001

Since this is only a preliminary analysis, these findings may be explained by very different and, at this point still equally valid, hypotheses. The fact that the acceptance index is found to be the only significant contributor to predicting the selected outcomes may indicate that public acceptance is in fact the only factor in this study that actually is associated with the lived experiences of sexual and gender minorities. This seems plausible since this cultural dimension could be considered as a more ‘proximal’ determinant of personal experiences. However, this does not necessary imply that legislation and public policies do not impact gender and sexual minorities’ everyday lives. It could be argued that both are necessary steps in shaping public acceptance. For example, legislation and policy might influence public attitudes, and the latter might influence lived experiences (i.e., public attitudes potentially mediate the relationship between legislation/policy and lived experiences). The findings may also be explained by the differences in statistical properties of each of the datasets underlying the indices. In short, these results are only preliminary and more steps should be taken to look into the possible explanations of these findings.

5. Conclusion

This report summarizes the efforts and process in search of an index that measures the societal position of sexual and gender minorities throughout Europe. Starting from a coherent conceptual framework, we have sought a way of combining existing indices into a composite index (i.e., the SOGIE social positioning index). In this index, legislative accomplishments are combined with the degree to which laws are actually set in practice, as well as social acceptance towards gender and sexual minorities in the general population.

Some important considerations should be made. Firstly, we believe that the SOGIE minorities societal positioning index, at this point, is forced to overlook another important part of the picture, by not including measures of economic aspects that guarantee the possibility of making individual choices. At this point, no valid cross-national comparable datasets are available to map this economic dimension. However, efforts should be made to gather data on this dimension, for example by mapping inequalities with regard to health and life expectancy, incomes and educational opportunities for sexual and gender minority groups. Secondly, because of the scarcity of data, we decided not to include items on intersex individuals. This is an important limitation since the social and legal invisibility of intersex issues in society and associated challenges are worrying. Thirdly, although both sexual and gender minorities reflect forms of traditional gender norm transgression and share an intertwined history and minority status, we believe that homogenizing them in a composite index might tempt to oversimplification and little nuanced or even wrong conclusions. By decomposing the SOGIE minorities societal positioning index, we tried to counterbalance this risk and allow users to take a more nuanced and detailed perspective. Fourthly, users should keep in mind that even in countries where the overall attitude towards homosexuality can be considered positive and legal aspects and public policies towards sexual and gender minorities are well established, a climate of superficial tolerance and heteronormativity may still give rise to difficulties related to prejudice and discrimination.

Even though the availability of data sources at this point did not allow us to create a perfect composite index reflecting the societal position of sexual and gender minorities, we believe this project is a first and important step towards understanding the societal position of SOGIE minorities. The considerations being made in this report could be an important impulse for further research into empirically valid indices.

6. Recommendations

The last section of this report is dedicated to listing some crucial and fundamental recommendations necessary to foster a better understanding of the reality of sexual and gender minorities. In this section, we specifically address future researchers and data-collectors, since the most important conclusion of this report refers to gaps in our knowledge and a lack of specific datasources.

Firstly, the striking lack of public awareness, the scarcity of sociocultural research, data, theorizing on and understanding of the realities of intersex people has to be addressed. The violations of human rights that intersex people are facing every day, should probe efforts to collect valuable cross-national comparative data on each of the dimensions of the societal position of intersex people. Notwithstanding the fact that steps are being taking, for example in the rainbow index of ILGA Europe, there is still a long way to go to push change and evaluate and improve conditions of living of intersex people.

Secondly, data should be gathered on the economic position of sexual and gender minorities. At this point, no valid cross-national comparable datasets are available to map this dimension contributing to the societal position of LGBT people in the European countries. The fact that research has shown that people belonging to sexual minority groups might experience higher rates of bias-motivated discrimination, violence and harassment in employment, education and healthcare, prove the urgency of taking the next steps towards data gathering. Mapping inequalities with regard to health and life expectancy, income and educational opportunities for sexual and gender minority groups on a cross-national level is needed.

Highly valuable data could result out of simply adding discriminatory questions, identifying/describing sexual orientation and gender identity, to cross-national population surveys (resulting in representative samples) addressing all kinds of domains. This would not only allow large-scale data gathering on a wide range of topics for sexual and gender minorities, but would also provide comparable data indicating differences between minority groups and the general population. Also, new data gathering procedures should at best provide information on the individual level, should be gathered in representative and population-based samples, and should ideally cover multiple countries.

Some very specific recommendations are addressed to the researchers and services who are already contributing greatly to the gathering of data that may lead to improve insight in the societal position of sexual and gender minorities. As this report witnesses the value of the Eurobarometer 83.4, we firmly encourage the involved parties to include the items of this special edition in future waves. Also, adjustments could be made regarding the response formats, to minimize the problem of loss of information due to the inability to interpret certain answer categories. The FRA dataset, which provides such valuable information on lived experience of LGBT people, would strongly enlarge its impact by adding a control group which would enable researchers to compare people who belong to minority groups, and those who do not. Furthermore, the field would greatly benefit from intense dialogue and

cooperation between organizations that have been engaging in data gathering up to this point. For example, the experts involved in the process of developing this index and report raised the question that it might be a valuable option to combine the effective (policies) and formal institutionalizing (laws) dimension into one index, with an awareness of the distinction between both dimensions. This could, for example, lead to a reconsideration of weightings reflecting this distinction within one index, and overcome the problem of conceptual incoherence within indices. At this point, ILGA Europe's rainbow map and the practical public policy index each solve a part of the puzzle, but without a clear distinction between which conceptual pieces are contributed to the puzzle by both. Intense dialogue may be able to probe the inclusion of different voices on what is needed to actually set legal aspects into practice.

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8. Appendices

Appendix 1: Items and subdomains covered by the rainbow map index and their allocated weights

Equality and non-discrimination (overall weight: 25%)

1. Constitution (sexual orientation) covers constitutional (or similar) anti-discrimination provisions. The provisions should include an anti-discrimination article or Constitutional Court decision which effectively adds sexual orientation to the list of expressly covered grounds. Constitutions that include horizontal anti-discrimination provisions are only included when explicit legal proof for implementation exists. (weight within category: 5%)

2. Employment (sexual orientation) covers employment anti-discrimination legislation. Only express mention of sexual orientation should be counted. (weight within category: 5%)

3. Goods & services (sexual orientation) covers goods and services anti-discrimination legislation. Only express mention of sexual orientation only should be counted. (weight within category: 5%)

4. Other spheres of life (sexual orientation) covers anti-discrimination legislation covering any other spheres of life. Only express mention should be counted. (weight within category: 5%)

5. Equality body mandate (sexual orientation) covers when a national human rights institution / equality body is explicitly mandated to work on sexual orientation in its law/founding documents, or where the national human rights institution/equality body is systematically working on issues covering sexual orientation. (weight within category: 8%)

6. Equality action plan (sexual orientation) covers action plans which expressly include sexual orientation, and include specific measures for progress. (weight within category: 12%)

7. Constitution (gender identity) covers constitutional (or similar) anti-discrimination provisions. The provisions should mention in anti-discrimination article or Constitutional Court decision which effectively adds gender identity to the list of expressly covered grounds. Constitutions that include horizontal anti-discrimination provisions are only included when explicit legal proof for implementation exists. Equivalent ground e.g. sexual identity, gender reassignment, etc accepted too. (weight within category: 5%)

8. Employment (gender identity) covers employment anti-discrimination legislation. Express mention of gender identity only should be counted. Equivalent ground e.g. sexual identity, gender reassignment, etc. accepted too. (weight within category: 5%)

9. Goods & services (gender identity) covers goods and services anti-discrimination legislation. Express mention of gender identity only should be counted. Equivalent grounds (sexual identity, gender reassignment, etc.) are accepted too. (weight within category: 5%)

10. Other spheres of life (gender identity) covers anti-discrimination legislation covering any other spheres of life. Express mention of gender identity only should be counted. Equivalent grounds (sexual identity, gender reassignment, etc.) are accepted too. (weight within category: 5%)

11. Equality body mandate (gender identity) covers when a national human rights institution / equality body is explicitly mandated to work on gender identity in its law/founding documents, or where the national

human rights institution / equality body is systematically working on issues covering gender identity. Equivalent grounds (sexual identity, gender reassignment, etc.) are accepted too. (weight within category: 8%)

12.Equality action plan (gender identity) covers action plans which expressly include gender identity, and include specific measures for progress. Equivalent grounds (sexual identity, gender reassignment, etc.) accepted too. (weight within category: 12%)

13.Law (gender expression) covers anti-discrimination legislation which expressly includes gender expression. (weight within category: 10%)

14.Law and public policy (intersex) covers anti-discrimination legislation and public policies which expressly include sex characteristics or intersex status (weight within category: 10%)

Family (Overall weight: 27%)

15.Marriage equality covers when same-sex couples can marry, with the same level of rights as married different-sex couples. (weight within category: 45%*)

16.Registered partnership (similar rights to marriage) covers when same-sex couples can enter a registered partnership/civil partnership and obtain the same level of rights as they would if they were married. (weight within category: 33.75%*)

17.Registered partnership (limited rights) covers when same-sex couples can enter a registered partnership/civil partnership, but where the level of rights is different to, and is significantly weaker than the rights offered by marriage. (weight within category: 16.88%*)

18.Cohabitation covers when same-sex couples are included in legislation or legal measures on cohabitation. (weight within category: 5.63%*)

19.No constitutional limitation on marriage covers when a constitutional definition (or similar) of marriage as being only a union between a man and a woman does not exist. (weight within category: 7%)

20.Joint adoption covers when same-sex couples can legally apply for joint adoption. (weight within category: 11%)

21.Second parent adoption covers when same-sex couples can legally apply for second parent adoption. (weight within category: 11%)

22Automatic co-parent recognition covers when children born to same-sex couples are not facing any barriers in order to be recognized legally from birth to their parents. (weight within category: 11%)

23.Medically assisted insemination (couples) covers when fertility treatment for lesbian same-sex couples is legally possible. (weight within category: 7%)

24.Medically assisted insemination (singles) covers when fertility treatment for single lesbians is legally possible. (weight within category: 4%)

25. Trans people can marry a person of the other gender covers when trans people are able to marry according to their gender identity after their legal gender recognition (thus entering different-sex marriage). (weight within category: 4%)

**Countries that have more than one form of legal recognition of same-sex partners are only awarded points for the highest legal form of recognition.*

Hate crime and hate speech (Overall weight: 20%)

26. Hate crime law (sexual orientation) covers when sexual orientation is expressly included in hate crime legislation as an aggravating factor. (weight within category: 18%)

27. Hate speech law (sexual orientation) covers when sexual orientation is expressly included in hate speech legislation as an aggravating factor. (weight within category: 18%)

28. Policy tackling hate crime and hate speech (sexual orientation) covers when sexual orientation is included in a national strategy tackling hatred. This only refers to actions based on a recurrent and continuing framework by state actors (ad hoc measures do not count). (weight within category: 9%)

29. Hate crime law (gender identity) covers when gender identity is expressly included in hate crime legislation as an aggravating factor. (weight within category: 18%)

30. Hate speech law (gender identity) covers when sexual orientation is expressly included in hate speech legislation as an aggravating factor. (weight within category: 18%)

31. Policy tackling hate crime and hate speech (gender identity) covers when gender identity is included in a national strategy tackling hatred. This only refers to actions based on a recurrent and continuing framework by state actors (ad hoc measures do not count). (weight within category: 9%)

32. Hate crime law (intersex) covers when identity is expressly included in hate crime legislation as an aggravating factor. (weight within category: 10%)

Legal gender recognition & bodily integrity (Overall weight: 15%)

33. Existence of legal measures covers legislation for legal gender recognition. This can include court decisions, as long as there is a procedure that provides consistent results. (weight within category: 10%)

34. Existence of administrative procedures covers procedures for legal gender recognition which are not written in law. This includes change of gender on official documents to reflect the preferred gender. Administrative procedures are only taken into account when consistent implementation with no obstacle has been documented. (weight within category: 8%)

35. Name change covers existence of legislation which makes name change possible without any obstacles. This includes deed poll. (weight within category: 8%)

36. No 'Gender Identity Disorder' diagnosis/psychological opinion required covers when a GID diagnosis is not a requirement for legal gender recognition. (weight within category: 14%)

37. No compulsory medical intervention required covers when medical interventions are not a requirement for legal gender recognition. This only refers to non-surgical medical interventions. (weight within category: 11%)

38. No compulsory surgical intervention required covers when any kind of surgical interventions are not a

requirement for legal gender recognition. (weight within category: 11%)

39.No compulsory sterilization required covers when sterilization or proof of infertility is not a requirement for legal gender recognition. (weight within category: 14%)

40.No compulsory divorce required covers when divorce or single status is not a requirement for legal gender recognition. (weight within category: 10%)

41.Prohibition of medical intervention before child is able to give informed consent (intersex) covers when medical practitioners or other professionals are prohibited by law from conducting any kind of surgical or medical intervention on an intersex minor when the intervention has no medical necessity and can be avoided or postponed until the person can provide informed consent. (weight within category: 14%)

Freedom of assembly, association & expression (Overall weight: 8%)

42.Public event held, no state obstruction (last 3 years) covers when laws, policies and practices allow for full exercise of the right to free assembly, so LGBTI public events are held without obstruction and are sufficiently protected by public authorities (e.g. police). (weight within category: 35%)

43.Associations operate, no state obstruction (last 3 years) covers when there are no legal and administrative restrictions on the functioning of LGBTI organizations or publications (e.g. 'foreign agent' laws) and when LGBTI human rights defenders are not intimidated and criminalized for their work. (weight within category: 30%).

44.No laws limiting expression (national/local) covers when there is no legislation limiting freedom of expression on LGBTI issues (e.g. anti-propaganda laws, censorship laws etc.) either at national or local level. (weight within category: 35%)

Asylum (Overall weight: 5%)

45.Law (sexual orientation) covers when sexual orientation is expressly included in asylum law as a qualification criteria. (weight within category: 25%)

46.Policy/other positive measures (sexual orientation) covers when sexual orientation is expressly included in policy/instructions/other positive measures. This only refers to actions based on a recurrent and continuing framework by state actors (ad hoc measures do not count). (weight within category: 25%)

47.Law (gender identity) covers when gender identity is expressly included in asylum law as a qualification criteria. (weight within category: 25%)

48.Policy/other positive measures (gender identity) covers when gender identity is expressly included in policy/instructions/other positive measures. This only refers to actions based on a recurrent and continuing framework by state actors (ad hoc measures do not count). (weight within category: 25%)

Appendix 2: Items and subdomains covered by the practical public policy index

Concerted government policy on equality, emancipation, nondiscrimination

1. Is there an Action Plan that explicitly includes the ground sexual orientation?

If yes; attach copy or hyperlink

2. Is there an Action Plan that explicitly includes the ground gender identity?

If yes; attach copy or hyperlink

3. Is there a first responsible government ministry?

If yes; indicate the name

4. Does more government ministries take part in implementing the government policy?

If yes; indicate the names

5. Are there any regional and/or local action plans?

If yes indicate name; one or both grounds count; regional and local action plans count both.

Official recognition of LGBT civil society organisations

6. Did government officially meet with LGB civil society organisations in the past twelve months?

7. Did government officially meet with transgender cso('s) in the past twelve months?

If yes; name of cso can be produced if requested for.

8. Did government support capacity building of cso's related to sexual orientation, financially in the past twelve months?

If yes; name of cso can be produced if requested for.

9. Did government support capacity building of cso's related to gender identity, financially in the past twelve months?

If yes; name of cso can be produced on request.

10. Are there any LGBT-networks within government organisation?

Networks within the police, armed forces also count. L, G, B and/or T counts.

If yes; produce name or contact or hyperlink.

Government tracks progress in society

11. Did government collect data related to discrimination based on sexual orientation in the past 24 months? Quantitative and qualitative data both count. WVS, ESS, FRA-LGBT-Survey and the Euro barometer do not count.

If yes attach copy or hyperlink.

12. Did government collect data related to discrimination based on gender identity in the past 24 months?

Quantitative and qualitative data both count. WVS, ESS, FRA-LGBT-Survey and the Euro barometer do not count.

If yes attach copy or hyperlink.

Independent practical information to the public

13. Is there any non-governmental knowledge institute where the public or public institutions can acquire practical information on L, G and/or B issues?

Equality bodies, Human Rights Commissions and Ombudspersons do not count.

If yes, details can be produced if requested for.

14. In regard to gender identity?

If yes, details can be produced if requested for.

European cooperation and exchange

15. Was government represented at the European Govt. LGBT Focal Points Network in the past 12 months?

Appendix 3: Datasets including items on public acceptance towards sexual and gender minorities

dataset	items	Country coverage	Waves
ESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gay men and lesbians should be free to live their own life as they wish 	71,42%	Every two years
EVS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> On this list are various groups of people. Could you please mention all that you would not like to have as neighbors – homosexuals? Do you agree or disagree with the statement that homosexual couples should be able to adopt children? Do you think homosexuality can always be justified, never be justified or something in between? If someone says that a child needs a home with both a father and a mother to grow up happily, would you tend to agree or disagree? 	91,8%	every 9 years
Pew global attitudes surveys	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Which one of these comes closer to your opinion: homosexuality should be accepted by society or should not be accepted by society? Do you personally believe that homosexuality is morally acceptable, morally unacceptable, or is not a moral issue? 	20,4%	no consistent waves
WVS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> On this list are various groups of people. Could you please mention all that you would not like to have as neighbors – homosexuals? Do you think homosexuality can always be justified, never be justified or something in between? 	32,6%	every 4 years
Ipsos	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Should same sex couples should be allowed to marry legally, should they be allowed to obtain some kind of legal recognition; but not to marry, or should they not be allowed to marry or obtain any kind of legal recognition? To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Same-sex marriage is/could be harmful for society, same-sex couples should have the same rights to adopt children as heterosexual couples do, same-sex couples are just as likely as other parents to successfully raise children, same-sex couples should be able to have their marriage recognized in your country if they get married in another country, same-sex couples who are legally married in their home country should be treated as married when they travel in another country. 	20,40%	no consistent waves
ISSP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is a relationship between two adults of the same sex always wrong, almost always wrong, wrong only sometimes or not wrong at all? Do you agree or disagree that homosexual couples should have the right to marry one another? 	57,14%	Annual
Euro Barometer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> QC4_2: Using a scale from 1 to 10, please tell me how you would feel about having a gay, lesbian or bisexual person in the highest elected political position in your country? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel "totally comfortable") QC4_8: Using a scale from 1 to 10, please tell me how you would feel about having a transgender or transsexual person in the highest elected political position in your country? ('1' means that you would feel "not at all comfortable" and '10' that you would feel 	55,1%	2 times a year

“totally comfortable”)

- *QC13_10: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your colleagues at work was a gay, lesbian or bisexual person? (‘1’ means that you would feel “not at all comfortable” and ‘10’ that you would feel “totally comfortable”)*
- *QC13_11: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your colleagues at work was a transgender or transsexual person? (‘1’ means that you would feel “not at all comfortable” and ‘10’ that you would feel “totally comfortable”)*
- *QC14_10: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your children was in a love relationship with a person of the same sex? (‘1’ means that you would feel “not at all comfortable” and ‘10’ that you would feel “totally comfortable”)*
- *QC14_11: Please tell me, using a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable would you feel if one of your children was in a love relationship with a transgender or transsexual person? (‘1’ means that you would feel “not at all comfortable” and ‘10’ that you would feel “totally comfortable”)*
- *QC16_1: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that gay, lesbian and bisexual people should have the same rights as heterosexual people? (‘1’= totally agree, ‘2’= tend to agree, ‘3’=tend to disagree, ‘4’=totally disagree)*
- *QC16_2: To what extent do you agree/disagree with the statement that there is nothing wrong in a sexual relationship between two persons of the same sex. (‘1’= totally agree, ‘2’= tend to agree, ‘3’=tend to disagree, ‘4’=totally disagree)*
- *QC16_3: To what extent do you agree/disagree with the statement that same sex marriages should be allowed throughout Europe? ‘1’= totally agree, ‘2’= tend to agree, ‘3’=tend to disagree, ‘4’=totally disagree.*
- *QC17_3: To what extent do you agree/disagree with the statement that school lessons and material should include info about the diversity of sexual orientation? (‘1’= totally agree, ‘2’= tend to agree, ‘3’=tend to disagree, ‘4’=totally disagree)*
- *QC17_4: To what extent do you agree/disagree with the statement that school lessons and material should include info about the diversity of gender identity? (‘1’= totally agree, ‘2’= tend to agree, ‘3’=tend to disagree, ‘4’=totally disagree)*
- *QC18_2: Using a scale from 1 to 10, please tell me how comfortable would you feel with gay couples showing affection in public ? (‘1’ means that you would feel “not at all comfortable” and ‘10’ that you would feel “totally comfortable”)*
- *QC18_3: Using a scale from 1 to 10, please tell me how comfortable would you feel with lesbian couples showing affection in public ? (‘1’ means that you would feel “not at all comfortable” and ‘10’ that you would feel “totally comfortable”)*
- *QC19: Do you think transgender or transsexual persons should be able to change their civil documents to match their inner gender identity? (‘1’= yes, definitely; ‘2’= yes, to some extent; ‘3’= no, not really; ‘4’= no, definitely not)*

Appendix 4: Coverage of population and theoretical dimensions in the ILGA items

	Minority group covered in item				Dimension of societal position covered in item		
	SO	GIE	I	Unclear/ Both	Formal	Effective	Unclear/ both
<u><i>Equality and non-discrimination (overall weight: 25%)</i></u>							
1. Constitution (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
2. Employment (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
3. Goods & services (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
4. Other spheres of life (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
5. Equality body mandate (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
6. Equality action plan (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
7. Constitution (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
8. Employment (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
9. Goods & services (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
10. Other spheres of life (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
11. Equality body mandate (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	-	-	x
12. Equality action plan (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
13. Law (gender expression)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
14. Law and public policy (intersex)	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
<u><i>Family (Overall weight: 27%)</i></u>							
15. Marriage equality	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
16. Registered partnership (similar rights to marriage)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
17. Registered partnership (limited rights)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
18. Cohabitation	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
19. No constitutional limitation on marriage	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
20. Joint adoption	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
21. Second parent adoption	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
22. Automatic co-parent recognition	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
23. Medically assisted insemination (couples)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
24. Medically assisted insemination (singles)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
25. Trans people can marry a person of the other gender	-	x	-	-	x	-	-

Hate crime and hate speech (Overall weight: 20%)

26. Hate crime law (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
27. Hate speech law (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
28. Policy tackling hate crime and hate speech (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
29. Hate crime law (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
30. Hate speech law (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
31. Policy tackling hate crime and hate speech (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	-	x	-
32. Hate crime law (intersex)	-	-	x	-	x	-	-

Legal gender recognition & bodily integrity (Overall weight: 15%)

33. Existence of legal measures	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
34. Existence of administrative procedures	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
35. Name change	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
36. No 'GID' diagnosis/psychological opinion required	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
37. No compulsory medical intervention required	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
38. No compulsory surgical intervention required	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
39. No compulsory sterilization required	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
40. No compulsory divorce required	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
41. Prohibition of medical intervention before child is able to give informed consent (intersex)	-	-	x	-	x	-	-

Freedom of assembly, association & expression (Overall weight: 8%)

42. Public event held, no state obstruction (last 3 years)	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
43. Associations operate, no state obstruction (last 3 years)	-	-	-	x	-	-	x
44. No laws limiting expression (national/local)	-	-	-	x	x	-	-

Asylum (Overall weight: 5%)

45. Law (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
46. Policy/other positive measures (sexual orientation)	x	-	-	-	-	x	-
47. Law (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
48. Policy/other positive measures (gender identity)	-	x	-	-	-	x	-

Appendix 5: Items contributing to SO versus GIE societal positioning score.

SO societal position			GIE societal position		
Institutional dimension		Cultural dimension	Institutional dimension		Cultural dimension
Formal institutionalizing	Effective institutionalizing		Formal institutionalizing	Effective institutionalizing	
Constitution	Action Plan	elected politician: homosexual	Constitution	Action Plan	elected politician: transgender/-sexual
Employment	Govt. Maintains relation with cso	colleagues at work: gay lesbian bisexual	Employment	Govt. Maintains relation with cso	colleagues at work: transgender/-sexual
Goods & services	Financial support	love relationship of child: person of same sex	Goods & services	Financial support	love relationship of child: transgender/-sexual
Other spheres of life	Monitor		Other spheres of life	Monitor	
Equality body mandate	Practical information available to public		Equality body mandate	Practical information available to public	
Marriage equality			Non-discrimination Law (GE)		
Registered partnership (similar rights to marriage)			Trans people can marry a person of the other gender		
Registered partnership (limited rights)			Hate crime law		
Cohabitation			Hate speech law		
No constitutional limitation on marriage			Policy tackling hatred		
Joint adoption			legal measures gender recognition		
Second-parent adoption			Administrative procedures gender recognition		
Automatic co-parent recognition			Name change		
Medically assisted insemination (couples)			No GID required		
Medically assisted insemination (singles)			No compulsory medical intervention		
Hate crime law			No compulsory surgical intervention		
Hate speech law			No compulsory sterilization		
Policy tackling hatred			No compulsory divorce		
Asylum law			Asylum law		
Asylum policy/other positive measures			Asylum policy/other positive measures		

European Countries at date: 18-02-2016	Concerted equality, emancipation, nondiscrimination government policy					Official recognition and consultation of LGB and T civil society organisations					Government tracks societal progress		Independent information available to public and institutions		European cooperation	Total score
	Action Plan (so)	Action Plan (gi)	Coordinating government ministry	Different govt. Ministries take part in implementation	Regional and/or local action plans	Govt. Maintains relation with cso (so)	Govt. Maintains relation with cso (gi)	Govt. Financial support capacity building (so)	Govt. Financial support capacity building (gi)	LGBT Network within govt. Organisation	Monitor put in place (so)	Monitor put in place (gi)	Practical information available to public (so)	Practical information available to public (gi)	Member of European Govt. LGBT Focal Points Network	
Albania	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	10
Andorra																no valid data
Armenia																no valid data
Austria	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	8
Azerbaijan																no valid data
Belarus																no valid data
Belgium	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
Bosnia & Herz.	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Bulgaria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
Croatia	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	10
Cyprus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Czech Rep.	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Denmark	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	8
Estonia	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	9
Finland	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	9
France																no valid data
Georgia	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7
Germany	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	11
Greece	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	6
Hungary																no valid data
Iceland	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	9
Ireland	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	6
Italy	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	11
Kosovo**	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	9
Latvia																no valid data
Liechtenstein	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Lithuania	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	5
Luxembourg	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	11
fyr Macedonia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Malta	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	9
Moldova	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Monaco																no valid data
Montenegro	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	13
Netherlands	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
Norway	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0,5	1	1	1	1	1	12,5
Poland															1	no valid data
Portugal	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
Romania	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
Russia																no valid data
San Marino																no valid data
Serbia	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	9
Slovakia	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5
Slovenia	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4
Spain	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12
Sweden	1	1	1	1	0,5	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	13,5
Switzerland	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	4
Turkey																no valid data
Ukraine	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
United Kingdom	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	14

