



The Role of Men in Gender Equality - European strategies & insights

*Study on the Role of Men
in Gender Equality*

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Executive Summary

Introduction

Gender relations have increasingly changed throughout the past decades, and European gender politics have productively accompanied these improvements. Still Europe is far from being a gender-equal society.

For a long period gender equality policies have been contextualised mainly as a 'women's issue' – as women have been the driving force behind gender equality strategies and have been seen as the only ones who benefit from a more equal society. Men as the 'other gender' have been taken less into account in the context of gender equality.

In the last decade, however, men and masculinities have increasingly become subjects of studies and gender policies in the EU. Under EU presidency, conferences on men, masculinities and equality took place in Sweden (2001) and Finland (2006). The *Roadmap for equality between women and men 2006-2010*¹ specifically encouraged men to take up care responsibilities and to share leave entitlements with women. A horizontal priority on gender roles including the need for involvement of men in gender equality policies and addressing inequalities affecting men, such as early school leaving, literacy and occupational health, is present in the current European Commission's *Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010-2015)*². Additionally, strategies like gender mainstreaming seem to have created an initial awareness of the issue of men in gender equality and the establishment of some pathways towards institutional practice. Therefore, contemporary gender equality strategies as well as scientific studies should involve both men and women and take into account analysis of the role of both genders in promoting gender equality, dismantling structural inequalities and changing gender roles.

Objectives of the report and methodology used

The report "*Study on the Role of Men in Gender Equality*" is meant to **provide a better knowledge of the role and positioning of men in gender equality issues**. Men's practices and interests regarding gender equality vary, partly due to differences in provider roles and economic circumstances, but also due to different social, political and cultural patterns. During the last years a special focus on men has emerged at the European level and the amount of research as well as specific strategies have increased. Still, there is little systematised knowledge about men's practices regarding gender equality in the different European countries. This report is the **first European study which undertakes systematic research** of the EU 27 member states plus the associated EFTA states³ in the following fields:

- the importance of education and work in the context of increasing men's contribution to gender equality,
- the involvement of men in family, care and domestic work responsibilities,
- men's health,

¹European Commission (2006). Roadmap for equality between women and men (2006-2010), Brussels. http://www.untj.org/docs/country_context/gender/Gender_policies/EU-Gender_Equality_Roadmap_2006-2010.pdf

²European Commission (2010). Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010-2015). <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0491:FIN:en:PDF>

³In 2012, the European Institute for Gender Equality published the study report "The Involvement of Men in Gender Equality in the European Union", in which the authors focus on mapping relevant actors (organisations, groups and networks) whose activity is considered to contribute to a more effective involvement of men in the promotion of gender equality.

- gender-based violence and
- men's participation in gender equality policy.

The report offers international insights allowing for comparisons⁴ and it refers to the **costs of traditional gender roles** as well as to the **benefits of gender equality**, especially focussing on the role of men and on innovative practices.

The main results serve as a source for recommendations developed in order to improve the role of men in gender equality across Europe. The **recommendations** are supposed to lead to changes on the structural level, to the development of political measures and their institutionalisation as well as to practical initiatives. All these ideas and empirically-based recommendations are targeted at policy makers and other stakeholders at EU, national and industry levels in order to better design and implement gender equality policies taking into account the role of men.

A balanced approach to men and gender equality

The focus on men regarding gender equality always includes women at the same time. **Gender equality needs to address both genders** in order to sustainably change predominant gender imbalances and inequalities in European societies. Supporting a better work-family balance for men, for example, is not only a supportive measure for men, but an important step to achieve a more equal distribution of paid and unpaid work between women and men.

Dominant models of masculinities – like the concept of 'hegemonic masculinity'⁵ – are adverse to equality and inclusion. These models are constantly modified and subject to historical changes, influenced also by the change of women's participation in society in the last 50 years. New configurations of men's or women's practices have effects on gender orders and hierarchies. **The role of men is changing and 'caring masculinity'** is an alternative model based on care-giving roles of men instead of breadwinner roles. 'Caring masculinity' is already taking place in the everyday lives of men, when they take over care-giving practices, especially within families or when they work in 'feminine' professions of care (like kindergartens), which can be seen as a contribution to gender equality. Traditionally this kind of work has been framed as 'unmanly', but the situation has changed within the last decades. Moreover, widening the concept of 'care' towards 'self care' (awareness for health or emotional issues, deeper friendships, less risk-taking, etc) has a direct benefit for men themselves.

Men are not a homogenous group (nor are women) **but a diverse one**, because of ethnic backgrounds, physical and mental abilities, etc. Some groups of men benefit most from unequal power relations whilst others face disadvantages. Taking into account the role of men in promoting gender equality means focussing on areas where men are disadvantaged and on areas where they are privileged.

Involving men in gender mainstreaming and gender equality strategies bears the risk that gender is framed within certain terms in traditional sex role theory⁶, mainly reflecting topics

4 Theory based country cluster concepts as well as geographically and historically framed clusters were defined in order to make comparable results more comprehensible. Geographically Northern, Central, and Southern European countries were clustered into distinct groups. Based on a political and economical perspective, the so-called 'Transition' countries (from socialism to capitalism) in Central and Eastern Europe were defined as 'Post-socialist' countries due to the fact that their uniting characteristic is their common past as socialist countries. 'Central': Austria, Belgium, Switzerland, Germany, France, United Kingdom, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Netherlands; 'Northern': Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden; 'Post-socialist': Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia; 'Southern': Cyprus, Spain, Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal.

5 The concept of 'hegemonic masculinity' can be seen as a cultural norm that continuously connects men to power and economic achievements. This is adverse to equality and inclusion, but it also places significant restrictions on men within themselves. (See Connell, R. W., 1995. Masculinities. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press)

6 In traditional sex role theory the role of men is based on the essentialist and biological definition of masculinity. It involves a set of expectations which define certain practices and behaviours. Among them strength, control, domination as well as giving protection and participation in the public sphere can be singled out.

where men seem to be disadvantaged (e.g. custody, education or health), opening up anti-feminist discussion. Addressing men's involvement in gender equality by only stressing men's disadvantages would lead to very simplistic and misleading assumptions. Therefore one important preconception guiding the study is **to link pro-feminist, progressive and critical men's policies⁷ and studies to gender equality policy**, while rejecting a 'male-discrimination'-perspective (pursued for example by 'men's rights groups') and those theories linked to this approach.⁸

In order to develop a **balanced approach to men and gender equality**, unmasking men's privileges, focussing on relations in the gender system (instead of focussing solely on men) and recognising social divisions among men are important aspects to consider. Gender equality strategies need complex analyses to find appropriate policy conclusions. The report gives detailed figures and focuses on trends to enable a thorough base for these analyses, and also uses findings from critical studies on men, masculinities and gender equality.

Main findings

Men, gender equality and education

Gender equality issues in **education** have changed over the last decades. Whereas from the 1970s onwards gender equality in education predominantly focussed on women, the **narrowing of the gender gap in favour of female students** in recent years has reverted the focus on the perceived **underachievement of male students**.

On average, from 2001 to 2010 education attainment has increased across the EU member states for both men and women. A more in-depth view shows that the **increase of female attainment rate in tertiary education is almost twice as high (14%) as that of men (7.6%)**. In 2010 30% of all men and 37% of all women (EU 27 and EFTA) between 30 and 34 years of age had attained a tertiary education level.

More than two thirds of the EU member states and EFTA states have reported **slight increases or stable rates of men's attainment in upper secondary education** (from 74% in 2001 to 76.2% in 2010). A similar growth has appeared for young women. Differences among men appear to have an effect on attainment rates in upper secondary education; **lower attainment rates have been reported for men with migration backgrounds**.

Gender segregation is a strong characteristic of the labour market and it is mirrored in education. **Boys and girls predominantly choose typical areas in education** (girls: social and care-giving fields of education; boys: engineering, manufacturing and construction). In fact, **the participation rate of men in the field of education, health and welfare has declined during the period from 2000 to 2009** in most of Europe. Research has outlined different reasons for the low rates of men in female dominated fields of education (i.e. deeply-lodged gendered assumptions in organisational practices, parental influence, teachers and peers and the lack of gender-sensitive vocational guidance programmes for male students).

The rate of **male early school leavers has slightly declined in the past ten years but there is still a gap between boys and girls**: in 2010, 16% of all young men (aged between 18 and 24) were classified as early school leavers as compared to 12% of young women. It is noteworthy that boys and girls are more highly-educated than ever before. **However, social class and migration background have important effects on educational performances**. The rate of early school leavers with a migration background is considerably higher than the rate of early school leavers without a migration background.

⁷ Pro-feminist men's initiatives and policies underline the fact that contemporary gender hierarchies are harmful both for men and women although women are still the group which is more oppressed while men are drifting between privileges and cost of being representatives of the dominant group.

⁸ Men's rights approaches underline only costs of masculinity and describe men as a social group which is discriminated due to feminist progress.

Public discourse and policies about gender equality in education have strongly focused on the ‘boy’s crisis’ in recent years. The discussion varies: a causal connection between the underachievement of boys and the gender of teachers (feminisation), often highlighted in public discussions, is not proven by research. More profound explanations point to school as a gender biased system (gender stereotypes at school, especially in Post-socialist and Southern European countries).

The results of the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2009 show significant **gender gaps in reading** (where girls outperform boys) **and mathematics** (where boys outperform girls) and indicate the important influence of socio-economic status on learning outcomes. Qualitative analysis makes obvious that **mostly lower class boys ascribe themselves to patterns of masculinity characterised by rejection of intellectual engagement, which in turn hinders them from educational success**. This can be seen as a driving factor for the disengagement of boys.

Education-related recommendations

- Conduct initiatives and campaigns for students and teachers to promote gender equality focussing on boys in untypical occupations at the national level.
- Socially-inclusive learning strategies, which value informal skills and competences (e.g. writing songs and lyrics, dancing), are needed in order to keep disadvantaged groups of young people in education. Awards for schools that value informal skills will help strengthening this strategy. This can be fostered through EU educational programmes and implemented by national authorities.
- Support the development of gender equality and diversity standards (gender, age, class, migration, etc) in educational institutions (EU level). At national level, schools should be required to implement these standards (concrete equality targets and measures which are monitored, evaluated and reported).
- Integrate gender awareness programmes for teachers and students in order to encourage working against discrimination in schools (national level). Competences, skills and knowledge should help to improve the awareness for gender stereotypes, gender typical professions and the distribution of work and care between men and women.
- Conduct further analysis of teaching styles, textbooks and learning materials in order to outline the impact of educational materials on gendered practices and occupational preferences (EU and national authority levels).
- Support the development of special VET⁹ programmes (dual system model of education) in order to raise the chance for disadvantaged groups to stay in education (national level).

Men, gender equality and work

The **social relations of work** represent some of the most fundamental aspects of gender relations as well as some of the most important elements in the ‘construction’ of men (‘traditional’ at least) and men’s relation to women and children. Paid work has figured and continues to figure as a central source of men’s identity, status and power.

Based on the study results, a **convergence of basic labour market characteristics** between men and women has to be noted. This convergence is evident in the **employment rate**, where the gender gap declined by 5.2% between 2000 and 2010, due to **the increase in women’s** and the **decrease in men’s employment rates** (in 2010 men’s employment rate was 70.1% compared to women’s employment rate which was 58.2%). This conver-

⁹ VET: Vocational education and training

gence is weaker in terms of paid working time (gap decline of 0.4% due to a reduction of weekly work hours: men, - 1.2 hours per week; women, - 0.8 hours per week).

The **economic crisis** initially had a stronger impact on men and men's employment, but later it affected more to women, due to cutbacks in state services.

Nevertheless, the increasing convergence of employment for both men and women is strongly connected to **crises in male dominated sectors of the industry**. Among men, working class men, unskilled men in former manufacturing industry and rural regions and male youth have increasingly been affected by job losses. Some authors argue that diminishing these traditional resources have produced a 'crisis for men'. In fact, difficulties experienced by men in adapting to the new economic challenges are indicated: the shift from a model of work characterised by **full-time work and continuous working patterns** to a new model characterised by **discontinuous, flexible and insecure working patterns**. **Changing economies** – from heavy industry and manufacturing to female dominated service-based sectors – as well as **globalisation** have influenced men's prospects in secure long-term employment, as these cannot be put into practice any longer. This leads to an erosion of the 'male breadwinner model'.

Concerning the pay-off of education, a clear **connection between lower secondary education and lower employment rates** is drawn. The precarious labour market position of lowly educated people in Europe (especially in the male dominated traditional industry) has become worse in the past ten years and is likely to deteriorate in the course of the current economic crisis.

Another aspect is that a gendered division of work is still visible: **men with young children continue to have higher employment rates compared to those without children**, while for women the opposite holds. Unequal share of care-giving work in the family has a direct impact on gender segregation because it still drives women to decide for a part-time job in order to reconcile work and family, whereas men predominantly persist in full-time work arrangements.

Part-time work is still a **work form** highly dominated by women (31.4% women and 7.8% men; 2010). It is noteworthy that countries with the lowest working hours for men are also leaders in men's part-time rates (Netherlands, Norway and Denmark). Moreover, low gaps of working hours between men and women coincide with comparably low part-time rates of women and vice versa.

In the last decade, women have made significant inroads into some traditionally male dominated sectors, whereas **men** have mainly remained in **traditionally male dominated professions**. Men's share among 'care workers' ranged between 8% and 20% in the different EU member states and EFTA states in 2009. It is noteworthy that male dominated jobs provide better conditions (better payment, social esteem, professional reputation) than female dominated jobs. This situation calls for a restructuring of working conditions in traditionally female dominated occupations.

Concerning vertical segregation,¹⁰ gender changes in middle management and in professions have been reported for some countries in recent years, while very slow changes appear in the upper hierarchies of business, science and technology. In the top-listed companies across Europe, a typical board of ten has one female member (in 97% of cases the board is chaired by a man). Some countries have already implemented or are discussing legal requirements in order to change the gender imbalance at the top of companies (Norway: each sex should be represented by at least 40% on boards).

10 "Vertical segregation refers to the under (over) representation of a clearly identifiable group of workers in occupations or sectors at the top of an ordering based on 'desirable' attributes – income, prestige, job stability, etc, independent of the sector of activity. Under-representation at the top of occupation-specific ladders was subsumed under the heading of 'vertical segregation', whereas it is now more commonly termed 'hierarchical segregation'" (Bettio, F. & Verashchagina, A. [2009]. Gender segregation in the labour market. Root causes, implications and policy responses in the EU. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 32).

The **gender pay gap** – a central issue in men’s and women’s relation to work and family – has persisted over the past ten years (EU 27: 16.4% unadjusted gender pay gap in 2010). Larger pay gaps are outlined for older age groups.

The public sector, which employs a relatively high proportion of women, has in many countries moved strongly towards **equal opportunity principles and practices**, often ahead of the private sector. It offers more secure standard jobs with more regular working hours, stable income, social security and possibilities for work and family reconciliation. Men (over-represented in the private sector) are more exposed to work-related health risks compared to women. Workplace studies confirm that on the whole, men are more reluctant than women to say that their jobs leave them vulnerable.

An empirical **connection between work satisfaction and actual working time** is visible: Male employees in the EU 27 are most satisfied with their working conditions where the numbers of weekly working hours are lower in the countries studied: the Netherlands and Norway (36.7 weekly working hours), as well as Denmark (37.2 weekly working hours). In contrast, countries with low scores in work satisfaction show high numbers of weekly working hours (Greece, 42.6 weekly working hours).

Men’s attitudes have slowly shifted **from clear breadwinner roles towards care-integrating models** (especially fathering) in the past decades, while companies predominantly do not change their views on men. Most companies still reproduce traditional gender roles when they expect men to devote their lives to work and women caring for children. Therefore, formal and legal regulations are crucial for men who care, as they provide a clear sense of entitlement.

Work-related recommendations

- Continue to focus on the integration of marginalised groups of men (working class, unskilled and young men) into the labour market. It can be done, for example, by increasing the number of social projects addressed to the representatives of marginalised groups of men.
- Foster work-life balance by political programmes, which focus on an increase of non-sanctioned and self-chosen part-time, job-sharing and other flexible forms of employment for men, with sufficient income from shorter working hours.
- With the shift from traditional industries to the service sector it is important for young men to also consider a wider range of occupations, for instance in health and care fields (‘white jobs’) that boys may traditionally reject as ‘women’s work’. Therefore national education authorities should foster initiatives which support non-traditional career paths for boys. In cooperation with labour market stakeholders there should be particular efforts to recruit men for female dominated occupations as role models, conduct social projects which will encourage boys to choose female dominated occupations, endow special scholarships and internships, and raise the status of the caring professions through campaigns.
- Encourage men to change their attitudes towards gender equality. This can be done at national level by promoting men who are role models and ‘champions’ of gender equality and developing awareness raising campaigns on the labour market together with marketing strategies (labour market stakeholders together with national authorities).
- As organisations and enterprises across Europe are still favourable to men maintaining traditional male roles, European wide programmes and campaigns should foster gender equal workplaces.
- Comprehensive policy programmes should pay attention to strengthen labour market security conditions for young men and women (permanent, non-precarious employment).

Men, gender equality and care, family and households

Study results show a remarkable change in **men's** participation in **care** in certain parts of Europe (growing participation in caring for own children). Measured by men's share of care activities at home, the results of the study show that **'men do care'**. While an increasing desire to contribute to family life and childcare becomes obvious and household and family roles experience a period of adaptation, large variations in the gender division of paid and unpaid labour appear across European societies. In some regions of Europe (especially in Northern countries), men became more involved in care-giving roles between 2005 and 2010 (around 40% of men's share in the weekly unpaid working time in Finland, Denmark and Sweden, 2010). In the same period of time, decreases in men's share were reported especially for some Southern and Post-socialist countries with low share rates (around 20%).

A similar variation pattern is reported concerning **men's share of domestic work**. In contemporary Europe the men's share of domestic work is generally two times higher in the Northern and Central European countries than in Southern and Post-socialist countries.

The study shows that there is not one single causing factor associated with men's larger involvement.

- Despite national and cultural characteristics, men's share of care and housework varies **positively with education, but negatively with income**: men with higher education are more likely to do a larger share of housework compared to men with lower education. Men with high incomes are less likely to share equally, especially if their wives or partners have lower incomes.
- Furthermore, **men's norms and beliefs** play a role. Those with gender-equal norms (e.g. those who agree that domestic tasks should be shared equally) also participate more in housework and caring for children, whereas men with traditional expectations show lower participation rates.
- **Young men** are more likely to share gender-equal norms and expectations, which lead to higher participation in housework and caring for children.
- On top of that, **equal couple arrangements** (equal decision-making, balanced resource distribution) positively influence men's share of housework and caring.

Although men's share of caring and housework is increasing in many countries and can no longer be ignored, **Europe has not yet achieved a full balancing of men and women's domestic tasks and family involvement**. A closer look at Northern countries in Europe with higher male participation rates shows patterns that outline the woman as the person being mainly responsible for organising the family, and – somewhat less strongly – the man in a provider role.

The proportion of **dual earner couples with children** (both parents fully employed) varies across Europe, with higher rates in Post-socialist countries. This measure is by itself clearly not indicative of the state of gender equality. Although income balance is very important for gender equality in the household, full-time job balance is not clearly associated with gender equality at the national level. Other factors (politics, culture and family traditions) play their own role. Dual earner models are predominantly associated with gender equality *if* cultural, social and political patriarchy is dismantled.

Clearly, **gender equality policy and welfare regulations** influence the gender division of paid and unpaid work between couples. Family leave regulations, working time regulations, tax systems and institutionalised childcare systems support men's share of care and foster gender equality divisions of labour. If this support is lacking and if in reality the state or the economy still favours unequal family arrangements, gender-equal change will be delayed and progress will be more costly for the individual, for the family and for society as a whole.

Parental and paternity leave schemes vary greatly across Europe, and some types of reforms have a more positive effect than others (e.g. Iceland's **parental leave as a tripartite model**, with the right to a *non-transferable* paid leave period for mothers and for fathers).

The general state of gender equality as well as the **family policy** has a large **impact on men's choices** regarding care involvement in the family. Moreover, a policy to involve men in care can be developed, together with a policy to ensure parity or gender balance in economic and political top positions and redress imbalances that contribute not only to the discrimination of women in public life but also to the persistent lack of gender balance in the family sphere.

Care, family and household-related recommendations

- Implement a coherent system of parental leave: member states should be required to fulfil minimal obligations and to report results on uptake rates (for example, a 20% minimum of parental leave for the father).
- Policies concerning the role of men in gender equality should avoid pursuing contradictory directions (for example, labour market targets addressing the increase of women's participation rate while leave regulations implicitly focussing on traditional gender roles) through reforms in different areas. Coherent policy reforms on equality should give gender equal couples a chance for gender balanced caring.
- The 'Nordic' model of parental leave ('father quota') has been adapted and implemented with growing success. With clear strategies and considerations of both national and local specificities it should be adapted across the EU.
- The EU should support and strengthen the development of policies at member state level that explicitly reward parents of preschool children for a gender-equal balance of care, especially after the first parental leave period:
 - work time reduction (e.g. 80% for a period of two years from the child's birth provided that both the father and the mother take leave) without wage penalty.
 - tax bonus for parents whose gender pay gap narrows. Sweden has a system with a tax free gender equality bonus (up to € 1800 per child) which is given to parents sharing the caring work (parental leave days). Traditionally, single-earner families benefit from tax bonuses. An increase of benefits for dual-earner-couples is recommended.
 - extra leave for sick children if parents take it evenly-distributed in the initial year.

Men, gender equality and violence

The majority of all acts of **violence** (physical, psychological and sexual) are **committed by men**. These acts occur everywhere: in public places, workplaces and in intimate relationships. **Men's violence** towards women, children and other men **is rooted in the persisting acceptance of traditional masculinity**, linking men and masculinity to **power, competition and domination** instead of care and equality. These **imbalances of power between women and men** in societies have an important impact on violence as a gendered behaviour (**gender-based violence**). It is well known that the vast majority of perpetrators are men, but at the same time the victims of violence perpetrated by men are also men. While **women** are predominantly **victims of gender-based violence in the private sphere** (especially *Intimate Relationship Violence*), **men** are the most common **victims in public places** (which include streets, public transport, supermarkets, clubs, schools, playing fields, etc) and in the **workplace**.

Violence-related recommendations

The active role of men in preventing all forms of violence and in protecting victims is crucial, both at EU and national levels. This can be done in various ways:

- Promote non-violent masculinities by changing gender models (offering knowledge in schools and childcare centres, teacher training, providing violence-prevention material, involving role models, etc).
- Foster, improve and extend work with perpetrators (minimum standards and impact evaluation of perpetrator programmes, etc).
- Foster, improve and extend support for male and female victims of gender-based violence by taking into account the specific needs of both female and male victims of gender-based violence.
- Raise public awareness and create better knowledge also about types of violence that are most shameful for the victims (like sexual violence) or considered as being 'normal behaviour' and therefore not perceived as violence (like reciprocal man-to-man physical violence).
- Improve research of crucial issues: negative effects of crisis, homophobia, militarism, conflict, delinquency prevention and public security approaches.

Men, gender equality and health

Concerning men's **health**, the most significant results are that in all European countries the **life expectancy of women is higher than that of men**, (76.7 years for men compared to 82.6 years for women) and that large numbers of **men die prematurely**, with more than twice as many deaths a year as women throughout the working ages (15-64 years). Life expectancy is increasing for men as for women, and the gender gap is narrowing in many countries. For these indicators, age, class and education lead to great variations between men.

Generally speaking, **men's health problems** and premature mortality rates can in large part be seen as **a combination of social inequality** (in terms of class, education level, income, etc) and **one-sided socialisation patterns** towards toughness, paid labour and non-caring. From this perspective, men's health problems have been interpreted as 'costs of masculinity', as opposed to the advantages men gain from current gender relations in other areas (higher income, less unpaid work, domination in the decision making bodies, etc).

Premature death among the male working age population varies considerably across Europe. Men often have more hazardous occupations and are predominantly affected by **accidents in the workplace**. Moreover, men tend to accept **higher levels of all kinds of risks** as well as risky behaviour, for example smoking, alcohol consumption or high-risk sports.

Also, the rate of men who commit suicide is much higher than that of women (standardised death rate per 100 000 inhabitants 2009: 4.4 for women and 16.7 for men), with great differences across Europe: the most Post-socialist countries as well as Belgium, France, Switzerland, Austria and Finland show the highest rates.

Compared to women, the **lower rate of seeking medical and psychosocial help by men** is a detrimental factor for men's health. Causes for this phenomenon can be seen in male socialisation (lack of self-care behaviours) as well as in barriers to the accessibility of health services by men due to the structure of these services (for example availability of the services only during working hours, etc).

Reducing socio-economic differences, implementing measures towards redistribution of work and care, and working with youngsters towards establishment of changes in gender identities would improve men's health in the long run. Comprehensive approaches, which simultaneously take men's health, women's health, gender relations and social inequality into account, are needed.

Health related recommendations

- Increase knowledge and experience in the field of men's health for example by using male dominated settings, as football, in order to engage young male supporters with their physical health.
- Improve men's health by exchanging knowledge and good practice as well as implement policy initiatives which focus on the role of men in sexual health (for example screening programmes, educating boys in health issues and sexuality).
- Connect men's health to legislative practices such as effective road traffic legislation, smoking bans, more rigorous health and safety measures in the workplace.
- Develop measures to provide better opportunities for men as active carers. This would benefit not only men's own but also women's and children's health.
- Integrate an intersectional approach in men's health statistics in order to provide an in-depth perspective on relevant health determinants (class, education, etc) and conduct critical analysis of the impact of men's oppressive social practices on their own health and well-being as well as that of women and children.
- Support 'upstream approaches', which address fundamental causes of health (for examples reducing socio-economic differences) and 'downstream approaches', which are tackling immediate health problems (for example improving service provision).
- Apply a gender lens to Public Health. This would help to identify the relevant health determinants that create health inequalities.

Men and gender equality policy

Men are increasingly addressed and mentioned in the process of the further development of gender equality policy. Men's pro-active involvement is strongly connected with the countries' overall advancement in gender equality policies and practices, which leads to a great variety across Europe. This holds true for men's movements as well as men's institutionalised involvement in gender equality policy. Most examples of **pro-feminist men's initiatives** can be found in Northern and in some Central European countries, while in other countries these initiatives are rather limited: men are often engaged in women's movements, due to a lack of pro-feminist men's initiatives, or men are organised according to specific '**men's issues**' (like fathers' rights), which contains the risk of counteracting feminist visions of gender equality. Taking these national differences into account is crucial when reflecting on how to strengthen men's involvement in gender equality.

Some international and Europe-wide developments can be observed which might be an opportunity for strengthening men's involvement in gender equality – both on institutional and NGO levels. For example, gender mainstreaming seems to have created an initial awareness of the issue of men in gender equality and the establishment of some pathways towards institutional practice.

Policy-related recommendations

- Develop a balanced and coherent 'men and gender equality' policy embedded in gender equality policies at both national and EU level.
- Support the development and implementation of policy permanent structures on men and gender equality (like committees) or other forms of institutionalised practices (like an advisory board including men's and women's organisations).
- Establish national and regional quota systems for the electoral system to support a more equal representation of women and men.
- Strengthen the exchange between feminist theory, critical men's studies and policy in order to avoid simplifications about men and women as homogenous groups in gender equality policy.

- Conduct complex analysis on men and gender equality instead of limiting analysis on sex-differentiations.

Conclusion

From an overall perspective, men seem to have become more interested in gender equality in most of the countries addressed in the *Study on the Role of Men in Gender Equality* and – at the same time – the issue has increasingly been taken into account in politics in the past decade. Nevertheless, a great variation is to be noted: while Post-socialist and Southern European countries show a lack of institutionalised involvement of men in gender equality policy, Northern and Central countries are characterised by a more integrated perspective. In these countries a connection between men and gender equality policy and the countries' overall advancement in gender equality policies and practices is visible.

It is obvious that addressing men in gender equality policy is important in order to develop more equal societies. Explicitly naming men as driving forces and target groups in gender equality policies is therefore a first important step. In this perspective, the analysis of possible and already implemented changes (social structures, institutions and practices) as well as persistence relating to the role of men in gender equality are crucial issues. Therefore, the study reflects the multiplicity and complexity of these relations and underlines the most important analysis results.

Based on the study results, some key issues in developing policies are to be taken into account in order to improve the role of men and foster an integrated perspective. Both women and men should benefit from greater gender equality.

- A strong recommendation is to develop and implement gender equality strategies which include a set of measures to support and encourage men to devote more time and priority to the **reconciliation of care, home and paid work**. This is an important and challenging goal for all countries.
- **Gender equality policy programmes should be committed to achieving coordinated and sustainable actions to foster the role of men in promoting gender equality in Europe**. The gender mainstreaming approach should be implemented by addressing the needs of and impacts of policies on both women and men and the progress towards equality, and should better integrate the issue of **caring masculinity**.
- To avoid risks which are connected with involving men in gender equality strategies – for example mainly reflecting topics where men seem to be disadvantaged - a **close connection between critical, pro-feminist research on men, masculinities and gender equality with policies** is crucial. The concept and understanding of men and gender equality in government policy should be based on current research results and a balanced approach towards these issues, rejecting a general 'male-discrimination'-perspective.
- While usually much attention is paid to tackling gender differences, it is obvious that in some areas (for example education, health and work) differences between men are bigger than those between women and men. Talking about 'men' (as well as 'women') as a homogenous group can be misleading. Gender equality strategies which seek to strengthen and improve the role of men in gender equality need to integrate an **intersectional approach**. A perspective on social class, migration and gender is appropriate in order to adapt to gendered practices and patterns. In this respect elaborated and **evidence-based research**, on which gender equality policies can build, is crucial. While for most topics – like work, education, health, etc. – sex-differentiated data material is available at European and national levels, a lack of comparable data for intersectional analysis must be emphasised. Class as well as migration indicators have to be provided in order to allow complex in-depth analysis for additional subgroups.

Synthèse analytique

Introduction

Les rapports entre les femmes et les hommes ont évolué de manière considérable ces dernières décennies, et les politiques européennes liées au genre ont accompagné ces améliorations de manière productive. Pourtant, l'Europe est loin d'être une société où règne l'égalité des sexes.

Les politiques d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes ont longtemps été cataloguées comme «une question pour les femmes», étant donné que ce sont les femmes qui ont impulsé les stratégies d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, et qu'elles ont été perçues comme les uniques bénéficiaires d'une société plus égalitaire. Les hommes, vus comme «l'autre sexe», ont reçu moins d'attention dans le cadre de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes.

Ces dix dernières années, cependant, les hommes et les masculinités ont fait l'objet d'un nombre accru d'études et de politiques liées au genre dans l'UE. Dans le cadre de la présidence de l'UE, des conférences sur les hommes, les masculinités et l'égalité se sont déroulées en Suède (2001) et en Finlande (2006). La *Feuille de route pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes (2006-2010)*¹¹ encourageait spécifiquement les hommes à endosser des responsabilités parentales et à partager les droits aux congés avec les femmes. L'actuelle *Stratégie de la Commission européenne pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes (2010-2015)*¹² contient une priorité horizontale donnée aux rôles en fonction du genre, comprenant la nécessité d'impliquer les hommes dans les politiques d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et abordant les inégalités touchant les hommes - comme le décrochage scolaire, l'alphabétisation, et la santé au travail. En outre, des stratégies comme celle de l'intégration du genre semblent avoir généré une sensibilisation à la question des hommes dans l'égalité des sexes et la mise en place de certaines voies vers la pratique institutionnelle. Par conséquent, les stratégies contemporaines sur l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes ainsi que les études scientifiques devraient inclure tant les hommes que les femmes et prendre en compte l'analyse du rôle des deux sexes dans la promotion de l'égalité des genres, dans l'éradication des inégalités structurelles et dans le changement des rôles en fonction du genre.

Objectifs du rapport et méthodologie employée

Le rapport intitulé « *Étude sur le rôle des hommes dans l'égalité entre les sexes* » a pour but **d'enrichir les connaissances sur le rôle et le positionnement des hommes dans les questions d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes**. Les pratiques et intérêts des hommes concernant l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes varient, en partie à cause des différences de rôles de pourvoyeur de revenu et de circonstances économiques, mais aussi en raison des différents schémas culturels, politiques et sociaux. Ces dernières années, une attention particulière accordée aux hommes est notable sur la scène européenne et le nombre de recherche et de stratégies spécifiques ont augmenté. Malgré cela, les connaissances systématisées sont toujours peu volumineuses en ce qui concerne l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes dans les différents pays européens. Ce rapport est la **première étude euro-**

11 Commission européenne (2006). Feuille de route pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes (2006-2010), Bruxelles. http://www.untj.org/docs/country_context/gender/Gender_policies/EU-Gender_Equality_Roadmap_2006-2010.pdf

12 Commission européenne (2010). Stratégie pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes (2010-2015). <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0491:FIN:en:PDF>

peenne à mener une recherche systématique sur les 27 États membres de l'UE et les pays AELE associés¹³ dans les domaines suivants:

- L'importance de l'éducation et du travail dans le contexte de la contribution croissante des hommes à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes;
- L'implication des hommes dans les responsabilités liées à la famille, aux soins et au foyer;
- La santé des hommes;
- La violence sur base du sexe et;
- La participation des hommes aux politiques d'égalité hommes-femmes.

Le présent rapport offre des approches internationales permettant d'établir des comparaisons¹⁴ et mentionne les **coûts des rôles traditionnels liés au genre** ainsi que les **bénéfices générés par l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes**, en se concentrant en particulier sur le rôle des hommes et sur des pratiques innovantes.

Les principaux résultats servent de base à des recommandations développées afin d'améliorer le rôle des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes à travers l'Europe. Ces **recommandations** ont pour but de générer des changements au niveau structurel, un développement de mesures politiques et leur institutionnalisation, ainsi que des initiatives pratiques. Toutes ces idées et ces recommandations empiriques ciblent les décideurs politiques et d'autres parties prenantes aux niveaux Européen, national et industriel, afin de mieux concevoir et mettre en oeuvre les politiques d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes qui prennent en compte le rôle des hommes.

Une approche équilibrée sur les hommes et l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes

Lorsque l'on se concentre sur les hommes quand il s'agit d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, les femmes sont toujours incluses simultanément. **L'égalité des genres doit se pencher sur les deux sexes** afin de résoudre durablement les inégalités et déséquilibres patents en matière de genre observés dans les sociétés européennes. Aller dans le sens d'une meilleure conciliation travail-famille pour les hommes, par exemple, est non seulement une mesure de soutien aux hommes, mais aussi une étape importante pour établir une répartition plus égalitaire du travail non-rémunéré entre hommes et femmes.

Les modèles dominants de masculinités, à l'instar du concept de « masculinité hégémonique »¹⁵, sont contraires à l'égalité et à l'inclusion. Ces modèles sont constamment modifiés et soumis à des changements historiques, influencés également par l'évolution de la participation des femmes dans la société ces 50 dernières années. Les nouvelles configurations

13 En 2012, l'Institut européen pour l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes a publié le rapport « L'implication des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes dans l'Union européenne », dans lequel les auteurs s'efforcent d'identifier les acteurs pertinents (organisations, groupes et réseaux) dont le travail est perçu comme contribuant à une implication plus efficace des hommes dans la promotion de l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes.

14 Les concepts de groupements par pays basés sur la théorie, ainsi que les groupements définis par l'histoire et la géographie, ont été définis afin d'établir des résultats comparables plus compréhensibles. Les pays du sud, de l'ouest et du nord de l'Europe ont été séparés en groupes distincts. Sur la base d'un point de vue économique et politique, les pays dits « en transition » (du socialisme au capitalisme) en Europe centrale et orientale ont été définis comme pays « postsocialistes », en raison de leur passé commun en tant que pays socialistes. « Centre » : Autriche, Belgique, Suisse, Allemagne, France, Royaume-Uni, Irlande, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Pays-Bas ; « Nord », Danemark, Finlande, Islande, Norvège, Suède ; « Postsocialistes » : Bulgarie, République Tchèque, Estonie, Hongrie, Lituanie, Lettonie, Pologne, Roumanie, Slovénie, Slovaquie ; « Sud » : Chypre, Espagne, Grèce, Italie, Malte, Portugal.

15 Le concept de « masculinité hégémonique » peut être perçu comme une norme culturelle reliant constamment les hommes aux réussites liées à l'économie et au pouvoir. Cela est contraire aux concepts d'égalité et d'inclusion, mais impose également des restrictions considérables aux hommes. (cf. Connell, R. W., 1995 *Masculinities*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press)

des pratiques des hommes et des femmes ont des répercussions sur les ordres et hiérarchies des genres. **Le rôle des hommes est en pleine évolution et la « masculinité affective »** offre un modèle alternatif basé sur les rôles de soins des hommes au lieu du rôle de soutien financier. La « masculinité affective » existe déjà dans la vie quotidienne des hommes, lorsqu'ils prennent en charge des tâches de soin, au sein de la famille ou au niveau professionnel dans des professions « féminines » (comme les crèches), ce qui peut être considéré comme une contribution à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes. Traditionnellement, ce type de travail était catalogué comme « peu viril », mais la situation a changé au cours des dernières décennies. En outre, l'élargissement du concept de « soins » à celui de « soin de soi » (prendre conscience des questions sanitaires ou émotionnelles, amitiés plus profondes, prise de risque moindre, etc.) a un impact bénéfique direct sur les hommes eux-mêmes.

Les hommes forment un groupe non pas homogène (tout comme les femmes) **mais diversifié**, de par les origines ethniques, les capacités mentales et physiques, etc. Tandis que certains groupes d'hommes tirent plus de bénéfices dans les relations de pouvoir inégales, d'autres n'y voient que des inconvénients. Pour prendre en compte le rôle des hommes dans la promotion de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, il faut se concentrer sur les domaines dans lesquels les hommes sont en position de faiblesse et ceux dans lesquels ils sont en position de force.

Impliquer les hommes dans les stratégies et l'intégration des politiques d'égalité entre hommes et femmes comporte le risque de qualifier le genre par certains termes liés à la théorie traditionnelle sur le rôle des sexes¹⁶, reflétant principalement des sujets dans lesquels les hommes semblent être désavantagés (par ex. les droits de garde, l'éducation ou la santé), ouvrant la discussion antiféministe. Aborder l'implication des hommes dans l'égalité entre hommes et femmes en n'insistant que sur les désavantages des hommes mènerait à des suppositions très simplistes et erronées. Par conséquent, une hypothèse importante servant de fil rouge à l'étude est celle de **relier les politiques¹⁷ et études concernant les hommes qui soient critiques, progressives et pro-féministes, à la question de l'égalité entre hommes et femmes**, tout en rejetant la perspective de la « discrimination à l'égard des hommes » (mise en avant par exemple par les « groupes défendant les droits des hommes ») et les théories qui s'y rapportent¹⁸.

Afin de développer une **approche équilibrée face aux hommes et à l'égalité entre hommes et femmes**, il est important de prendre en compte ces aspects : démasquer les privilèges accordés aux hommes, se concentrer sur les relations dans le système du genre (au lieu de se concentrer uniquement sur les hommes) et reconnaître les divisions sociales entre les hommes. Les stratégies d'égalité entre hommes et femmes nécessitent des analyses complexes pour tirer les conclusions politiques appropriées. Ce rapport fournit des chiffres détaillés et se concentre sur les tendances pour offrir une base solide à ces analyses, et reprend également les résultats d'études critiques portant sur les hommes, les masculinités et l'égalité entre hommes et femmes.

¹⁶ Dans la théorie traditionnelle sur le rôle des sexes, celui des hommes est fondé sur la définition biologique et essentialiste de la masculinité. Cela implique un ensemble d'attentes qui définissent certaines pratiques et certains comportements, parmi lesquels nous pouvons souligner la force, le contrôle, la domination ainsi que la protection et la participation dans la sphère publique.

¹⁷ Les initiatives et politiques des hommes féministes soulignent le fait que les hiérarchies hommes-femmes contemporaines sont néfastes tant pour les hommes que pour les femmes, bien que les femmes restent le groupe le plus opprimé et que les hommes passent des avantages aux inconvénients d'être les représentants du groupe dominant.

¹⁸ Les approches sur les droits des hommes ne font que souligner les coûts de la masculinité et décrivent les hommes comme groupe social discriminé en raison de l'avancée du féminisme.

Principaux résultats

Les hommes, l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes et l'éducation

Les questions sur l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes dans **l'éducation** ont changé ces dernières décennies. Alors qu'à partir des années 1970 l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes dans l'éducation se concentrait principalement sur les femmes, le **resserrement de l'écart entre les sexes en faveur des étudiantes** ces dernières années a détourné l'attention vers **les résultats décevants des étudiants masculins**.

En moyenne, entre 2001 et 2010, le niveau d'éducation a augmenté dans les États membres de l'UE, tant chez les hommes que chez les femmes. Des chiffres plus détaillés montrent que la **hausse du taux de réussite scolaire dans l'enseignement supérieur chez les femmes est presque le double (14%) de celui des hommes (7.6%)**. En 2010, 30% de l'ensemble des hommes et 37% de toutes les femmes (dans l'UE des 27 et la zone AELE) âgés de 30 à 34 ans avaient obtenu un diplôme d'enseignement supérieur.

Plus des deux tiers des États membres de l'UE et des pays de l'AELE ont rapporté de **légères augmentations ou des taux stables concernant la réussite des hommes dans l'enseignement secondaire supérieur** (de 74% en 2001 à 76,2% en 2010). Une croissance similaire s'est produite chez les jeunes femmes. Les différences parmi les hommes semblent avoir un impact sur les taux de réussite dans l'enseignement secondaire supérieur : **les rapports montrent des taux de réussites inférieurs chez les hommes issus de l'immigration**.

La ségrégation entre les sexes est une caractéristique forte du marché du travail et se reflète dans l'éducation. **La majorité des filles et des garçons choisissent des filières éducatives traditionnelles** (les filles : les domaines du social et des soins ; les garçons : l'ingénierie, la fabrication et la construction). De fait, **le taux de participation des hommes dans les domaines de l'éducation, de la santé, et du bien-être a diminué sur la période allant de 2000 à 2009** presque partout en Europe. Les recherches ont identifié plusieurs raisons expliquant les taux masculins faibles dans les domaines de l'éducation à dominante féminine (par ex. des préjugés profondément ancrés sur les sexes dans les méthodes d'organisation, l'influence des parents, des professeurs et des pairs, et le manque de programmes d'orientation professionnelle soucieux de la parité entre les sexes destinés aux étudiants masculins).

Le taux de **décrochage scolaire masculin a connu une baisse légère ces dix dernières années mais il existe toujours un écart entre les filles et les garçons** : en 2010, 16% de l'ensemble des jeunes hommes (âgés de 18 à 24 ans) ont quitté l'école prématurément alors que le taux était de 12% chez les jeunes femmes. Il est intéressant de souligner que garçons et filles ont un niveau d'éducation plus élevé qu'auparavant. **Cependant, la classe sociale et le passif migratoire ont des conséquences notoires sur les performances éducatives**. Le taux de décrochage scolaire chez les migrants est considérablement supérieur à celui des non-migrants.

Le discours et les politiques publics sur l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes dans le domaine de l'éducation se sont énormément concentrés sur la « crise des garçons » ces dernières années. La discussion varie: certains arguments établissent largement un lien de cause à effet entre le sexe des professeurs (féminisation) et la sous-performance des garçons, tandis que d'autres arguments dénoncent l'école comme étant un système biaisé par la question du genre (stéréotypes sexistes à l'école, notamment dans les pays postsocialistes et du sud de l'Europe).

Les résultats du Programme international pour le suivi des acquis des élèves (PISA), publié en 2009 par l'OCDE, montrent des **écarts considérables entre les sexes en matière de lecture** (où les filles excellent par rapport aux garçons) et de mathématiques (où les garçons

excellent par rapport aux filles) et relèvent l'influence importante du statut socio-économique sur les résultats d'apprentissage. Une analyse qualitative met en évidence le fait que **la majorité des garçons issus de la classe inférieure s'attribuent des schémas de masculinité caractérisés par le rejet de l'engagement intellectuel, ce qui les empêche par la suite de réussir leurs études**. On peut considérer cela comme un facteur décisif dans le désengagement des garçons.

Recommandations en matière d'éducation

- Mener des initiatives et des campagnes destinées aux étudiants et aux professeurs afin de promouvoir l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes en se concentrant sur les garçons ayant des occupations atypiques à l'échelle nationale.
- Des stratégies d'apprentissage socialement inclusives, qui mettent en valeur les compétences et savoirs informels (par ex. l'écriture de chansons et de paroles, la danse) sont nécessaires pour maintenir les groupes désavantagés dans le système éducatif. Attribuer des récompenses aux écoles qui valorisent les compétences informelles permettra de consolider cette stratégie. Cela peut être encouragé par des programmes éducatifs dans l'UE et mis en application par les autorités nationales.
- Soutenir le développement de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et de normes sur la diversité (sexe, âge, classe sociale, migration, etc.) dans les institutions éducatives (au niveau de l'UE). À l'échelle nationale, les écoles devraient recevoir l'ordre de mettre ces normes en application (des objectifs et mesures d'égalité concrets qui soient surveillés, évalués et rapportés).
- Intégrer des programmes de sensibilisation au genre pour les professeurs et les étudiants, afin de les encourager à œuvrer contre la discrimination à l'école (au niveau national). Les compétences, les capacités et le savoir doivent permettre d'améliorer la sensibilisation aux stéréotypes sexistes, aux professions typiques selon le genre, et à la répartition du travail et des soins entre hommes et femmes.
- Mener une analyse plus détaillée des méthodes d'enseignement, des manuels scolaires et du matériel d'apprentissage afin d'identifier l'impact du matériel éducatif sur les pratiques genrées et les préférences professionnelles (aux niveaux de l'UE et des autorités nationales).
- Soutenir le développement de programmes spéciaux d'EFP¹⁹ (modèle de système éducatif double) afin d'augmenter les chances des groupes désavantagés de rester dans le système éducatif (au niveau national).

Les hommes, l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes, et le travail

Les **relations sociales au travail** représentent certains des aspects les plus fondamentaux des relations hommes-femmes ainsi que l'un des éléments les plus importants de la « construction » des hommes et de leur relation avec les femmes et les enfants. Le travail rémunéré a été et continue d'être une source centrale de l'identité, du statut et du pouvoir des hommes.

Sur la base des résultats de l'étude, une **convergence des caractéristiques basiques du marché du travail** entre hommes et femmes mérite d'être soulignée. Cette convergence est patente dans le **taux d'emploi**, où l'écart entre les hommes et les femmes a diminué de 5,2% entre 2000 et 2010, en raison de **l'augmentation chez les femmes** et de la **diminution chez les hommes du taux d'emploi** (en 2010, le taux d'emploi des hommes était de 70,1%, alors qu'il était de 58,2% pour les femmes). Cette convergence est plus faible en ce

¹⁹ EFP : Enseignement et Formation Professionnelle

qui concerne le temps de travail rémunéré (diminution de l'écart de 0,4% en raison de la réduction du volume horaire de travail hebdomadaire : pour les hommes : - 1,2 heure par semaine ; pour les femmes : - 0,8 heure par semaine).

La **crise économique** a eu au départ un impact plus fort sur les hommes et sur leur emploi, mais a touché plus fortement les femmes par la suite, en raison des réductions d'effectifs dans les services publics.

Néanmoins, la convergence croissante de l'emploi tant pour les hommes que pour les femmes est étroitement liée aux **crises touchant les secteurs de l'industrie à dominante masculine**. Chez les hommes, ce sont ceux des classes ouvrières, les hommes sans qualifications travaillant dans l'ancienne industrie manufacturière et dans les régions rurales, et les jeunes hommes qui ont été les plus touchés par les licenciements. D'après certains auteurs, la réduction de ces ressources traditionnelles a produit une « crise des hommes ». En réalité, les difficultés rencontrées par les hommes à s'adapter aux nouveaux défis économiques sont les suivantes : le passage d'un modèle de travail caractérisé par le **travail à temps plein et continu** à un nouveau modèle caractérisé par le **travail instable, flexible et discontinu**. Les **économies en mutation** – de l'industrie lourde et la manufacture aux secteurs des services à dominante féminine – ainsi que la **mondialisation** ont influencé les aspirations des hommes en matière d'emploi à long terme, car elles ne sont plus réalisables. Tout cela mène à une érosion du « modèle du soutien de famille masculin ».

En ce qui concerne la rentabilité de l'éducation, il existe un **lien évident entre les degrés inférieurs de l'enseignement secondaire et les taux d'emploi inférieurs**. La position précaire sur le marché du travail des personnes ayant peu de qualifications en Europe (en particulier dans l'industrie traditionnelle à dominante masculine) a empiré ces dix dernières années et risque de se détériorer dans le contexte de la crise actuelle.

Autre aspect, la division sexuée du travail est toujours visible: **les hommes ayant de jeunes enfants continuent d'avoir des taux d'emploi supérieurs à ceux des hommes sans enfants**, tandis que les femmes connaissent la situation inverse. La répartition inégale des tâches de soins dans la famille a un impact direct sur la ségrégation hommes-femmes car cela pousse toujours les femmes à choisir un emploi à temps partiel afin de concilier travail et famille, tandis que la majorité des hommes persistent dans des schémas de travail à temps plein.

Le travail à temps partiel reste une **forme de travail** à forte dominante féminine (31,4% des femmes contre 7,8% des hommes en 2010). Il est intéressant de souligner que les pays avec le moins d'heures de travail chez les hommes sont également les premiers en termes de taux de temps partiel chez les hommes (Pays-Bas, Norvège, Danemark). De plus, les écarts faibles du nombre d'heures de travail entre les hommes et les femmes coïncident avec des taux relativement bas de temps partiel chez les femmes et inversement.

Ces dix dernières années, les femmes ont fait une avancée spectaculaire dans certains secteurs traditionnellement dominés par les hommes, tandis que les **hommes** sont principalement restés dans **des professions traditionnellement à dominante masculine**. La proportion d'hommes dans les professions de soins se situait entre 8 et 20% dans les différents États membres de l'UE et pays AELE en 2009. Il est intéressant de souligner que les emplois à dominante masculine offrent de meilleures conditions (meilleur salaire, meilleure estime sociale, meilleure réputation professionnelle) que ceux à dominante féminine. Cette situation appelle à une restructuration des conditions de travail dans les postes traditionnellement occupés par les femmes.

En ce qui concerne la ségrégation verticale²⁰, des changements de rôles en fonction du genre pour les professions et les cadres intermédiaires ont été relevés dans certains pays

20 « La ségrégation verticale fait référence à la sous-(sur)-représentation d'un groupe de travailleurs clairement identifiable dans des postes ou secteurs situés en haut d'un ordre basé sur des attributs « désirables » - revenus, prestige, stabilité de l'emploi, etc. – indépendamment du secteur d'activité. La sous-représentation en haut des échelles spécifiques au poste est comprise dans le titre « ségrégation verticale », alors qu'elle est actuellement plus connue sous le nom de « ségrégation hiérarchique » (Bettio, F. & Verashchagina, A. [2009].

ces dernières années, tandis que des changements très lents s'opèrent aux plus hauts échelons de l'hierarchie des entreprises, de la science et de la technologie. Dans les entreprises les mieux cotées d'Europe, un conseil d'administration type de dix membres comprend une femme (dans 97% des cas le conseil est présidé par un homme). Certains pays ont déjà mis en application ou sont en train de négocier des mesures législatives afin de modifier ce déséquilibre dans les hautes sphères des entreprises (en Norvège, chaque sexe doit avoir une représentation de 40% minimum dans les conseils).

L'écart de salaire hommes-femmes – une question centrale dans la relation des hommes et des femmes avec le travail et la famille – persiste depuis plus de dix ans (UE 27 : 16,4% d'écart de salaire entre hommes et femmes non-ajusté en 2010). Les écarts se creusent dans les groupes d'âge plus vieux.

Le secteur public, qui emploie une proportion relativement élevée de femmes, a effectué dans de nombreux pays une **transition marquée vers des principes et pratiques d'égalité des chances**, souvent en avance par rapport au secteur privé. Le public offre des emplois classiques plus stables avec des horaires de travail plus réguliers, un revenu fixe, la sécurité sociale et des options permettant de concilier travail et famille. Les hommes (surreprésentés dans le secteur privé) courent davantage de risques de santé liés au travail que les femmes. Des études portant sur le lieu de travail confirment que dans l'ensemble, les hommes ont plus de difficultés que les femmes à avouer que leur emploi les rend vulnérables.

Dans les pays étudiés, un **lien empirique entre la satisfaction au travail et le temps de travail réel** est visible: les employés masculins de l'UE 27 sont plus satisfaits par leurs conditions de travail quand le nombre d'heures de travail hebdomadaire est inférieur: aux Pays-Bas et en Norvège (36,7 heures de travail hebdomadaire) ainsi qu'au Danemark (37,2 heures de travail hebdomadaire). Inversement, les pays avec les taux de satisfaction professionnelle les plus bas ont le plus grand nombre d'heures de travail hebdomadaire (Grèce : 42,6 heures de travail hebdomadaire).

Les attitudes des hommes sont lentement passées **du rôle exclusif de pourvoyeurs de revenus à un modèle intégrant les soins** (notamment la paternité) ces dernières décennies, alors que la majeure partie des entreprises ne changent pas leur vision sur les hommes. La plupart des entreprises reproduisent encore les rôles traditionnels liés au genre, dans la mesure où elles s'attendent à ce que les hommes consacrent leur vie au travail et que les femmes s'occupent des enfants. Par conséquent, des réglementations légales et formelles sont cruciales pour les hommes engagés dans les soins, car elles leur confèrent un sens évident de légitimité.

Recommandations en matière de travail

- Continuer de se concentrer sur l'intégration des groupes d'hommes marginalisés (classe ouvrière, hommes peu qualifiés et jeunes hommes) sur le marché du travail grâce à des programmes européens. Cela est réalisable, par exemple, en augmentant le nombre de projets sociaux destinés aux représentants des groupes d'hommes marginalisés.
- Encourager l'équilibre vie privée-vie professionnelle via des programmes politiques qui s'attèlent à augmenter les temps partiels, les partages de postes et d'autres formes d'emplois, choisis de plein gré et non-pénalisés, pour les hommes, avec des revenus suffisants lorsque les heures de travail sont moindres.
- Avec le passage des industries traditionnelles au secteur des services, il est important que les jeunes hommes envisagent également un éventail plus large de professions, comme par exemple les domaines de la santé et des soins (« emplois blancs ») que les garçons rejettent traditionnellement car ils les voient comme des « emplois de femmes ». Les autorités nationales chargées de l'enseignement devraient encourager des initiatives

favorisant les itinéraires professionnels non-traditionnels auprès des garçons. En coopération avec les acteurs de l'emploi, des efforts particuliers devraient être déployés afin de recruter des hommes pour des postes à dominante féminine afin de montrer l'exemple, de mener des projets sociaux qui encourageront les garçons à choisir des postes à dominante féminine, d'accorder des bourses ou stages spécifiques, et d'améliorer le statut et l'image des professionnels du secteur des soins grâce à des campagnes.

- Encourager les hommes à changer leurs attitudes face à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes. Cela peut être effectué à l'échelle nationale, en mettant en avant les hommes qui font figure d'exemple ou sont des « champions » de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, et en organisant des campagnes de sensibilisation sur le marché du travail ainsi que des stratégies de marketing (les acteurs de l'emploi conjointement avec les autorités nationales).
- Étant donné que les entreprises et les organisations à travers l'Europe partagent toujours l'idée selon laquelle les hommes doivent rester dans des rôles traditionnellement masculins, des programmes et campagnes à l'échelle européenne devraient encourager l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes sur le lieu de travail.
- Des programmes politiques généraux devraient veiller à renforcer les conditions de sécurité sur le marché du travail pour les jeunes hommes et femmes (emploi non-précaire, à durée indéterminée).

Les hommes, l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes ainsi que les soins, la famille et le foyer

Les résultats de l'étude révèlent un changement remarquable dans la participation des **hommes aux soins** dans certaines régions d'Europe (participation croissante des hommes s'occupant de leurs propres enfants). En mesurant la part des hommes dans les activités de soins à la maison, les résultats de l'étude montrent que **les hommes s'impliquent**. Tandis que le désir grandissant de participer à la vie de famille et aux activités des enfants devient patent et que le foyer et les rôles familiaux connaissent une période d'adaptation, des variations considérables dans la division hommes-femmes en termes de travail rémunéré et non-rémunéré apparaissent dans les sociétés européennes. Dans certaines régions d'Europe (notamment dans les pays du nord), les hommes sont devenus plus impliqués dans les rôles de soins entre 2005 et 2010 (près de 40% de la part de temps de travail non-rémunéré hebdomadaire chez les hommes en Finlande, au Danemark et en Suède, 2010). Sur la même période, on a relevé des réductions de la participation des hommes notamment dans certains pays du sud et postsocialistes qui enregistrent des taux de participation bas (environ 20%).

Un schéma de variation similaire a été relevé en ce qui concerne la **part des hommes dans les tâches ménagères**. Dans l'Europe contemporaine, la contribution des hommes aux tâches ménagères est généralement deux fois plus importante dans les pays du nord et de l'ouest que dans les pays du sud et postsocialistes.

L'étude montre qu'il n'existe pas de cause unique expliquant l'implication plus grande des hommes.

- Malgré les caractéristiques culturelles et nationales, la part des hommes dans les tâches ménagères et les soins varie **de manière positive en fonction de l'éducation, mais de manière négative en fonction des revenus** : les hommes avec un niveau d'éducation plus élevé ont de fortes chances d'effectuer une plus grande part des tâches ménagères par rapport aux hommes ayant un niveau d'éducation inférieur. Les hommes gagnant un salaire élevé ont moins de chances de contribuer aux tâches de manière égalitaire, surtout si leurs femmes ou compagnes ont des revenus moins importants.

- De plus, les **normes et croyances des hommes** jouent un rôle. Ceux qui respectent les principes d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes (par ex. ceux qui reconnaissent que les tâches ménagères doivent être réparties de manière égalitaire) participent aussi davantage aux tâches ménagères et s'occupent plus des enfants, tandis que les hommes ayant des attentes traditionnelles montrent des taux de participation inférieurs.
- Les **jeunes hommes** ont plus tendance à partager les règles et attentes d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, ce qui mène à une participation plus élevée dans les tâches ménagères et les tâches parentales.
- En outre, les **arrangements conjugaux égalitaires** (prise de décision égalitaire, distribution égal des ressources) ont une influence positive sur la part des hommes dans les tâches ménagères et parentales.

Bien que la part des hommes dans les tâches ménagères et les soins aux enfants augmente dans de nombreux pays et ne peut plus être ignorée, **l'Europe n'a toujours pas atteint d'équilibre complet entre femmes et hommes au niveau des tâches ménagères et de l'implication dans la famille**. Si l'on s'intéresse de plus près aux pays du nord de l'Europe qui connaissent des taux de participation masculine élevés, on remarque que les schémas définissent la femme comme la principale personne responsable de l'organisation de la famille, et – dans une moindre mesure – l'homme en tant que pourvoyeur de revenus.

La proportion des **couples à deux revenus avec enfants** (les deux parents travaillent à temps plein) varie d'un pays européen à l'autre, avec des taux plus élevés dans les pays postsocialistes. Cette mesure n'est pas en soi une indication claire de l'état de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes. Bien que l'équilibre des revenus soit très important pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes au sein du foyer, l'équilibre en termes d'emploi à temps plein n'est pas clairement associé à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes à l'échelle nationale. D'autres facteurs (politique, culturels et liés aux traditions familiales) jouent leur propre rôle. Le modèle de ménages à double revenu est lié d'une façon prédominante à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes *si* le patriarcat politique, social et culturel est démantelé.

Il est évident que la **politique en matière d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et les réglementations relatives au bien-être** influencent la répartition du travail rémunéré et non-rémunéré entre l'homme et la femme au sein du couple. Les réglementations sur les congés familiaux, sur le temps de travail, les systèmes fiscaux et les institutions d'accueil et de soins pour enfants soutiennent la participation des hommes et encouragent les répartitions égalitaires du travail entre hommes et femmes. Si ce soutien fait défaut et qu'en réalité la situation ou l'économie continue de favoriser des arrangements familiaux inégaux, le passage à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes sera remis à plus tard et la progression sera plus douloureuse pour les individus, les familles et la société dans son ensemble.

Les systèmes de congé parentaux et de paternité varient beaucoup en Europe, et certains types de réformes ont un effet plus positif que d'autres (par ex. le **congé parental** en Islande est un **modèle tripartite**, avec un droit non-transférable de période de congé payé pour les mères et les pères).

L'état général de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et de la **politique familiale** a un **impact considérable sur les choix des hommes** en ce qui concerne l'implication dans les soins au sein de la famille. En outre, il est possible de développer une politique visant à impliquer les hommes dans les soins, en parallèle avec une politique destinée à garantir la parité ou l'équilibre entre les femmes et les hommes dans les postes politiques et économiques de haut niveau et à combler les inégalités qui contribuent non seulement à la discrimination des femmes dans la vie publique mais aussi au manque persistant d'équilibre entre les femmes et les hommes dans la sphère familiale.

Recommandations en matière de soins, de famille et de foyer

- Mettre en application un système cohérent de congé parental : les États membres devraient être contraints de remplir des obligations minimales et de rapporter les résultats

du taux de participation (par exemple, un minimum de 20% de congé parental pour le père).

- Les politiques concernant le rôle des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes devraient éviter de prendre des directions contradictoires (par exemple, les objectifs du marché du travail concernant l'augmentation du taux de participation des femmes tandis que les réglementations relatives aux congés se concentrent implicitement sur les rôles traditionnels assignés à chaque sexe) grâce à des réformes dans différents domaines. Des réformes politiques cohérentes sur l'égalité devraient donner aux couples partisans de l'égalité hommes-femmes une chance de répartir également les soins entre l'homme et la femme.
- Le modèle « nordique » du congé parental (« le quota père ») a été adapté et mis en application avec un succès grandissant. Grâce à des stratégies et des considérations claires sur les spécificités locales et nationales, ce modèle devrait être adapté à travers l'UE.
- L'UE devrait appuyer et renforcer le développement de politiques à l'échelle des États membres, qui récompensent explicitement les parents des élèves de maternelle pour leur répartition égale des soins entre l'homme et la femme, surtout après la première période de congé parental :
 - Réduction du temps de travail (par ex. à 80% pour une période de deux ans à partir de la naissance de l'enfant, pourvu que le père et la mère prennent tous les deux un congé) sans pénalité sur le salaire.
 - Bonus fiscal pour les parents dont l'écart de salaire entre l'homme et la femme diminue. La Suède dispose d'un système de bonus d'égalité homme-femme exonéré d'impôts (jusqu'à 1 800€ par enfant) offert aux parents se partageant les tâches de soins (jours de congés parentaux). Traditionnellement, les familles à revenu unique bénéficient d'exonérations sur les impôts. Une augmentation des allocations pour les couples à deux revenus est recommandée.
 - Congés supplémentaires en cas d'enfant malade si les parents les prennent de manière bien répartie la première année.

Les hommes, l'égalité entre hommes et femmes, et la violence

La majorité des actes de **violence** (physique, psychologique et sexuelle) sont **commis par les hommes**. Ces actes se produisent partout : dans les lieux publics, sur le lieu de travail et dans les relations intimes. **La violence des hommes** à l'égard des femmes, des enfants et d'autres hommes **est ancrée dans l'acceptation persistante de la masculinité traditionnelle**, reliant les hommes et la masculinité au **pouvoir**, à la **compétition** et à la domination plutôt qu'aux soins et à l'égalité. Ces **déséquilibres de pouvoir entre les femmes et les hommes** dans les sociétés ont un impact significatif sur la violence en tant que comportement différenciant le genre (**la violence sur base du sexe**). Il est bien connu que la majorité des auteurs sont des hommes, mais dans le même temps, des hommes sont aussi victimes de violence perpétrée par d'autres hommes. Tandis que les **femmes** sont les principales **victimes de la violence sur base du sexe dans la sphère privée** (notamment la *violence dans les relations intimes*), les **hommes** sont les **victimes** les plus fréquentes dans les **lieux publics** (comprenant les rues, les transports en commun, les supermarchés, les discothèques, les écoles, les terrains de jeux, etc.) et sur le **lieu de travail**.

Recommandations en matière de violence

Le rôle actif des hommes dans la prévention de toute forme de violence et dans la protection des victimes est crucial, tant à l'échelle nationale qu'europpéenne. Il existe plusieurs façons d'y parvenir :

- Promouvoir les masculinités non-violentes en changeant les modèles hommes-femmes (en transmettant le savoir dans les écoles et les lieux d'accueils pour enfants, en formant les professeurs, en fournissant du matériel de prévention contre la violence, en impliquant des modèles, etc.)
- Encourager, améliorer et élargir le travail avec les auteurs de violence (normes minimales et évaluation de l'impact des programmes destinés aux auteurs, etc.)
- Encourager, améliorer et élargir le soutien aux victimes féminines et masculines de violence sexiste, en prenant en compte les besoins spécifiques des victimes de violence sexiste tant féminines que masculines.
- Sensibiliser le public et améliorer les connaissances également sur les types de violences les plus honteuses pour les victimes (comme la violence sexuelle) ou considérées comme « comportement normal » et par conséquent non reconnues en tant que violence (comme la violence physique réciproque d'homme à homme).
- Améliorer la recherche portant sur des questions cruciales : les effets négatifs de la crise, l'homophobie, le militarisme, le conflit, la prévention de la délinquance et les approches en matière de sécurité publique.

Les hommes, l'égalité entre hommes et femmes, et la santé

En ce qui concerne la **santé** des hommes, les résultats les plus marquants montrent que dans tous les pays européens **l'espérance de vie des femmes est plus élevée que celle des hommes** (76,7 ans pour les hommes contre 82,6 ans pour les femmes) et qu'un grand nombre d'**hommes meurent prématurément**, enregistrant plus du double de décès par an par rapport aux femmes tout au long de la période de la vie où l'on est en âge de travailler (15 à 64 ans). L'espérance de vie augmente pour les hommes et pour les femmes, et l'écart de genre se réduit dans de nombreux pays. Les indicateurs d'âge, de classe et d'éducation génèrent de grandes différences entre les hommes.

De manière générale, **les problèmes de santé des hommes** et les taux de décès prématurés peuvent en grande partie être perçus comme une **combinaison d'inégalités sociales** (en termes de classe, de niveau d'éducation, de revenus, etc.) et des **schémas de socialisation unilatéraux** encourageant la difficulté, le travail rémunéré et l'absence de soins. De ce point de vue, les problèmes de santé des hommes ont été interprétés comme les « coûts de la masculinité », en opposition aux avantages dont les hommes bénéficient dans d'autres domaines (revenus supérieurs, moins de travail non-rémunéré, domination dans les organes de prise de décision, etc.)

Le nombre de décès prématurés dans la population masculine en âge de travailler varie énormément en Europe. Les hommes occupent plus souvent les postes à risques et sont majoritairement touchés par les **accidents sur le lieu de travail**. En outre, les hommes ont tendance à accepter des **niveaux supérieurs pour tous types de risques** ainsi qu'à adopter un comportement à risque comme le tabac, la consommation d'alcool ou les sports extrêmes.

De plus, le taux de suicides chez les hommes est bien supérieur à celui des femmes (taux de décès standardisé pour 100 000 habitants en 2009 : 4,4 pour les femmes et 16,7 pour les hommes), avec de grands écarts à travers l'Europe : la majorité des pays postsocialistes ainsi que la Belgique, la France, la Suisse, l'Autriche et la Finlande enregistrent les taux les plus élevés.

En comparaison avec les femmes, le **taux inférieur de demande d'aide médicale et psychosociale par les hommes** est un facteur néfaste pour la santé des hommes. Ce phénomène peut trouver ses origines dans la socialisation masculine (manque de comportements incitant à prendre soin de soi) ainsi que dans les obstacles à l'accessibilité des services de santé par les hommes, en raison de la structure de ces services (par exemple l'ouverture de ces services pendant les heures de travail uniquement, etc.)

La réduction des différences socio-économiques, la mise en application des mesures tendant vers la redistribution du travail et des soins, et le travail auprès des jeunes vers un changement des identités liées au genre amélioreraient la santé des hommes dans le long terme. Des approches générales sont nécessaires : elles prendraient en compte à la fois la santé des hommes, des femmes, les relations hommes-femmes et l'inégalité sociale.

Recommandations en matière de santé

- Améliorer le savoir et l'expérience dans le domaine de la santé des hommes par exemple en utilisant des paramètres à dominante masculine, comme le football, afin de sensibiliser les jeunes supporters masculins à leur santé physique.
- Améliorer la santé des hommes en échangeant connaissances et bonnes pratiques, mais également mettre en application des initiatives politiques qui se concentrent sur le rôle des hommes dans la santé sexuelle (par exemple des programmes de dépistage, l'éducation des garçons sur les questions de santé et la sexualité).
- Relier la santé des hommes aux pratiques législatives telles qu'une signalisation routière efficace, des interdictions de fumer, des mesures de santé et de sécurité plus rigoureuses sur le lieu de travail.
- Développer des mesures afin de fournir de meilleures opportunités aux hommes de prendre soin d'eux-mêmes activement. Cela serait bénéfique non seulement à la propre santé des hommes mais aussi à celle des enfants et des femmes.
- Intégrer une approche transversale dans les statistiques sur la santé des hommes afin d'offrir une perspective approfondie des facteurs sanitaires pertinents (classe sociale, éducation, etc.) et conduire une analyse critique de l'impact des pratiques sociales des hommes opprimant leur propre santé et bien-être ainsi que ceux des femmes et des enfants.
- Soutenir des « approches ascendantes », qui s'attaquent aux causes fondamentales de la santé (par exemple la réduction des différences socio-économiques) et des « approches descendantes », qui résolvent les problèmes de santé immédiats (par exemple l'amélioration de la prestation de services).
- Observer la santé publique à travers un « objectif hommes-femmes ». Cela aiderait à identifier les facteurs de santé pertinents qui génèrent les inégalités sanitaires.

Les hommes et la politique d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes

Les hommes sont de plus en plus interpellés et mentionnés dans le processus de développement de la politique d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes. L'implication active des hommes est étroitement liée aux avancées générales des pays en matière de politiques et de pratiques liées à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, ce qui crée une grande diversité en Europe. Cela est vrai pour les mouvements des hommes ainsi que l'implication institutionnalisée des hommes dans la politique d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes. La plupart des exemples d'**initiatives d'hommes pro-féministes** se trouvent dans les pays du nord et dans certains d'Europe centrale, tandis que dans les autres pays, ces initiatives sont assez limitées : les hommes s'engagent souvent dans les mouvements de femmes, à cause d'un manque d'initiatives de la part des hommes pro-féministes, ou les hommes s'organisent autour de « **questions d'hommes** » spécifiques (comme les droits des pères), ce qui comporte le risque de contrarier les visions féministes de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes. Il est crucial de prendre en compte ces différences nationales lorsque l'on réfléchit à la façon de renforcer l'implication des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes.

Des avancées à l'échelle du monde et de l'Europe peuvent être observées, et elles pourraient être l'occasion de renforcer l'implication des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes – que ce soit au niveau des institutions et des ONG.

L'intégration de la dimension de genre semble avoir créé d'une part une sensibilisation à la question des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, et d'autre part, l'établissement de certaines voies vers des pratiques institutionnelles.

Recommandations en matière de politique

- Développer une politique équilibrée et cohérente sur « les hommes et l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes » qui fasse partie intégrante des politiques d'égalité tant à l'échelle nationale qu'européenne.
- Appuyer le développement et la mise en application des structures politiques permanentes sur les hommes et l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes (comme des comités) et d'autres formes de pratiques institutionnalisées (comme un comité consultatif comprenant des organisations de femmes et d'hommes).
- Mettre sur pied des systèmes de quotas régionaux et nationaux dans le système électoral afin de soutenir une représentation plus équitable des femmes et des hommes.
- Renforcer l'échange entre la théorie féministe, les études et politiques critiques sur les hommes afin d'éviter les simplifications sur les hommes et les femmes en tant que groupes homogènes dans le contexte de la politique sur l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes.
- Mener une analyse détaillée sur les hommes et l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes au lieu de limiter l'analyse à la différenciation entre les sexes.

Conclusion

D'un point de vue général, les hommes semblent s'intéresser davantage à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes dans la plupart des pays observés dans « *l'Étude sur le rôle des hommes dans l'égalité entre les sexes* » et, parallèlement, cette question a été de plus en plus prise en compte dans la politique ces dix dernières années. Néanmoins, nous pouvons observer de grandes différences : tandis que dans les pays postsocialistes et du sud de l'Europe l'implication institutionnalisée des hommes manque en matière d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, les pays d'Europe du nord et d'Europe centrale se caractérisent par une perspective plus intégrée. On peut observer dans ces pays un lien entre d'un côté les hommes et l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et de l'autre l'avancement général du pays en termes de politiques et pratiques liées à l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes.

Il est évident que s'attaquer à la politique d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes est important pour développer des sociétés plus égalitaires. Désigner explicitement les hommes comme moteurs et groupes cible des politiques d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes est donc une première étape majeure. À cet égard, l'analyse des changements éventuels et déjà mis en application (structures sociales, institutions et pratiques) ainsi que la persistance liée au rôle des hommes dans l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes sont des questions cruciales. Par conséquent, l'étude reflète la multiplicité et la complexité de ces relations et souligne les résultats de l'analyse les plus importants.

Sur base des résultats de l'étude, certaines questions clé dans le développement des politiques doivent être prises en compte pour améliorer le rôle des hommes et encourager une approche intégrée. Tant les femmes que les hommes devraient tirer des bénéfices d'une plus grande égalité de genre.

- Une recommandation forte consiste à développer et à mettre en application des stratégies sur l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes qui incluent un ensemble de mesures visant à soutenir et à encourager les hommes à accorder plus de temps et de priorité à la

conciliation entre soins, foyer et travail rémunéré. Il s'agit d'un objectif crucial majeur pour tous les pays.

- **Les programmes politiques sur l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes devraient s'engager à mener à bien des actions durables et coordonnées pour renforcer le rôle des hommes dans la promotion de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes en Europe.** L'approche fondée sur l'intégration de l'égalité entre les sexes devrait être mise en application en agissant sur les besoins et l'impact des politiques concernant tant les femmes que les hommes et sur la progression vers l'égalité, et devrait mieux intégrer la question de la « **masculinité affective** ».
- Afin d'éviter les risques liés à l'implication des hommes dans les stratégies d'égalité – par exemple en ne se consacrant qu'aux sujets présentant les hommes comme désavantagés - il est crucial d'établir un **lien étroit entre les politiques et la recherche pro-féministe et critique sur les hommes, les masculinités et l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes.** Le concept et la compréhension des hommes et de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes dans la politique gouvernementale devraient se baser sur les résultats de recherche actuels et sur une approche équilibrée sur ces questions, rejetant une perspective générale axée sur « la discrimination à l'égard des hommes ».
- Alors que l'on accorde beaucoup d'attention à résoudre les différences entre les sexes, il est évident que dans certains domaines (comme l'éducation, la santé et le travail par exemple) les différences entre hommes sont plus grandes que celles entre les femmes et les hommes. Parler des « hommes » (ainsi que des « femmes ») en tant que groupe homogène peut prêter à confusion. Les stratégies d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes cherchant à renforcer et à améliorer le rôle des hommes dans l'égalité des genres doivent intégrer une **approche multidimensionnelle.** Une perspective axée sur la classe sociale, la migration et le genre convient à une volonté d'adapter les pratiques et schémas basés sur le genre. À cet égard, la **recherche fondée sur des données probantes** et détaillées, sur laquelle peuvent se construire les politiques d'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, est cruciale. Alors que pour la plupart des sujets – comme le travail, l'éducation, la santé, etc. – les données différenciant les sexes sont disponibles aux niveaux national et européen, il est nécessaire de souligner un manque de données comparables permettant une analyse multidimensionnelle. Les indicateurs de classe et liés à la migration doivent être fournis afin de permettre une analyse en profondeur des sous-groupes additionnels.

Zusammenfassung

Einführung

Die Geschlechterverhältnisse haben sich in den vergangenen Jahrzehnten in hohem Maße verändert und die europäische Gleichstellungspolitik war an diesen Veränderungen maßgeblich beteiligt. Europa ist jedoch noch immer weit von einer geschlechtergerechten Gesellschaft entfernt.

Lange Zeit wurde Gleichstellungspolitik als ‚Frauenthema‘ betrachtet. Grund dafür ist der Umstand, dass es bislang vor allem Frauen waren, die Gleichstellungsstrategien vorangetrieben haben. Deshalb wurde der Nutzen einer geschlechtergerechteren Gesellschaft lange Zeit auf Seiten der Frauen verortet. Männer als das ‚andere Geschlecht‘ wurden im Kontext der Gleichstellung kaum berücksichtigt.

In den letzten zehn Jahren wurden Männer und Männlichkeiten jedoch zunehmend Thema von Studien und Gleichstellungsstrategien in der EU. Unter EU-Präsidentschaften fanden Konferenzen über Männer, Männlichkeiten und Geschlechtergerechtigkeit in Schweden (2001) und Finnland (2006) statt.

Der *Fahrplan für die Gleichstellung von Frauen und Männern 2006-2010*²¹ ermutigt gezielt Männer, Betreuungspflichten zu übernehmen und Karenzansprüche mit Frauen zu teilen. Die aktuelle *Strategie für die Gleichstellung von Frauen und Männern (2010-2015)*²² der Europäischen Kommission beinhaltet das Thema Geschlechterrollen als horizontale Priorität. Diese Priorität inkludiert die Notwendigkeit, Männern in Gleichstellungspolitiken einzubeziehen, vor allem mit Blick auf Themen wie vorzeitiger Schulabbruch, Alphabetisierung und Gesundheit am Arbeitsplatz.

Darüber hinaus scheinen Strategien wie Gender Mainstreaming eine erste Sensibilisierung für das Thema Männer im Gleichstellungsprozess ermöglicht und erste Schritte hin zu einer thematischen Etablierung in der institutionellen Praxis geschaffen zu haben. Zeitgemäße Gleichstellungsstrategien wie auch wissenschaftliche Studien sollten daher Männer und Frauen gleichermaßen betreffen und die Rolle beider Geschlechter bei der Förderung der Gleichstellung, dem Abbau struktureller Ungleichheiten und der Veränderung von Geschlechterrollen berücksichtigen.

Ziele des Berichts und Methodik

Der vorliegende Bericht *Studie zur Rolle der Männer in der Geschlechtergleichstellung* soll einen **besseren Kenntnisstand über die Rolle und Positionierung von Männern in Fragen der Gleichstellung** bereitstellen. Die Vorgehensweisen und Interessen von Männern in Bezug auf Geschlechtergleichstellung sind unterschiedlich, teilweise aufgrund von Unterschieden in der Wahrnehmung von Ernährer-Rollen und der wirtschaftlichen Verhältnisse, jedoch auch aufgrund unterschiedlicher sozialer, politischer und kultureller Muster. In den letzten Jahren wurde auf europäischer Ebene besonderes Augenmerk auf Männer gerichtet, was sich in einer Zunahme wissenschaftlicher Studien und spezieller Strategien abbildet. Dennoch gibt es nur wenig systematisiertes Wissen über männerbezogene Strategien im Gleichstellungsprozess in den verschiedenen europäischen Staaten. Der vorliegende Bericht vermittelt die Ergebnisse der **ersten europäischen Studie**, die eine **systematische For-**

²¹ Europäische Kommission (2006) Der Fahrplan für die Gleichstellung von Männern und Frauen (2006 – 2012) http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/employment_and_social_policy/equality_between_men_and_women/c10404_de.htm

²² Europäische Kommission (2010) Strategie für die Gleichstellung von Frauen und Männern (2010-2015) <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0491:FIN:de:PDF>

schung in den 27 EU Mitgliedstaaten und den assoziierten EFTA Staaten²³ in folgenden Bereichen durchführt:

- die Bedeutung von Bildung und Arbeit für die Rolle von Männern im Gleichstellungsprozess,
- die Einbeziehung von Männern in Familie, Betreuungs- und Haushaltsarbeit,
- Männergesundheit,
- Gewalt im Geschlechterverhältnis und
- die Mitwirkung von Männern an der Gleichstellungspolitik.

Der Bericht gewährt Einblick in internationale Ergebnisse, ermöglicht europaweite Vergleiche²⁴ und nimmt Bezug auf die **Kosten traditioneller Geschlechterrollen** sowie auf den **Nutzen der Geschlechtergleichstellung**. Dabei wird die Rolle von Männern vor allem mit Blick auf innovative Zugänge thematisiert.

Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie bilden die Basis für Empfehlungen zur Verbesserung der Rolle von Männern im Gleichstellungsprozess in Europa. Die **Empfehlungen** sollen zu Veränderungen auf struktureller Ebene, zur Entwicklung politischer Maßnahmen und deren Institutionalisierung sowie zu umsetzbaren Initiativen führen. All diese Ideen, Ergebnisse und empirisch fundierten Empfehlungen richten sich an politische Entscheidungsträgerinnen und Entscheidungsträger und andere Interessenvertreter und -vertreterinnen auf nationaler und europäischer Ebene sowie in der Wirtschaft, damit bei der Entwicklung und Durchführung von Gleichstellungsmaßnahmen die Rolle der Männer künftig stärker berücksichtigt werden kann.

Ein ausgewogener Zugang zu Männer und Gleichstellung

Die Auseinandersetzung mit Männern und Geschlechtergleichstellung bezieht immer auch Frauen mit ein. **Geschlechtergleichstellung muss beide Geschlechter ansprechen**, um vorherrschende geschlechterbezogene Ungleichgewichte und Ungleichheiten innerhalb europäischer Gesellschaften nachhaltig verändern zu können. Der Nutzen einer besseren Vereinbarkeit von Familie und Beruf für Männer ergibt sich nicht nur einseitig für Männer, vielmehr stellt diese unterstützende Maßnahme einen wichtigen Schritt hin zu einer gleichwertigen Verteilung von bezahlter und unbezahlter Arbeit zwischen Frauen und Männern dar.

Dominante Modelle von Männlichkeit – wie bspw. das Modell der ‚hegemonialen Männlichkeit‘²⁵ – sind nachteilig für Gleichstellung und Inklusion. Diese Modelle unterliegen historischen Veränderungen, u.a. beeinflusst durch die Änderung der gesellschaftlichen Rolle der Frauen in den letzten 50 Jahren. Neue Handlungsmuster und soziale Praktiken von Männern und Frauen führen zu Veränderungen in den Geschlechterbeziehungen, Geschlechterordnungen und -hierarchien. **Geschlechterrollen von Männern verändern sich**: anstatt der Rolle des männlichen Ernährers entwickelt sich immer stärker ein Modell der

²³ Im Jahr 2012 publizierte das Europäische Institut für Geschlechtergleichstellung den Forschungsbericht *Die Beteiligung von Männern an der Geschlechtergleichstellung in der Europäischen Union*, in welchem die Autoren/Autorinnen Akteurinnen/Akteure (Organisationen, Gruppen und Netzwerke) benennen, mit im Rahmen ihrer Aktivitäten einen relevanten Beitrag zur Rolle von Männern im Gleichstellungsprozess leisten.

²⁴ Theoriebasierte Länder-Cluster sowie geographisch und historisch gewachsene Cluster wurden definiert, um die Ergebnisse vergleichbarer und verständlicher zu machen. Geografisch wurden nord-, zentral- und südeuropäische Länder in verschiedenen Gruppen geclustert. Basierend auf der politischen und ökonomischen Perspektive wurden die sogenannten ‚Transformationsländer‘ (vom Sozialismus zum Kapitalismus) in Zentral- und Osteuropa als ‚post-sozialistische‘ Länder definiert, mit ihrer Vergangenheit als sozialistische Länder als verbindendem Element. ‚Zentral‘: Österreich, Belgien, Schweiz, Deutschland, Frankreich, Großbritannien, Irland, Liechtenstein, Luxemburg, Niederlande. ‚Nord‘: Dänemark, Finnland, Island, Norwegen, Schweden. ‚Post-sozialistisch‘: Bulgarien, Tschechische Republik, Estland, Ungarn, Litauen, Lettland, Polen, Rumänien, Slowenien, Slowakei. ‚Süd‘: Zypern, Spanien, Griechenland, Italien, Malta, Portugal.

²⁵ Das Konzept der ‚hegemonialen Männlichkeit‘ kann als kulturelle Norm gesehen werden, die Männlichkeit stets mit Macht und wirtschaftlichen Errungenschaften verknüpft. Dies ist mit Gleichstellung und Integration unvereinbar, schränkt Männer aber auch ein. (siehe Connell, R.W., 1995, Cambridge, UK: Policy Press)

‚(für)sorgenden Männlichkeit‘²⁶ als ein Alternativmodell zur ‚hegemonialen Männlichkeit‘, welches auch die Wahrnehmung von betreuenden, sorgenden, kümmernden Komponenten mit einschließt.

‚(Für)sorgende Männlichkeit‘ ist bereits Alltag vieler Männer, wenn sie Pflege- und Betreuungstätigkeiten, vorrangig in der Familie, aber auch im Rahmen von weiblich-konnotierten Berufsfeldern (z.B. Kindergarten) übernehmen. Die Übernahme dieser unterschiedlichen Rollen kann als Beitrag zur Geschlechtergleichstellung betrachtet werden. Traditionell wurden betreuende Berufe als ‚unmännlich‘ eingestuft, aber die Konnotation dieser Berufe hat sich grundlegend verändert in den vergangenen Jahrzehnten. Darüber hinaus hat sich mittlerweile eine breitere Definition des Begriffs ‚Care‘²⁷ etabliert, der auch ‚Sorge um sich selbst‘ (Bewusstsein für Gesundheit, emotionale Themen, tiefere Freundschaften, weniger Risikobereitschaft, etc.) einschließt, woraus sich ein direkter Nutzen für Männer (und Frauen) ergibt.

‚Männer‘ (und auch ‚Frauen‘) sind keine einheitliche(n) Geschlechtergruppe(n), vielmehr lassen sich deutliche Differenzierungen auf Basis anderer sozialer Merkmale wie Migrationshintergrund, körperliche und geistige Fähigkeiten, etc. ausmachen. Dabei wird deutlich, dass einige Gruppen von Männern von ungleichen Machtverhältnissen profitieren, während andere in höherem Maße von Nachteilen betroffen sind. Die Berücksichtigung der Rolle von Männern im Gleichstellungsprozess erfordert daher eine Fokussierung sowohl auf jene Bereiche, in welchen Männer benachteiligt sind als auch auf jene Bereiche, in welchen sie privilegiert sind.

Die Einbeziehung der Männer in Gender Mainstreaming und Gleichstellungsstrategien birgt das Risiko, in traditionellen Geschlechtertheorien²⁸ verhaftet zu bleiben, sich auf mögliche Benachteiligungen zu konzentrieren (z.B. Sorgerecht, Bildung oder Gesundheit) und/oder sich auf anti-feministische Diskussionen einzulassen. Werden ausschließlich mögliche Nachteile für Männer betont, würde dies zu sehr vereinfachten und zu falschen Annahmen führen. Daher waren die Anknüpfung an einen **pro-feministischen, progressiven und kritischen Zugang**²⁹ bei gleichzeitiger Ablehnung der von Männerrechtsgruppen postulierten Männer-Diskriminierungs-Perspektive (Männer als das ‚neue benachteiligte Geschlecht‘)³⁰ zentrale Grundvoraussetzungen für den vorliegenden Bericht.

Um einen **ausgewogenen Zugang zu Männern und Geschlechtergleichstellung** zu entwickeln, ist es wichtig, männliche Privilegien aufzudecken, sich auf die wechselseitigen Beziehungen innerhalb des Geschlechterverhältnisses zu konzentrieren (statt ausschließlich auf Männer zu fokussieren) und die sozialen Unterschiede innerhalb der Geschlechtergruppe ‚Männer‘ transparent zu machen. Gleichstellungsstrategien bedürfen umfassender Analysen, um zu angemessenen Schlussfolgerungen und Maßnahmen zu gelangen. Der Bericht liefert detaillierte Zahlen, bereitet Trends auf, um eine fundierte Analyse dieser zu ermöglichen und

²⁶ Für den englische Begriff ‚caring masculinity‘ gibt es keine adäquate Übersetzung, welche die Breite dieses Begriffs tatsächlich abdeckt. Im Englischen bezieht sich dieser Begriff auf unterschiedliche Dimensionen: sich sorgen/kümmern um Kinder, ältere Menschen, Kollegen/Kolleginnen, sich selbst, die Umwelt etc., aber auch im Sinn eines Bezogen-Sein auf andere. Als Annäherung an diese vielfältigen Bedeutungen im Englischen verwenden wir den deutschen Begriff ‚(für)sorgende Männlichkeit‘.

²⁷ Der englische Begriff ‚care‘ findet ebenfalls keine adäquate deutsche Übersetzung. Kontextbezogen werden im Rahmen der deutschsprachigen Übersetzung zwar verwandte Begriffe wie ‚Betreuung, Sorge, Pflege‘ etc. verwendet, fallweise aber auch der englische Begriff ‚care‘ belassen, um die Begriffsbreite zu erhalten.

²⁸ In der traditionellen Geschlechterrollen-Theorie basiert die Rolle des Mannes auf einer essentialistischen und biologischen Definition von Männlichkeit. Dies umfasst eine Reihe von Erwartungen bestimmter Verhaltens- und Handlungsmuster, wie beispielsweise Stärke, Kontrolle, Dominanz, Schutz und Teilnahme am öffentlichen Leben.

²⁹ Pro-feministische Männerinitiativen und Maßnahmen betonen die Tatsache, dass die zur Zeit bestehenden Genderhierarchien nachteilig für Männer wie auch Frauen sind, obwohl Frauen weiterhin zur stärker unterdrückte Gruppe gehören, während Männer als Angehörige der dominanten Gruppe zwischen Privilegien und dem Preis dafür oszillieren.

³⁰ Männerrechts-Ansätze unterstreichen nur (vermeintliche) Nachteile für Männer und beschreiben sie als jene soziale Gruppe, die aufgrund feministischen Fortschritts diskriminiert wird.

nutzt Erkenntnisse aus kritischen Studien über Männer, Männlichkeiten und Geschlechtergleichstellung.

Zentrale Ergebnisse

Männer, Geschlechtergleichstellung und Bildung

Gleichstellungsfragen im Bereich **Bildung** haben sich in den letzten Jahrzehnten stark verändert. Während sich ab den 1970er-Jahren die Gleichstellung der Geschlechter vor allem auf Frauen konzentrierte, führten die Effekte der Gleichstellungsbemühungen, respektive die **Erhöhung der Bildungsquote bei Frauen und damit die Verringerung des Gender Gap zugunsten der Frauen** nun zu einer anderen Zielgruppe von Gleichstellungsfragen im Bildungskontext: Das **schlechtere Abschneiden der männlichen Schüler und Studenten** steht derzeit im Mittelpunkt der Analyse.

Insgesamt kann ein Anstieg des Bildungsniveaus bei Männern und Frauen innerhalb der EU im Zeitraum von 2001 bis 2010 verzeichnet werden. Eine detailliertere Analyse zeigt, dass der **Prozentsatz von Frauen mit Hochschulbildung (14%) beinahe doppelt so hoch ist wie der von Männern (7.6%)**. Im Jahr 2010 hatten 30% aller Männer und 37% aller Frauen zwischen 30 und 34 Jahren (EU 27 und EFTA Staaten) einen Hochschulabschluss.

Mehr als zwei Drittel der EU Mitgliedstaaten und der EFTA Staaten verzeichneten einen **leichten Anstieg oder gleichbleibende Zahlen für Männer im Bereich der höheren Sekundarbildung**³¹ (von 74% im Jahr 2001 auf 76.2% im Jahr 2010). Ein ähnliches Bild zeigt sich für junge Frauen. Unterschiede innerhalb der Gruppe der Männer haben Auswirkungen auf deren Beteiligung an einer höheren Sekundarbildung: **Männer mit Migrationshintergrund** weisen geringere Beteiligungsraten auf.

Geschlechtersegregation ist ein deutliches Merkmal des Arbeitsmarktes und spiegelt sich auch in der Ausbildung wider. **Jungen und Mädchen wählen Großteils traditionelle Ausbildungen** (Mädchen: Sozial- und Pflegebereich; Jungen: Technik, Handwerk und Bauwesen). Tatsächlich hat der **Anteil von Männern in den Bereichen Bildung, Gesundheit und Fürsorge im Zeitraum von 2000 bis 2009 im Großteil Europas abgenommen**. Die Forschung nennt verschiedene Gründe für den geringen Prozentsatz von Männern in frauendominierten Ausbildungsfeldern (z.B. klare Geschlechterzuschreibungen und -erwartungen in Organisationen, Beeinflussung durch Eltern, Lehrerinnen und Lehrer sowie Peers, Mangel an geschlechterreflektierenden Berufsorientierungsprogrammen für männliche Schüler).

Die Zahl der **männlichen Schulabbrecher ist in den letzten zehn Jahren leicht gesunken, es besteht aber immer noch ein markanter Unterschied zwischen Mädchen und Jungen**: im Jahr 2010 wurden 16% aller jungen Männer (im Alter von 18 und 24) als Schulabbrecher verzeichnet, im Vergleich zu 12% der jungen Frauen.

Es ist anzumerken, dass Jungen und Mädchen besser ausgebildet sind als je zuvor. **Soziales Milieu und Migrationshintergrund haben jedoch einen starken Einfluss auf die Ausbildungskarriere**. Die Anzahl der Schulabbrecherinnen und Schulabbrecher mit Migrationshintergrund ist deutlich höher als die jener ohne Migrationshintergrund.

Der öffentliche und gleichstellungspolitische Diskurs zu Bildungsfragen hat sich in den letzten Jahren vorrangig auf die ‚Krise der Jungen‘ konzentriert. Die Diskussion wird unterschiedlich geführt: Ein kausaler Zusammenhang zwischen schlechtem schulischen Abschneiden von Jungen und dem Geschlecht der Lehrkräfte (Feminisierung) wird zwar in öffentlichen Diskussionen oft hergestellt, konnte bislang in wissenschaftlichen Studien aber nicht bestätigt werden. Fundierte Kenntnisse liegen hingegen darüber vor, dass Schulen Geschlechterstereotype häufiger verstärken als verhindern (geschlechterstereotypisierende Schulen, vor allem in post-sozialistischen und südeuropäischen Ländern).

³¹ Sekundarstufe II

Die Ergebnisse der OECD PISA-Studie 2009 zeigen **signifikante Geschlechterunterschiede** in den Bereichen **Lesen** (wo Mädchen die Jungen übertreffen) und **Mathematik** (wo Jungen die Mädchen übertreffen), verdeutlichen aber auch den zentralen Einfluss des sozio-ökonomischen Hintergrundes auf die Lernergebnisse der Mädchen und Jungen.

Qualitative Analysen belegen zudem, dass sich vor allem **Jungen aus sozioökonomisch marginalisierten Milieus an Männlichkeitsmustern orientieren, die durch eine Ablehnung intellektuellen Engagements charakterisiert sind**, was in weiterer Folge schulischen Erfolg verhindert. Dies kann als nachteiliger intervenierender Faktor für die Bildungsbeteiligung von Jungen betrachtet werden.

Bildungsbezogene Empfehlungen

- Durchführung von Initiativen und Kampagnen für Schüler/Schülerinnen und Lehrer/Lehrerinnen mit dem Fokus Jungen in untypischen Berufen auf nationaler Ebene.
- Förderung sozial-integrativer Lernstrategien zur Anerkennung informeller Qualifikationen und Kompetenzen (z.B. Songtexte schreiben, tanzen), um benachteiligte Gruppen von Jugendlichen in Ausbildung zu halten. Auszeichnungen für Schulen, die informellen Kompetenzen berücksichtigen, unterstützen solche Strategien. Dies kann durch EU Bildungsprogramme gefördert und von den nationalen Behörden umgesetzt werden.
- Unterstützung der Entwicklung von Gleichstellungs- und Diversity-Standards (Geschlecht, Alter, soziales Milieu, Migration, etc.) in Bildungseinrichtungen (auf EU-Ebene). Auf nationaler Ebene sollten die Schulen zur Implementierung dieser Standards verpflichtet werden (konkrete Ziele und messbare, überprüfbare Maßnahmen).
- Einführung von ‚Gender-awareness-Programmen‘ zur Bewusstseinsbildung für Lehrerinnen und Lehrern sowie Schülerinnen und Schülern, um der Diskriminierung in Schulen gegenzusteuern (auf nationaler Ebene). Kompetenzen, Fertigkeiten und Kenntnisse sollen helfen, das Bewusstsein für Geschlechterstereotype, geschlechtertypische Berufe und für die Aufteilung von Erwerbsarbeit und Betreuungs- und Pflegeaufgaben zwischen Männern und Frauen zu verbessern.
- Durchführung von Gender-Analysen bei Lehrmethoden sowie Lehr- und Lernmaterialien, um die Auswirkungen von Unterrichtsmaterialien auf geschlechtsspezifische Rollenzuschreibungen und berufliche Präferenzen aufzuzeigen (EU-Ebene, nationale Ebene).
- Unterstützung bei der Entwicklung von speziellen berufsbildenden Ausbildungsprogrammen (duales Ausbildungssystem), um die Chancen benachteiligter Gruppen für einen Verbleib im Bildungsprozess zu erhöhen (nationale Ebene).

Männer, Geschlechtergleichstellung und Arbeit

In den **sozialen Beziehungen rund um Arbeit** spiegeln sich grundlegende Aspekte der Geschlechterbeziehungen wider. Erwerbsarbeit stellt ein zentrales Element sowohl in der Konstruktion männlicher Identitäten als auch in sozialen Beziehungen von Männern zu Frauen und Kindern dar.

Die Studienergebnisse zeigen eine **Annäherung grundlegender Arbeitsmarktcharakteristika** bei Männern und Frauen. Deutlich wird dies vor allem bei der Erwerbsquote: Der Gender Gap hat sich zwischen 2000 und 2010 durch den **Anstieg der Frauenerwerbsquote und den Rückgang der Männererwerbsquote** um 5.2% verringert (2010 betrug die Erwerbsquote der Männer 70.1%, jene der Frauen 58.2%). Diese Annäherung ist geringer ausgeprägt, wenn die bezahlten Wochenarbeitsstunden berücksichtigt werden (Rückgang der Differenz um 0.4% aufgrund einer Reduzierung der wöchentlichen Erwerbsarbeitszeit bei Männern um 1.2 Stunden und bei Frauen um 0.8 Stunden).

Die **Wirtschaftskrise** hatte anfänglich stärkere negative Auswirkungen auf die Erwerbsarbeit von Männern, betraf in weiterer Folge jedoch Frauen überproportional aufgrund der Kürzungen staatlicher Dienstleistungen.

Dennoch hängt die zunehmende Annäherung der Beschäftigung von Männern und Frauen stark mit der **Krise in männlich dominierten Industriebereichen** zusammen. Männer aus der Arbeiterklasse, ungelernete männliche Arbeitskräfte aus der ehemaligen Fertigungsindustrie, Männer aus ländlichen Regionen und männliche Jugendliche sind zunehmend von Arbeitsplatzverlust betroffen. Einige Autorinnen und Autoren postulieren eine ‚Krise der Kerle‘ durch den Rückgang traditioneller Bereiche. In der Tat sind Männer mit zunehmenden Herausforderungen in der Anpassung an neue wirtschaftliche Gegebenheiten konfrontiert, bspw. mit der **Verschiebung von kontinuierlichen Vollzeitbeschäftigungsmodellen hin zu Erwerbsarbeitsmodellen mit diskontinuierlichen, flexiblen und unsicheren Bedingungen**.

Wirtschaftliche Veränderungen die sich in grundlegenden **Verschiebungen der Bedeutung von Wirtschaftssektoren** widerspiegeln – von der Schwerindustrie und Fertigung hin zum frauendominierten Dienstleistungssektor – sowie die **Globalisierung** verringern die Chancen von Männern auf sichere und langfristige Beschäftigungsverhältnisse. Dies führt letztlich zu einer Erosion des traditionellen Modells ‚männlicher Ernährer‘.

Hinsichtlich des Nutzens von Bildung lässt sich **zwischen geringer Schulbildung und niedrigen Erwerbsquoten ein Zusammenhang herstellen**. Die prekäre Position am Arbeitsmarkt hat sich in den letzten zehn Jahren insbesondere für Menschen mit niedrigem Bildungsniveau (vor allem in der männlich dominierten traditionellen Industrie) verschärft und wird sich wahrscheinlich im Zuge der aktuellen Wirtschaftskrise weiter verschlechtern.

Die Persistenz der geschlechterbezogenen Arbeitsteilung zeigt sich deutlich, sobald Betreuungspflichten virulent werden: **Männer mit kleinen Kindern haben nach wie vor höhere Erwerbsquoten als Männer ohne Kinder**, während für Frauen das Gegenteil zutrifft. Die ungleiche Verteilung der Pflege- und Betreuungstätigkeiten in der Familie hat einen direkten Einfluss auf die geschlechterbezogene Segregation, denn sie bringt Frauen dazu, sich für einen Teilzeitjob zu entscheiden, um Arbeit und Familie in Einklang bringen zu können, während Männer vorrangig in Vollzeitbeschäftigung verbleiben.

Teilzeitarbeit wird nach wie vor stark von **Frauen dominiert** (2010: 31.4% Frauen und 7.8% Männer). Ein Ländervergleich zeigt, dass die Länder mit den niedrigsten Erwerbsarbeitszeiten für Männer auch in der Männer-Teilzeitquote führend sind (Niederlande, Norwegen und Dänemark). Außerdem hängt eine geringe Differenz zwischen der Erwerbsarbeitszeit von Männern und Frauen direkt mit vergleichsweise niedrigen Teilzeitquoten von Frauen zusammen (und umgekehrt).

In den letzten zehn Jahren sind Frauen zunehmend in traditionell männlich dominierten Sektoren anzutreffen, während sich ein ähnlicher Effekt bei Männern nicht feststellen lässt. **Männer sind nach wie vor hauptsächlich in traditionell männlich dominierten Berufen anzutreffen**. Der Männeranteil in Pflege- und Betreuungsberufen lag in den verschiedenen EU Mitgliedstaaten und EFTA Staaten im Jahr 2009 zwischen 8% und 20%. Erwähnenswert ist in diesem Zusammenhang, dass Arbeitsplätze in männerdominierten Bereichen bessere Bedingungen bieten (höhere Entlohnung, soziale Wertschätzung, berufliche Anerkennung) als weiblich dominierte Arbeitsplätze. Dies bedeutet, dass die Arbeitsbedingungen in traditionell weiblich dominierten Berufen eine deutliche Aufwertung erfahren müssten, damit langfristig eine Veränderung der Geschlechterverteilung erreicht werden kann.

Hinsichtlich der **vertikalen Segregation**³² lassen sich seit einigen Jahren in manchen Ländern Veränderungen zugunsten von Frauen im mittleren Management und bei akademischen Berufen feststellen. Auf höheren Hierarchieebenen der Wirtschaft, Wissenschaft und Technik gehen entsprechende Entwicklungen sehr langsam vor sich.

³² „Vertikale Segregation bezieht sich auf die Unter- bzw. Überrepräsentation einer eindeutig identifizierbaren Gruppe von Arbeitnehmern bzw. Arbeitnehmerinnen in Berufen oder Branchen an der Spitze einer Reihenfolge basierend auf ‚wünschenswerten‘ Attributen - Einkommen, Prestige, Arbeitsplatzsicherheit usw., unabhängig von der Branche. Unterrepräsentation an der Spitze der Karriereleiter wurde unter der Überschrift ‚vertikale Segregation‘ subsumiert, während sie jetzt allgemeiner als ‚hierarchische Segregation‘ bezeichnet wird.“ (Bettio, F. & Verashchagina, A. [2009]. Geschlechtsspezifische Segregation am Arbeitsmarkt Ursachen, Auswirkungen und politischen Reaktionen in der EU. Luxemburg. Amt für Veröffentlichungen der Europäischen Union, S. 32).

In den börsennotierten Unternehmen Europas setzt sich ein typischer Vorstand aus neun Männern und einer Frau zusammen (in 97% aller Fälle ist der Aufsichtsratsvorsitzende männlich). Manche Länder haben bereits gesetzliche Regelungen erlassen bzw. diskutiert, die diesem Ungleichgewicht an der Spitze von Unternehmen entgegenwirken sollen (Norwegen: Jedes Geschlecht soll mit einem Anteil von mindestens 40% im Aufsichtsrat vertreten sein).

Der **Gender Pay Gap**, die geschlechterbezogene Einkommenskluft – ein zentraler Aspekt in der Beziehung von Männer und Frauen zu Arbeit und Familie – ist während der letzten zehn Jahre gleich geblieben (2010: 16.4% unbereinigter Gender Pay Gap in den EU 27), wobei in fortgeschrittenen Altersgruppen größere Lohnunterschiede zu verzeichnen sind als in jüngeren Gruppen.

Der **öffentliche Sektor**, der einen relativ hohen Frauenanteil aufweist, hat sich in vielen Ländern stark in Richtung Chancengleichheit bewegt und liegt darin oft weit vor dem privaten Sektor. Er bietet mehr Standard-Vollzeiterwerbstätigkeit mit regulären Erwerbsarbeitszeit, stabilem Einkommen, sozialer Sicherheit und der Möglichkeit zur Vereinbarkeit von Beruf und Familie. Im Vergleich dazu sind Männer (im privaten Sektor überrepräsentiert) arbeitsbedingten Risiken (insbesondere Gesundheitsrisiken) stärker ausgesetzt als Frauen. Arbeitsplatzstudien bestätigen, dass Männer generell zögerlicher als Frauen zugeben, dass ihr Job sie angreifbar macht.

Es besteht ein empirisch nachweisbarer **Zusammenhang zwischen der Arbeitszufriedenheit und der tatsächlichen Erwerbsarbeitszeit**: Männliche Beschäftigte sind in jenen EU Ländern am zufriedensten, wo die wöchentliche Erwerbsarbeitszeit am niedrigsten ist: Niederlande und Norwegen (36.7 Wochenarbeitsstunden) sowie Dänemark (37.2 Wochenarbeitsstunden). Im Gegensatz dazu weisen Länder mit hoher Erwerbsarbeitszeit (Griechenland 42.6 Wochenstunden) eine geringere Arbeitszufriedenheit auf.

Die Haltung vieler Männer hat sich in den letzten Jahrzehnten langsam **von einer eindeutigen Ernährer-Rolle hin zu ‚(für)sorgenden‘ Modellen** (v.a. aktive Vaterschaft) gewandelt, während Unternehmen ihre Einstellungen zu männlicher Erwerbsarbeit nicht grundlegend verändert haben. Die meisten Unternehmen perpetuieren traditionelle Geschlechterrollen, solange sie von männlichen Mitarbeitern erwarten, dass diese sich ausschließlich der Erwerbsarbeit widmen, während das unternehmerische Bild weiblicher Erwerbstätigkeit nach wie vor zumeist Kinderbetreuung impliziert. Daher sind rechtliche Regelungen für Männer die Betreuungsaufgaben übernehmen wollen entscheidend, weil sie Rechtsansprüche schaffen, deren praktische Umsetzung diskriminierungsfrei ermöglicht werden muss.

Arbeitsmarktbezogene Empfehlungen

- Ausbau von EU-Programmen zur Integration von arbeitsmarktfernen männlichen Gruppen (Arbeiterklasse, ungelernete und junge Männer) in den Arbeitsmarkt, beispielsweise mittels einer Erhöhung der Anzahl zielgruppenspezifischer Sozialprojekte.
- Förderung von Work-Life-Balance Programmen, die sich auf eine Erhöhung der nicht-sanktionierten und selbst gewählten Teilzeitarbeit, Job-Sharing und andere flexible Formen der Beschäftigung für Männer konzentrieren, mit ausreichendem Einkommen bei kürzeren Arbeitszeiten.
- Unterstützung von Initiativen zur Förderung nicht-traditioneller Karrierewege für junge Männer durch nationale Bildungseinrichtungen. Angesichts der Verlagerung von Arbeitsplätzen aus traditionellen Industriebranchen in den Dienstleistungssektor wird es zunehmend wichtiger für junge Männer, im Rahmen der Berufswahl auch jene Berufe zu berücksichtigen, die traditionell als ‚Frauenarbeit‘ betrachtet wurden, z.B. Berufe im Gesundheits- und Sozialwesen (‚White Jobs‘). In Zusammenarbeit mit zentralen Arbeitsmarktakteurinnen und -akteuren sollten u.a. besondere Anstrengungen unternommen werden, Männer in frauendominierten Berufen als Vorbilder zu gewinnen, Sozialprojekte zu initiieren um Jungen für weiblich dominierte Berufsfelder zu interessieren, spezielle

Stipendien und Praktika hierfür anzubieten und den Status von Betreuungs- und Pflegeberufen durch Kampagnen zu heben.

- Ermutigung von Männern, ihre Haltung zur Geschlechtergleichstellung zu ändern: Dies kann auf nationaler Ebene durch die Förderung männlicher Vorbilder stattfinden. Darüber hinaus sollen Sensibilisierungskampagnen und Marketingstrategien für den Arbeitsmarkt entwickelt werden (alle Arbeitsmarktakteurinnen und -akteure gemeinsam mit den nationalen Behörden).
- Da Organisationen und Unternehmen in ganz Europa immer noch traditionelle männliche Erwerbsrollen verstärken, bedarf es europaweiter Programme und Kampagnen für geschlechtergerechte Arbeitsplätze.
- Umfassende politische Programme sollten darauf ausgerichtet sein, sichere Arbeitsmarktbedingungen für junge Männer und Frauen (dauerhafte, nicht prekäre Beschäftigungsverhältnisse) zu schaffen.

Männer, Geschlechtergleichstellung und ‚Care‘

Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie zeigen, dass **Männern** in einigen Teilen Europas in zunehmenden Maß **Pflege- und Betreuungstätigkeiten** übernehmen (v.a. Betreuung der eigenen Kinder). Der Anteil von Männern an häuslichen Versorgungs- und Betreuungsleistungen zeigt: ‚**Men do care**‘. Während bei Männern ein zunehmender Wunsch nach Beteiligung an Familienleben und Kinderbetreuung offensichtlich wird, was sich nicht zuletzt in veränderten Haushalten und Familienrollen abbildet, zeigen sich große Unterschiede in der geschlechterbezogenen Aufteilung von bezahlter und unbezahlter Arbeit innerhalb der europäischen Gesellschaften. In einigen Regionen Europas (vor allem in den nördlichen Ländern) stieg der Männeranteil an Betreuungstätigkeiten zwischen 2005 und 2010 (2010: rund 40% der Männer beteiligen sich an der unbezahlten wöchentlichen Arbeitszeit in Finnland, Dänemark und Schweden). Im gleichen Zeitraum sank die Beteiligung der Männer an Betreuungstätigkeiten vor allem in einigen südeuropäischen und post-sozialistischen Ländern (rund 20%).

Ein ähnliches Bild zeigt sich in der **Beteiligung der Männer an der Hausarbeit**. In nördlichen und zentraleuropäischen Ländern Europas ist der Anteil der Männer, die Hausarbeit übernehmen, doppelt so hoch wie jener in südlichen und post-sozialistischen Ländern.

Die Studie zeigt, dass ein einzelner Faktor nicht ausreicht, um das stärkere Engagement bei Männern ursächlich erklären zu können.

- Ungeachtet nationaler und kultureller Besonderheiten **korreliert der Männeranteil in Betreuungs- und Haushaltstätigkeiten positiv mit dem Ausbildungsniveau** und negativ mit der Höhe des Einkommens: Männer mit höherem Bildungsniveau übernehmen eher einen größeren Teil an Versorgungsarbeit, verglichen mit Männern mit geringerer Bildung. **Männer mit hohem Einkommen bemühen sich weniger um eine gerechte Aufteilung der Betreuungsarbeit**, vor allem, wenn ihre Ehefrauen oder Partnerinnen über ein geringeres Einkommen verfügen.
- Darüber hinaus spielen **Normen und Überzeugungen** eine Rolle: Männer mit gleichstellungspolitischen Überzeugungen (beispielsweise, dass die Aufgaben im Haushalt gerecht verteilt werden sollten) beteiligen sich stärker an Hausarbeit und Kinderbetreuung, während Männer mit traditionellen Einstellungen eine geringere Beteiligung aufweisen.
- **Junge Männer** orientieren sich eher an geschlechtergerechten Normen und Überzeugungen, was zu einer höheren Beteiligung an Pflege- und Haushaltstätigkeiten führt.
- Hinzu kommt, dass **gut ausbalancierte und gerechte Arbeitsteilungsmodelle von Paaren** (gemeinsame Entscheidungsfindung, ausgewogene Ressourcenverteilung) den Anteil der in Betreuung und Hausarbeit aktiven Männer erhöhen.

Obwohl der Anteil von Männern in Kinderbetreuung und Hausarbeit in vielen Ländern unbestreitbar zunimmt, hat **Europa noch keine ausgeglichene Verteilung der Familienarbeit zwischen Männern und Frauen erreicht**. Ein genauerer Blick auf die nördlichen Länder in

Europa – mit höheren Männerbeteiligungsraten – zeigt das klassische Muster der Frau, die für die Familienorganisation zuständig ist, und – etwas abgeschwächt – den Mann in der Ernährer-Rolle.

Der Anteil der **doppelverdienenden Paare mit Kindern** (beide Eltern voll berufstätig) variiert in ganz Europa, mit höheren Raten in post-sozialistischen Ländern. Diese Maßzahl allein sagt noch nichts aus über den Grad der Geschlechtergleichstellung. Obwohl Einkommensgleichheit einen wichtigen Indikator für Geschlechtergerechtigkeit im Haushalt darstellt, lässt sich kein eindeutiger Zusammenhang zwischen der Vollzeiterwerbstätigkeit beider Elternteile und Geschlechtergerechtigkeit herstellen. Andere Faktoren wie Politik, Kultur und Familientraditionen spielen eine entscheidende Rolle. Eine Vollzeiterwerbstätigkeit beider Elternteile wirkt sich nur dann positiv auf Geschlechtergleichstellung aus, *wenn* gleichzeitig kulturelle, soziale und politische patriarchale Normen abgebaut werden.

Gleichstellungspolitik und wohlfahrtsstaatliche Regelungen beeinflussen die Aufteilung von bezahlter und unbezahlter Arbeit zwischen Paaren: Karenzregelungen, Arbeitszeitbestimmungen, Steuersysteme und staatliche Kinderbetreuungseinrichtungen können zur Erhöhung der Beteiligung von Männern an Betreuungsaufgaben beitragen und eine geschlechtergerechte Aufteilung der Arbeit unterstützen. Wenn diese Unterstützung ausbleibt, und wenn Staat und/oder Wirtschaft weiterhin ungleiche Familienmodelle favorisieren, verzögert sich der Prozess hin zur mehr Geschlechtergerechtigkeit. Zugleich werden diesbezügliche Fortschritte kostspieliger, sowohl für das Individuum als auch für die Familie und die gesamte Gesellschaft.

Karenzregelungen variieren europaweit sehr stark und einige Reformen sind wirkungsvoller als andere (so ist beispielsweise in Island die **Elternkarenz als ein dreistufiges Modell** geregelt, mit dem Recht auf eine jeweils nicht übertragbare bezahlte Zeit für Mütter und für Väter).

Der allgemeine Stand der Geschlechtergleichstellung sowie die **Familienpolitik** haben großen Einfluss auf die Entscheidung von Männern, Betreuungs- und Versorgungsaufgaben in der Familie zu übernehmen. Dies bedeutet auch, dass spezifische politische Regelungen zur stärkeren Beteiligung von Männern in Pflege- und Betreuungsaufgaben Änderungen an den realen Verhältnissen bewirken. Solche Politiken müssten abgestimmt sein mit Strategien zur Förderung der Geschlechterparität in wirtschaftlichen und politischen Spitzenpositionen und zur Beseitigung von Ungleichheiten, die nicht nur zu Diskriminierung von Frauen im öffentlichen Leben, sondern auch zu mangelnder Geschlechtergerechtigkeit im Bereich der Familie führen.

Pflege-, familien- und haushaltsbezogene Empfehlungen

- Implementierung eines einheitlichen Systems der Elternkarenz: Die Mitgliedstaaten sollten verpflichtet werden, Minimalstandards zu erfüllen (indem z.B. ein Minimum von 20% der Karenzzeit für den Vater reserviert wird) und über die Inanspruchnahme der Karenz Bericht zu erstatten.
- Maßnahmen zur Unterstützung der Rolle von Männern im Gleichstellungsprozess sollten aufeinander abgestimmt sein und damit die Verfolgung widersprüchliche Richtungen und Ziele vermeiden (z. B. Arbeitsmarktmaßnahmen verfolgen das Ziel einer Erhöhung der Frauenerwerbsquote, während Elternkarenzregelungen implizit die traditionellen Geschlechterrollen festschreiben). Abgestimmte Reformen sollten Paaren eine gerechte Aufteilung der Pflege- und Betreuungsaufgaben erleichtern.
- Das ‚Nordische Modell‘ der Elternkarenz (‚Väter-Quote‘) wurde bereits adaptiert und mit wachsendem Erfolg implementiert. Mit klaren Strategien und unter Einbeziehung nationaler und lokaler Besonderheiten sollte es EU-weit angewendet werden.
- Die EU sollte die Entwicklung von Strategien unterstützen und vorantreiben, die eine ausgewogene Aufteilung der Familienarbeit bei Eltern von Kindern im Vorschulalter honorieren, insbesondere nach der Karenzzeit:

- Arbeitszeitverkürzung ohne Lohnabstriche (z.B. 80% für einen Zeitraum von zwei Jahren ab der Geburt des Kindes, vorausgesetzt, dass sowohl Vater als auch Mutter dies in Anspruch nehmen).
- Steuerbonus für Eltern, deren Gender Pay Gap gering ist. Schweden hat ein System eines steuerfreien Gleichstellungsbonus (bis zu 1800 € pro Kind), für Eltern die sich die Betreuungsarbeit teilen (gemessen an jeweils in Anspruch genommenen Karenztagen). Traditionell profitieren Alleinerzieher und Alleinerzieherinnen von Steuervorteilen; eine Erhöhung der Steueranreize für doppelverdienende Paare wird empfohlen.
- zusätzlicher Pflegeurlaub für kranke Kinder im ersten Lebensjahr des Kindes, wenn beide Elternteile diese Tage gleichmäßig verteilt in Anspruch nehmen.

Männer, Geschlechtergleichstellung und Gewalt

Die Mehrzahl aller **Gewalttaten** (physische, psychische und sexuelle Gewalt) **wird von Männern verübt**. Gewalt findet überall statt: im öffentlichen Raum, am Arbeitsplatz und in Partnerschaften. Gewalt von Männern gegen Frauen, Kinder und andere Männer **fußt auf einem immer noch vorherrschenden, traditionellen Männlichkeitskonzept**, das mit Macht, Wettbewerb und Dominanz verbunden ist anstatt mit (Für-)Sorge und Gleichstellungsorientierung. Das **Machtungleichgewicht** zwischen Frauen und Männern in der Gesellschaft hat eine wesentliche Auswirkung auf Gewalt als geschlechtsbezogenes Verhalten (**Gewalt im Geschlechterverhältnis**)³³. Es ist bekannt, dass die überwiegende Mehrheit der Personen, die Gewalttaten begehen, Männer sind, gleichzeitig sind auch Männer Opfer von Gewalt, die von Männern ausgeübt wird. Während **Frauen überwiegend im privaten Bereich Opfer von Gewalt durch Männer** sind (vor allem, was die Gewalt in Partnerschaften betrifft), sind **Männer die häufigsten Opfer von Gewalt im öffentlichen Raum** (z.B. auf der Straße, in öffentlichen Verkehrsmitteln, Supermärkten, Lokalen, Schulen, auf Sportplätzen usw.) und am **Arbeitsplatz**.

Empfehlungen im Bereich ‚Gewalt‘

Es ist von höchster Wichtigkeit, dass Männer bei der Verhinderung aller Formen von Gewalt und beim Opferschutz eine aktive Rolle spielen, sowohl auf EU- als auch auf nationaler Ebene. Dies kann auf verschiedene Weise geschehen:

- Förderung von gewaltfreien Formen von Männlichkeit durch Veränderung der Geschlechtermodelle (Vermittlung von relevantem Wissen in Schulen und Kindertagesstätten, in der Ausbildung von Lehrpersonal, Bereitstellung von Materialien zur Gewaltprävention, Einbeziehen von Vorbildern, etc.).
- Förderung, Verbesserung und Ausweitung der Arbeit mit Männern, die Gewalt ausüben (Mindeststandards und Evaluierung der Effekte von Täterarbeits-Programmen, etc.).
- Förderung, Verbesserung und Ausweitung der Unterstützungsangebote für männliche und weibliche Opfer von Gewalt im Geschlechterverhältnis, unter Berücksichtigung der jeweiligen Bedürfnisse der weiblichen und männlichen Opfer.
- Sensibilisierung der Öffentlichkeit und Verbesserung des Informationsstandes auch über jene Gewaltformen, die für die Opfer besonders schambesetzt sind (beispielsweise se-

³³ Der englische Ausdruck ‚gender-based violence‘ wird hier unter Bezugnahme auf Hagemann-White (2008) mit ‚Gewalt im Geschlechterverhältnis‘ übersetzt. Dieser Ausdruck umfasst *„jede Verletzung der körperlichen oder seelischen Integrität einer Person, welche mit der Geschlechtlichkeit des Opfers und des Täters zusammenhängt und unter Ausnutzung eines Machtverhältnisses durch die strukturell stärkere Person zugefügt wird.“* (S. 8). Hagemann-White, C. (2008). Vorwort. In Forschungsnetz Gewalt im Geschlechterverhältnis [GiG-net] (Ed.), Gewalt im Geschlechterverhältnis. Erkenntnisse und Konsequenzen für Politik, Wissenschaft und soziale Praxis (pp. 7-10). Opladen, Germany: Verlag Barbara Budrich.

xuelle Gewalt) oder die als ‚normales Verhalten‘ gesehen und damit nicht als Gewalt wahrgenommen werden (wie wechselseitige körperliche Gewalt unter Männern).

- Mehr Forschung in zentralen Bereichen: negative Auswirkungen der Wirtschaftskrise, Homophobie, Militarismus, Konflikt, Kriminalprävention und Zugänge im Bereich der öffentlichen Sicherheit.

Männer, Geschlechtergleichstellung und Gesundheit

Zu den bemerkenswertesten Ergebnissen im Bereich Männergesundheit gehören die Tatsache, dass in allen Ländern Europas die **Lebenserwartung von Frauen** (82.6 Jahre) **höher ist als jene der Männer** (76.7 Jahre) und der Befund, dass doppelt so viele **Männer** wie Frauen im Haupterwerbsalter (15-64 Jahre) **vorzeitig sterben**. Die Lebenserwartung für Männer und Frauen steigt, und die Differenz in der Lebenserwartung der Geschlechter verringert sich in vielen Ländern. Variablen wie das Alter, das soziale Milieu und die Bildung haben aber einen großen Einfluss auf Unterschiede zwischen verschiedenen Gruppen von Männern.

Generell können die **Gesundheitsprobleme von Männern** und die Zahlen zu den vorzeitigen Todesfällen auf eine **Kombination aus sozialer Ungleichheit** (in Bezug auf soziales Milieu, Bildungsniveau, Einkommen, etc.) und eine **einseitige Sozialisierung** in Richtung ‚Hart-Sein‘, Erwerbsarbeit und ‚Nicht-Kümmern‘ zurückgeführt werden. Aus dieser Perspektive werden die gesundheitlichen Probleme von Männern als ‚Kosten der Männlichkeit‘ interpretiert, die den Vorteilen gegenüberstehen, die Männer aus der Geschlechterungleichstellung in anderen Bereichen beziehen (höheres Einkommen, weniger unbezahlte Arbeit, Dominanz in Entscheidungsgremien, etc.).

Die Zahl der vorzeitigen Todesfälle innerhalb der männlichen Bevölkerung im erwerbsfähigen Alter variiert in Europa beträchtlich. Männer haben oft gefährlichere Berufe und sind stärker von **Unfällen am Arbeitsplatz** betroffen. Außerdem neigen Männer dazu, höhere Risiken einzugehen sowie sich riskant zu verhalten, was z.B. Rauchen, Alkoholkonsum oder Risikosportarten betrifft.

Auch ist die **Rate der Männer, die Selbstmord begehen**, viel höher als jene der Frauen (standardisierte Sterbeziffer pro 100 000 Einwohner 2009: 4.4 für Frauen und 16.7 für Männer), mit großen Unterschieden innerhalb Europas: die post-sozialistischen Länder sowie Belgien, Frankreich, Schweiz, Österreich und Finnland weisen die höchsten Selbstmordraten auf.

Verglichen mit Frauen nehmen Männer **weniger medizinische und psychosoziale Hilfe** in Anspruch, was sich negativ auf die Gesundheit von Männern auswirkt. Ursachen für dieses Phänomen können in der männlichen Sozialisation (Mangel an vorsorglichem Verhalten für die eigene Person) gefunden werden, aber auch in Zugangsbarrieren für Männer zu Gesundheitsdiensten (aufgrund der Struktur dieser Dienste, z.B. bei Verfügbarkeit nur während der Arbeitszeit, etc.).

Eine Verringerung von sozioökonomischen Unterschieden, Maßnahmen zur Umverteilung von Erwerbsarbeit und unbezahlter Versorgungsarbeit sowie geschlechterreflektierende Arbeit mit Jugendlichen würde die Gesundheit von Männern auf lange Sicht verbessern. Es bedarf ganzheitlicher Ansätze, die gleichzeitig Männergesundheit, Frauengesundheit, Geschlechter-Beziehungen und soziale Ungleichheit berücksichtigen.

Gesundheitsbezogene Empfehlungen

- Verbesserung der Wissensbasis über Männergesundheit und Sammlung von Erfahrungen, indem z.B. in Settings gearbeitet wird, die von Männern dominiert werden, wie Fußball, um junge männliche Fans für das Thema körperliche Gesundheit zu gewinnen.
- Förderung der Männergesundheit durch Austausch von Wissen und Good-Practice-Beispielen sowie durch die Umsetzung von Initiativen im Bereich ‚Männer und sexuelle

Gesundheit' (z.B. Screening-Programme, Schulung von Jungen in Fragen der Gesundheit und Sexualität).

- Verbindung von Männergesundheit und gesetzlichen Maßnahmen wie z.B. effektive Verkehrsgesetzgebung, Rauchverbote, strengere Sicherheitsmaßnahmen und Gesundheitsschutz am Arbeitsplatz.
- Entwicklung von Maßnahmen zur Förderung einer aktiven (Für-)Sorge von Männern für sich und andere. Dies käme nicht nur den Männern selbst, sondern auch der Gesundheit von Frauen und Kindern zugute.
- Integration eines intersektionalen Ansatzes im Bereich der Gesundheitsstatistik, um bei der Analyse von relevanten Gesundheitsdeterminanten für Männer (soziales Milieu, Bildung, etc.) mehr in die Tiefe gehen zu können. Durchführung kritischer Analysen zu den Auswirkungen gewaltsamer sozialer Handlungsmuster von Männern auf die Gesundheit und das Wohlbefinden von Frauen, Kindern und Männern selbst.
- Unterstützung von sogenannten ‚Upstream‘-Ansätzen, die grundlegende Ursachen von Gesundheit in den Blick nehmen (z.B. Verringerung der sozioökonomischen Unterschiede), sowie von sogenannten ‚Downstream‘-Ansätzen, die mit unmittelbaren gesundheitlichen Problemen zu tun haben (z. B. Verbesserung der Gesundheitsdienste).
- Durch eine geschlechtsbezogene Perspektive auf das öffentliche Gesundheitssystem könnten relevante Determinanten für Ungleichheiten im Bereich Gesundheit besser identifiziert werden.

Männer und Geschlechtergleichstellungsmaßnahmen

Im Prozess der Weiterentwicklung der Gleichstellungspolitik werden Männer zunehmend berücksichtigt und angesprochen. Die aktive Beteiligung von Männern hängt allerdings stark mit den Fortschritten im Bereich der Gleichstellungspolitik eines Landes insgesamt zusammen, was zu großen Unterschieden innerhalb Europas führt. Dies gilt für die Männerbewegungen ebenso wie für die institutionalisierte Beteiligung von Männern an der Gleichstellungspolitik.

Die meisten Beispiele für **pro-feministische Männerinitiativen** finden sich in nördlichen und einigen zentraleuropäischen Ländern, während diese Initiativen in anderen Ländern eher selten vorkommen: Männer sind dann aufgrund mangelnder pro-feministischer Männerinitiativen oft in Frauenbewegungen tätig, oder es bilden sich Männerorganisationen rund um spezielle „**Männerthemen**“ (wie Väterrechte), was das Risiko in sich birgt, feministische Leitideen in Richtung Geschlechtergerechtigkeit zu untergraben. Es ist wichtig, diese nationalen Unterschiede mitzudenken, wenn es darum geht, wie Männer stärker in die Gleichstellungsfrage einbezogen werden können. Es lassen sich einige internationale und europaweite Entwicklungen beobachten, die Chancen für einen verstärkten Einbezug von Männern in die Geschlechtergleichstellung darstellen, sowohl auf institutioneller als auch auf NGO-Ebene. So scheint z.B. Gender Mainstreaming ein grundsätzliches Bewusstsein für das Thema Männer und Geschlechtergleichstellung geschaffen zu haben, und einige Entwicklungen in Richtung institutioneller Praxis wurden angestoßen.

Empfehlungen für die Gleichstellungspolitik

- Entwicklung einer ausgewogenen und kohärenten ‚Männer- und Gleichstellungs-Politik‘, die in bestehende Gleichstellungsstrategien auf nationaler und EU-Ebene eingebettet ist.
- Entwicklung und Implementierung dauerhafter Strukturen im Bereich ‚Männer und Geschlechtergleichstellung‘ (wie z.B. Ausschüsse) oder andere Formen institutionalisierter Praktiken (z.B. Beiräte, die aus Männer- und Frauenorganisationen zusammengesetzt sind).
- Einführung nationaler und regionaler Quotenregelungen in das Wahlsystem, um eine gleichberechtigte Vertretung von Frauen und Männern zu unterstützen.

- Stärkung des Austauschs zwischen feministischer Theorie, kritischen Männerstudien und Politik, um verkürzten Denkmustern von ‚Männern‘ und ‚Frauen‘ als jeweils homogenen Gruppen in der Gleichstellungspolitik entgegenzuwirken.
- Durchführung differenzierter Analysen im Bereich Männer und Geschlechtergleichstellung anstatt Genderanalysen auf die Gegenüberstellung von Männern und Frauen zu reduzieren.

Schlussfolgerungen

Insgesamt zeigt die *Studie zur Rolle der Männer in der Geschlechtergleichstellung*, dass Männer in den meisten Ländern der EU vermehrt an Gleichstellung interessiert sind. Gleichzeitig wurde das Thema Männer und Gleichstellung im letzten Jahrzehnt verstärkt von der Politik aufgegriffen.

Dennoch zeigen sich große Unterschiede im Ländervergleich: während in post-sozialistischen und südeuropäischen Ländern eine geringe Einbeziehung von Männern in der Gleichstellungspolitik vorherrscht, nehmen nördliche und zentraleuropäische Staaten eine ganzheitlichere Perspektive ein. In diesen Ländern ist ein Zusammenhang zwischen der Einbeziehung von Männern in die Gleichstellungspolitik und den allgemeinen Fortschritten im Bereich der Gleichstellungspolitik feststellbar.

Es wird deutlich, dass eine Einbeziehung von Männern in die Gleichstellungspolitik unerlässlich ist, um eine geschlechtergerechte Gesellschaft zu fördern. Ein erster zentraler Schritt ist es daher, Männer als treibende Kraft und als Zielgruppe im Prozess der Gleichstellung zu benennen. Aus dieser Sichtweise heraus ist es entscheidend, mögliche und bereits umgesetzte Veränderungen (soziale Strukturen, Institutionen und Maßnahmen) mit Blick auf Männer und Gleichstellung einerseits und dem Fortbestand bestehender Ungleichheitsstrukturen andererseits zu analysieren. Daher spiegelt die Studie die Vielfalt und Komplexität dieser Beziehungen wider und unterstreicht die wichtigsten Analyseergebnisse. Basierend auf den Ergebnissen der Studie sind bei der Entwicklung von Maßnahmen einige Schlüsselfragen zu berücksichtigen, um die Rolle der Männer zu verbessern und eine ganzheitliche Perspektive zu fördern, damit sowohl Frauen als auch Männer von mehr Gleichstellung profitieren.

- Eine zentrale Empfehlung ist die Entwicklung und Umsetzung von Gleichstellungsstrategien, die Männer dazu ermutigen und darin unterstützen soll, mehr Zeit und Priorität der **Vereinbarkeit von Betreuungsarbeit, Hausarbeit und Erwerbsarbeit** zu widmen. Dies ist ein wichtiges und anspruchsvolles Ziel für alle Länder.
- Innerhalb von **Gleichstellungspolitikprogrammen sollten koordinierte und nachhaltige Aktionen gesetzt werden, um die Rolle der Männer im Gleichstellungsprozess in Europa voranzutreiben**. Die Umsetzung des Gender-Mainstreaming-Ansatzes sollte so erfolgen, dass auf die Bedürfnisse beider Geschlechter eingegangen wird. Gleichzeitig sollten Gleichstellungsmaßnahmen und -politiken geschlechterbezogenen Effekte berücksichtigen und deren gleichstellungspolitische Wirkungen sollte insbesondere mit Blick auf die Stärkung der Versorgungs-, Betreuungs- und Pfllegetätigkeiten bei Männern (‚caring masculinity‘) geprüft werden.
- Um Risiken, die mit Einbeziehung der Männer in der Gleichstellungspolitik verbunden sind, zu vermeiden – zum Beispiel vorrangige Behandlung von Themen, bei denen Männer oberflächlich betrachtet benachteiligt werden – ist eine **enge Verknüpfung von kritischer, pro-feministischer Männer- und Männlichkeitsforschung mit Gleichstellungsstrategien und -politiken** entscheidend. Das Verständnis von Männern und Gleichstellung in der Politik soll auf aktuellen Forschungsergebnissen und einem ausgewogenen Zugang zum Thema basieren, um zu verhindern, dass Männer als das ‚neue diskriminierte Geschlecht‘ betrachtet werden.
- Während in der Regel viel Aufmerksamkeit auf die Bearbeitung geschlechtsbezogener Unterschiede gelegt wird, ist es offensichtlich, dass in einigen Bereichen (z.B. Bildung, Gesundheit und Arbeit) die Unterschiede innerhalb der Gruppe der Männer größer sind als die zwischen Frauen und Männern. ‚Männer‘ (bzw. ‚Frauen‘) als eine homogene

Gruppe(n) zu adressieren kann irreführend sein. Gleichstellungsstrategien zur Stärkung und Verbesserung der Rolle der Männer müssen auf einem **intersektionalen Zugang** beruhen. Die Einbeziehung von sozialem Milieu, Migrationshintergrund und Geschlecht sind notwendig, um geschlechterbezogene Strukturen und Muster transparent zu machen und Geschlechterdisparitäten bearbeiten zu können. Deshalb bildet **evidenzbasierte Forschungen** eine entscheidende Grundlage für die Entwicklung von Gleichstellungsmaßnahmen. Während für die meisten Themen – wie Arbeit, Bildung, Gesundheit etc. – geschlechterdifferenzierte Daten auf europäischer und nationaler Ebene zur Verfügung stehen, muss auf den Mangel an vergleichbaren Daten für intersektionale Analysen hingewiesen werden. Indikatoren zu sozialer Herkunft und Migration müssen verfügbar sein, um komplexe Analysen für weitere Untergruppen zu ermöglichen.

1 Introduction

1.1 The role of men and the European gender equality environment

In terms of gender equality and beyond, European societies face significant challenges in the ongoing economic and financial crisis. In 2010 the *European Parliament* adopted a resolution³⁴ on gender aspects of the economic downturn and financial crisis. It stated that **women and men are hit differently by the crisis**: women more in terms of holding less secure jobs, men more in terms of the impact on male dominated jobs in car and construction industries. The resolution also discusses the gender gap in decision making of a male dominated financial sector as a background of the crisis. It points out that the **economic downturn**, which might endanger gender equality achievements both economically and politically, on the contrary **calls for an even stronger commitment to gender equality**. Thus, “[...] *the recession can be used as a unique opportunity to make economic and social policies more gender-inclusive and to move towards creating a more gender-equal society.*” (European Parliament, 2010, paragraph 18) Two main messages clearly stand out: the crisis may be an opportunity instead of a threat if we make use of it, and a perspective on men is relevant here.

In the past decade the **role of men has emerged as a relevant topic of the EU policy** on gender equality.³⁵ Already under Sweden’s EU presidency, the first *EU Conference on Men and Equality* was held at Örebro in March 2001, stressing the need to reach out to men in developing gender equality. (See Hearn, 2001) Under Finland’s EU presidency, the *Conference on Men and Gender Equality – Towards Progressive Policies* was held in Helsinki in October 2006. The basic approach was expressed that “*Men and gender equality should not be seen as contradictory to the empowerment of women and the realisation of gender equality. On the contrary, the conference findings confirmed that the best way to promote gender equality is reciprocity and cooperation (between different actors and both sexes).*” (Varanka, Närhinen & Siukola, 2006, p. 11)

In the same year, the *Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities between Women and Men*³⁶ raised the importance of developing men's understanding of the need for gender equality. The message was and is still that **both women and men benefit from gender equality**, in particular through: a more equal balance between women and men in decision-making; less vertical and horizontal segregation on the labour market; a more equal balance in the sharing of caring and family roles; cultural changes in relation to the roles in media and education; and combating male violence against women. The document also highlighted the necessity to facilitate the emergence of new models of masculinity and new ways of thinking about the expectations of men and identifying their specific needs.

Inspired by women’s movements, and sometimes (often reluctantly) supported by men and political institutions, European gender politics have productively accompanied social changes. Indeed, **gender relations have changed massively** throughout the past four decades. However, **gender based problems** have largely been defined as **problems of women**: gender gaps in payment, employment and working time, unpaid work, the availability of pub-

³⁴See <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-%2f%2fEP%2f%2fTEXT%2bTA%2bP7-TA-2010-0231%2b0%2bDOC%2bXML%2bV0%2f%2fEN&language=EN>

³⁵ The contribution of men to gender equality in general terms is not a new question. Indeed it has been on international governmental agendas since at least the 1995 *UN Beijing 4th World Conference on Women*. Since 1995 these issues are increasingly being taken up by the UN and its various agencies.

³⁶ See http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/other-institutions/advisory-comittee/index_en.htm

lic care services, vertical segregation at the workplace and, in particular, in management, gender based violence or trafficking in women. (European Commission [EC], 2010c)

Men's role and problems have traditionally been less observed, not at least by men themselves. Nevertheless, in the recent decades **men and masculinities have increasingly become subjects of studies** (see chapter 1.3.) and **gender policies in the EU**. Having mentioned the conferences on men and masculinities in Örebro (in 2001) and Helsinki (in 2006), another milestone was a 2004 call for proposals by the European Commission: in the context of the *Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001–2005)*³⁷ the concluding priority theme was *'the role of men in the promotion of gender equality, in particular the role of men and fathers in the reconciliation of work and private life'*. Thereupon, the *Roadmap on equality between women and men 2006–2010* (EC, 2006) underlined the importance of the role of men in the priority *'Enhancing reconciliation of work, private and family life'*. It specifically encouraged men to take up responsibilities, in particular through incentives to take **parental and paternity leave** and to share leave entitlements with women. In the recent *European Commission Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010–2015)*, gender roles and the role of men is a horizontal priority: *"Gender equality needs the active contribution, support and participation of men and policies should also address gender-related inequalities that affect boys/men such as literacy rates, early school leaving and occupational health."* (EC, 2010c, p. 32)

The aforementioned **fields of inequality**, which also affect women, have negative impacts on men. Men are subject to the stereotypes of being the leader, the career man, and the breadwinner. Depending on how successfully they live up to these conceptions of masculinity, they are starkly divided into 'winners' and 'losers'. As the workplace tends to be the main centre of their social life, they are more likely to **lose contact with their families** and the wider social environment. (See Holter, 2003; Lenz, 2001; Scambor, Schwerma & Abril, 2005) In this sense losing a job, although it is a real concern for both men and women in the current economic climate, could potentially have a more serious and long-lasting impact on a man. In addition, many men pay a high price in terms of **health and well-being**, with a life expectancy of 5.8 years lower than that of women in 2010. (See chapter 5.2) Although biological differences do affect the propensity of men and women to suffer from particular diseases, for example men develop and die sooner from cancers which in principle should affect men and women equally. (See EC, 2011a, 2011b) The reasons for this disparity have been attributed largely to men's social conditions, lifestyle choices and attitudes towards seeking help from medical professionals. Men are less likely than women to seek help for physical and psychological problems, and they are more likely to engage in behaviour which puts their health at risk. (See EC, 2011a, 2011b)

Other areas have been identified as presenting specific problems for men. These include boys as the majority of **early school leavers** and men as fathers, regarding problems such as achieving a work-life balance and gaining custody rights.

In the light of these problems, the report at hand aims to answer the question of how issues and problems can be integrated in gender equality policies. Therefore, the authors give data and case study results from EU member states and *European Free Trade Association* (EFTA) states with special regard to the most important contexts of gender equality: household and family, education, labour market and workplaces, violence, politics and health. Moreover, the question of how men can participate in promoting gender equality and which are the barriers and obstacles has to be answered. This includes successful measures and progressive tendencies in the countries researched, addressing the question of how to transfer these measures and trends.

³⁷ http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/other/c10932_en.htm

1.2 The EU gender equality policy and caring masculinity

Gender equality is a normative political aim, a fundamental right, a common value of the European Union.³⁸ Yet, it can also be seen as a promoter of socio-economical innovation. In terms of the Europe 2020 strategy for a “[...] *smart, sustainable and inclusive growth*”, (EC, 2010a, no page), gender equality can be a key factor: “*Inclusive growth means empowering people through high levels of employment, investing in skills, fighting poverty and modernising labour markets, training and social protection systems so as to help people anticipate and manage change, and build a cohesive society [...] Europe needs to make full use of its labour potential to face the challenges of an ageing population and rising global competition. Policies to promote gender equality will be needed to increase labour force participation thus adding to growth and social cohesion.*” (EC, 2010b, p. 16)

Promoting gender equality is not only an ethical issue but also of **economic interest and benefit**: according to the *European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions* ([Eurofound] 2010), there are three medium-term trends concerning the composition of the workforce which are direct or indirect results of the demographic change and which are relevant for the future in Europe:

- ageing workforce;
- feminisation of the workforce;
- growing number of workers with a migration background.

Most prominently, the Europe 2020 strategy aims “*to reduce labour market segmentation and facilitate transitions as well as facilitating the reconciliation of work and family life.*” (EC, 2010c, p. 17) As concerns these issues, the **perspective on men** is crucial, as we will show in the report at hand. To mention only some examples:

- a better inclusion in systems of education in order to **reduce the number of male early school leavers**;
- professional training for men to achieve higher flexibility on labour markets and to **reduce horizontal segregation**;
- a better work-family balance also for men to achieve a **more gender-equal distribution of paid and unpaid work**;
- **more (gender) diversity** at the workplace and particularly in management, where in all European countries white, heterosexual men of the ruling class still predominate.

This clearly shows that gender equality does not solely focus on women’s positions and opportunities for social participation, but also on the role of men. The following perspectives are crucial:

- **men are not a homogenous group** (nor are women), but diverse through ethnic backgrounds, physical and mental abilities, options to access different social positions (as related to power), etc;
- gender models and practices as well as what it means ‘to be a man’ are not fixed but changeable and constantly being modified in the course of dynamic social processes; **men’s attitudes and practices change** over the generations, just as political, social and cultural environments do;

³⁸ In fact, it is also one of the EU’s founding values, dating back to 1957. Already in the *Treaty of Rome*, the principle of equal pay for equal work was included. Subsequently, several EU directives and initiatives (on equal pay, social security, labour, and other issues) can be considered milestones of gender equality in Europe. (See European Union [EU], 2007)

- **'hegemonic masculinity'** (see Connell, 1995) can be seen as a cultural norm that connects men to power and, according to Pierre Bourdieu, to play 'the serious games of competition' (see Meuser 2007); this is, of course, adverse to equality and inclusion, but it also places significant restrictions on men within themselves.

Connell (2001) has spelled out the form of **transnational business masculinity** that, as she argues, is increasingly hegemonic and is directly connected to the patterns of world trade and communication that are dominated by the North. This is a dominant masculinity marked by egocentrism, highly precarious and conditional forms of loyalty and a declining sense of responsibility for others. (See Hearn, 1996) This can help us to understand the ongoing economic crisis in connection to gender inequality, based on traditional gender roles and on hegemonic masculinity. Thus inclusive, sustainable growth coming along with gender equality cannot be based on this traditional, androcentric³⁹ model of economy and growth which is hostile not only to women but to many men themselves.

The 'gendered' lack of a balance between work and family care is not only one of the major reasons for women's workplace discrimination. It also makes it harder for men to be with their families and to join social environments beyond work and also to care for themselves, including their own health and well-being. In a nutshell, the counterpart to hegemonic masculinity can be called **'caring masculinity'**⁴⁰, based on men as involved fathers instead of breadwinners.

Unmasking men's privileges, recognising social divisions among men and focussing on relations between men and women in societies are crucial issues when it comes to men and gender equality. A balanced approach is recommended in order to **avoid one-sided debates about men as the disadvantaged gender**. As the study at hand shows, the role of men in gender equality is framed with approaches of traditional sex role theory⁴¹ in some European countries, and gender mainstreaming has unintentionally started anti-feminist-debates in the context of which men were addressed as victims of feminism. Therefore a **close connection** between a critical scholarship, based on **feminist theory**⁴² and **men's studies**, and the **development of government policy, programmes and interventions** is highly recommended. Critical scholarship on men and masculinities tries to dismantle men's privileges and, at the same time, minimises the costs of masculinity on the way towards gender equality. Relating privileges and costs discloses a big variety of men and shows that gender equality policy has to pay attention to complex social intersections (gender, class, ethnicity) in order to avoid simplistic assumptions about men.

³⁹ An androcentric perspective centres the focus on men as human norm and neglects women at the same time.

⁴⁰ The concept of 'caring masculinity' is based on care-giving roles of men instead of provider roles. Especially young men are increasingly taking over care-giving tasks within families or through their involvement in so-called 'feminine' professions (e.g. kindergarten) in everyday life.

⁴¹ In traditional sex role theory the role of men is based on the essentialist and biological definition of masculinity. It involves a set of expectations which define certain practices and behaviours. Among them strength, control, domination as well as giving protection and participation in the public sphere can be singled out.

⁴² According to Maggie Humm the main aim of feminist theory is to provide a deeper understanding of both women's situation and gender relations in the society. The starting point of feminist theory has been the fact of women's oppression which is present at all levels - from family life to political structures. Feminist theory combines normative, empirical and methodological aspects of researched phenomena and therefore very often has not only academic but also political character. (See Humm, 1993)

1.3 Research background

As expressed above, men's practices and interests regarding gender equality vary. This is partly due to differences in provider roles and economic circumstances, but also to different social, psychological, political and cultural patterns. So far, there is little systematised knowledge of this variation and its main causes, and the existing knowledge base varies a lot between European countries. However, a focus on men has emerged on the European level especially in the past decade, and data, analyses and strategies on this have already been collected:

- Between 2000 and 2003, the European interdisciplinary network *Critical Research on Men in Europe (CROME)*, financed by the *Fifth EU Research Framework Programme* explored the **social problems and social problematisation of men**, embracing among others the issues of health, violence, labour market, family, and social exclusion.⁴³ This work has been continued more specifically as a part of the *Coordinated Action on Human Rights Violations (CAHRV)* of the EU FP 6 programme.⁴⁴
- At the interface of work and family, the *Fifth EU Research Framework Programme* project *Work Changes Gender* (2001-2004) pointed out to the relevance of structural conditions of men's work-life patterns, in particular: the labour market, workplace cultures, biographies and cultures of work. (See Puchert, Gärtner & Höying, 2005) Comparative analysis in different European regions (plus Israel) has added empirical evidence to the notion of the 'erosion of standard work' and the **decline of a male breadwinner structure**. Yet, inconsistently to this, the gendered models, varying considerably all over the countries researched and within, still reproduce the breadwinner track. Based on this, *FOCUS: Fostering Caring Masculinities*, a five country project, produced knowledge and recommendations on **men and their ways of reconciling professional and family life**. (See Langvasbråten & Teigen, 2006) This project was supported by the *European Commission: programme relating to the community framework strategy on gender equality*.⁴⁵
- Under Finland's EU presidency, the *Conference on Men and Gender Equality – Towards Progressive Policies* was held in Helsinki in October 2006. Here, a comprehensive, international appraisal of the issue took place. The basic approach was expressed that "*Men and gender equality should not be seen as contradictory to the empowerment of women and the realisation of gender equality. On the contrary, the conference findings confirmed that the best way to promote gender equality is reciprocity and cooperation (between different actors and both sexes).*" (Varanka, Närhinen & Siukola, 2006, p. 11) The conference focussed on the topics of 'segregation/caring professions', 'health', 'violence', 'work-family reconciliation' and 'state of policy': processes of **institutionalisation of 'men and gender' politics** already took place a few years ago (for example the *Unit for Men's Affairs* was established in March 2001 in the *Federal Ministry of Social Security and Generations* in Austria). It was outlined, that "[...] *the implications of gender equality policy for men are underexplored*" (Hearn, 2006, p. 30) and "[...] *resistance to gender equality by men [...]*" (Pease, 2006, p. 44) should be expected if equality strategies, sometimes unintended, support a scenario about disadvantaged men. This happens predominantly if 'gender' is framed synonymously with gender differences. Policy recommendations concerning men and gender equality were exposed (see Smídová, 2006), some of them laying emphasis on men's work-household reconciliation, others developing a focus on mar-

⁴³ See www.cromenet.org

⁴⁴ <http://www.cahrv.uni-osnabrueck.de>

⁴⁵ <http://dissens.de/en/research/index.php#focus>. The project was led by the *Norwegian Equality and Anti-discrimination Ombud*.

ginalised men or policies on men in transnational organisations, which are still very underdeveloped, if considered at all.

- In some cases, new research includes more detail-level surveys and studies of men and gender equality that have been available as basis for governmental or parliamentary reports. For example: in Norway, a survey was used for a parliamentary report *On Men, Male Roles and Gender Equality*. (See Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2008) The report, beyond other issues assessing the outcome of the *Norwegian Committee on Male Roles* (from 1991), states that societal power distribution is crucial to achieve gender equality, that **men's attitudes and practices have changed**, and that men can benefit from gender equality. The report highlights that care-giving is a central link between men and gender equality.
- In a similar way, a report on the United Kingdom (UK), financed by the national government, was edited by *The Coalition on Men and Boys* in 2009. It covers the topics of family, fatherhood, work, violence, education, health, and other key policy areas. (See The Coalition on Men and Boys, 2009)

However, the results of these research-based policy formulations have so far not been analysed or followed up at European level. The report at hand is the first one to undertake a **systematic research** on the **EU 27** member states plus the associated **EFTA** states. It offers an international assessment and, to some extent, comparisons, expanding onto several different levels. Beyond **national case studies** and **good practice examples**, it also shows data gaps at national as well as at EU and EFTA levels. Building on the reports mentioned above, it seeks to refer to the costs of (traditional) gendered models and to how they split men's/masculine and women's/feminine spheres and institutionalised practices. Options of transferability of measures and regulations from one country to others are discussed.

1.4 Methodology and research structure

The study at hand is one of the actions stemming from the *European Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men (2010-2015)*. It is a source of information for national authorities, social partners and NGOs. It also allows policy makers to make use of better knowledge on the issue when designing and implementing their gender equality policies.

The study is part of a project that aims to provide better knowledge of the role of men in gender equality issues in the EU 27 member states and the EFTA states. The study is therefore the **scientific background for research-based policy formulations and implementations**. It has been complemented by a series of workshops held in 2011 and 2012 as well as a final conference hosted in September 2012, where the key results were presented.

Given the fact that the study aims at a broad range of partly under-researched topics and a multitude of countries, a broad and in-depth structure of knowledge collection had to be established. Beyond the analysis of existing literature on men and masculinities, research was basically conducted by five steps:

1. According to the basic topical fields – 'home and family care', 'work', and 'overall topics' – **country reports** have been conducted by **gender and policy experts** in each of the researched countries. The aim was to collect basic knowledge of men and gender equality in all countries, plus to focus on the most important trends and challenges.
2. A **quantitative data study** was carried out on the basis of
 - centralised data on the European level (Eurostat, European Working Conditions Survey, etc) and
 - national data on men and gender equality provided by the national experts.

3. In the aforementioned **workshop series** on the three main topics, gender experts and stakeholders on the European and national levels discussed national experiences, trends and interim results; this enriched the heuristic basis of the study.
4. **Telephone interviews with international experts** (USA, Canada, Australia and other OECD countries) were conducted, in the course of which a comprehensive picture of the current situation of men and gender equality, trends and challenges in the respective countries was provided.
5. Recommendations on the role of men in improving gender equality across Europe were based on the study results and developed in close **collaboration with advisory board members**.

To structure the results and make comparisons more comprehensible, the **countries are clustered** into distinct groups with similar characteristics. Spatial approaches to understand and demonstrate gender orders within Europe go back to Esping-Andersen's (1990) work on the societal effects of social policies in different countries. He differentiated between three **'welfare regimes'**: a liberal one (like Great Britain), a conservative/corporatist one (like Germany), and a social democratic one (to be found in the Scandinavian countries). Duncan (2000) explored a Mediterranean, familistic regime in Southern European countries. Of course, not explicitly discussed from the start, welfare systems have a great impact on gender arrangements, for example on public intervention in women's labour market participation or in the presence or absence of public childcare funding. Critically based on Esping-Andersen's approach, Lewis (1992), focussing on unpaid work, distinguished between a strong, a modified, and a weak **breadwinner model**, while others focussed on different patriarchal systems. (See Duncan, 2000; Hirdman, 1990; Walby, 1994) All of these approaches lead to different maps of Europe.

These cluster systems were used for this project in a heuristic way, while it turned out that in some respects the data told different stories. Therefore country clusters were also based on geographical (Northern, Western, and Southern European countries) as well as on political and economical distinctions (e.g. 'Transition' countries).⁴⁶

The following chapter 2 addresses the **situation of boys and young men in education** and shows how the situation varies in different European countries. A special focus is on early school leavers, who are predominantly boys all over Europe. The individual pay-off of education is, however, not certain and, in addition, varies according to gender and other social categories. While male students are more likely to drop out of education than female students, it becomes clear that vulnerable groups are determined by more than the sex. Apart from main trends in education in the past decade, causes and effects of under- and over-representation of men/women in different educational pathways ('gender segregation') are discussed, and initiatives to overcome this almost 'immutable' characteristic of the educational system will be presented in the chapter about education.

Chapter 3 is about **men, equality and work**. Beginning with basic trends in work, related to gender and men, the chapter deals with important work-life issues in a more detailed way. The working time structure will be discussed as a framework influencing the distribution of

⁴⁶ Geographically Northern, Western, and Southern European countries were clustered into distinct groups. Based on a political and economical perspective, the so-called 'Transition' countries (from socialism to capitalism) in Central and Eastern Europe were defined as 'Post-socialist' countries due to the fact that their uniting characteristic is their common past as socialist countries. 'Central': Austria, Belgium, Switzerland, Germany, France, United Kingdom, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Netherlands; 'Northern': Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden; 'Post-socialist': Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia; 'Southern': Cyprus, Spain, Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal.

labour and care, and the change of work forms as an indicator of changes in the male provider role. In order to discuss the trends in work more deeply, the chapter concentrates on gender inequality on the axes of segregation and institutional working conditions. Horizontal segregation is exposed with a strong focus on men in 'feminised professions' of care work and education. Vertical segregation addresses men's role as being related to hierarchies and gaps in power and resources. A third dimension considers the workplace level, highlighting the institutional conditions for men's changes towards gender equality.

Men in households and families are the topic of chapter 4. Beyond different areas of care and reproduction, this chapter deals with the questions: Do men care? Do they take a substantial share of care tasks in society? To sum it up beforehand: increasingly the answer is yes, as measured by men's part of care activities at home. There is an increasing desire to contribute not only theoretically to family life and child care. Research presented in this chapter shows a historically remarkable change in men's participation in large parts of Europe – a growing participation in caring, especially caring for children at home, but also in many fields of housework.

Subchapter 5.1 deals with **men's violence against women, but also with violence against men**. It is important to understand, however, that both connections exist and matter. Therefore, men as perpetrators of violent crimes, workplace violence and *intimate partner violence (IPV)* are discussed, as well as men as victims of violence in public spaces, workplaces and intimate relations.

Historically, a rather fragmented view on **men's health** has characterised the situation in the EU. This is comparable to the international situation. A special subchapter 5.2 on men's health outlines a comprehensive picture of the variety of issues affecting men's health and discusses policy initiatives as well as other models for tackling men's health issues in the European countries.

Subchapter 5.3 on **political representation and men's involvement in gender equality** shows that men are increasingly addressed and referred to in the process of gender equality policy development. Therefore, an overview on institutionalised practices, on men's involvement in gender equality strategies such as gender mainstreaming and on politics of masculinities in Europe – between privileges, costs and differences – is provided. Important conditions for developing policies on men and gender equality are discussed. The discussion focusses on the process of framing and understanding gender in the political context and the potential of broadening the concept of gender equality towards multiple belongings.

Finally, chapter 6 summarises the main results of the report and provides **policy recommendations** and possible interventions, aiming to answer the question of 'How to address men in the context of gender equality?'

2 Education

2.1 Introduction

Education is a major instrument for gender equality providing an important context for socialisation and therefore an important field for the development of gender relations and orientation patterns for women and men. Future perspectives and life courses are – among others – based on educational careers and their implied patterns of (in)equality.

Gender equality issues in education have changed over the past decades and have become more complex. From the 1970s onwards, gender equality in education has predominantly been framed with a focus on women: improving the achievements of girls was supposed to reduce existing power imbalances in favour of boys. (See Weiner, 2010) *“However, because of the increased emphasis on examination achievement in recent years and the narrowing of the gender gap in favour of female students, much interest in gender has reverted to concern about the perceived ‘underachievement of males’ (OECD 2001, p. 122). Thus in recent years and in many countries, gender issues in education have come to be equated with boys’ relative underperformance in examinations, and a so-called crisis of masculinity.”* (Weiner, 2010, p. 31) This does not mean that all boys fail in education. In fact, discourses about ‘failing boys’ can mask the fact that some groups of boys still do very well, while others drop out of the education system. On the individual level, early school leaving⁴⁷ reduces opportunities to participate in society (socially and economically) and increases the risk of social exclusion, with all the connected risks for wellbeing, health and life quality. Education is a vital part of a gender equality strategy and it has to engage with boys and men especially at a time of financial crisis when social cohesion is under threat.

The EU has made attempts to promote gender equality in employment and education in the past decades. The elimination of stereotypes (non-traditional educational paths) was a listed priority in the *Roadmap for Equality for Women and Men, 2006-2010*.⁴⁸ In the *Strategy for Equality between Women and Men, 2010–2015* one of the key actions addresses the role of men, through promoting *“good practice on gender roles in youth, education, culture and sport.”* (European Commission, 2010b, p. 36)

In 2010 the European Commission launched the *Europe 2020* strategy, through which sustainable growth, the creation of new jobs and *“a sense of direction”* (European Commission, 2010a, p. 2) should be offered to European societies. To this end the European Commission has proposed measurable targets for 2020, two of which acknowledge the vital role of education and gender equality targets and thus engaging men and masculinities:

“A target on educational attainment which tackles the problem of early school leavers by reducing the drop out rate to 10% from the current 15%, whilst increasing the share of the population aged 30-34 having completed tertiary education from 31% to at least 40% in 2020” (European Commission, 2010a, p. 11).

⁴⁷ *“The term ‘early school leaving’ is used in connection with those who leave education and training with only lower secondary education or less and who are no longer in education and training.”* <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2011:191:0001:0006:EN:PDF>

⁴⁸ http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/employment_and_social_policy/equality_between_men_and_women/c10404_en.htm

Flagship initiatives in order to improve young people's education focus on mobility (*Youth on the Move*) as well as on measures which should support the transition from education to work in an unrestricted way and make "education and training more relevant to young people's needs."⁴⁹ Furthermore, special attention is put on bridging skills and requirements between education and labour market through anticipating future skills and meeting labour market requirements (*New Skills for New Jobs*).⁵⁰

Early school leaving is described as a "serious obstacle" (European Commission, 2011a, p. 1). "Europe cannot afford that so many young people who have the potential to contribute to our societies and our economies are left behind." (European Commission, 2011a, p. 1)

Research shows how the situation varies in different European countries. But in general, low education characterises the situation of vulnerable groups. The individual pay-off of education is, however, not certain especially in periods of high unemployment and, in addition, varies according to gender and other social factors. While male students are more likely to drop out of education than female students, it becomes clear that vulnerable groups are determined by more than gender. Refusing to treat boys and girls as homogenous categories, research shows a wider spread in achievement gaps between different groups of boys. Hence, we need to look at which boys are successful or fail in education. We need to engage boys and men in tackling gender imbalances in literacy and adult learning as well as in issues of bullying and homophobic violence.

At a glance

- On average, education attainment has increased across the EU member states for both men and women from 2001 to 2010.
- The increase of the rate of women's enrolment in tertiary education is almost twice as high as the increase of men's enrolment rate, signalling issues for young men.
- During the same period of time, the rate of men has been constant or slightly increased in upper secondary attainment in more than two thirds of all the EU member states and EFTA states. In almost one third of the countries it has decreased.
- A strong gender distribution in the education system is still persistent. Within upper secondary education and tertiary education, gendered patterns in different fields of studies are visible. Girls tend to be predominantly present in the social and caring fields of education, while the rate of boys is high in engineering, manufacturing and construction. In many EU member states and EFTA states the participation rate of men in the discipline of education declined from 2000–2009. A similar pattern appears in the field of health and welfare.
- In most of the EU member states and EFTA states the rate of early school leavers has slightly declined in the past 10 years. The rate of male early school leavers is higher than that of women. Countries with high rates of male early school leavers show the largest gender gaps.
- The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) results in 2009 show that girls significantly outperform boys' reading achievements. This trend has increased in some countries between 2000 and 2009, and it has not been stopped in any of the participating countries. Boys outperform girls in mathematics in more than half of the countries, but the gender gap differs: the gender gap in mathematics is around one-third as large as the gender gap in reading. Reading and mathematical reasoning have

⁴⁹ http://ec.europa.eu/youthonthemove/about/index_en.htm

⁵⁰ <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=822&langId=en>

much in common, but we also have to recognise different ways of mathematical reasoning with boys often excelling in spatial reasoning connected to geometry.

- At the same time, PISA results showed greater influence of socio-economic status than gender and migration background in predicting learning outcomes in reading, mathematics and science.

2.2 Basic results

Over the past decade, some major changes in educational attainment have taken place. The *European Labour Force Survey* (LFS) data show an overall trend: while the proportion of young people with completed upper secondary education shows a rather moderate increase or even decreases in some countries, a **remarkable increase of adults with tertiary educational attainment** is visible. At the same time, **the proportion of early school leavers has slightly decreased** in almost all EU member states and EFTA states.

2.2.1 Enrolment rate and upper secondary education attainment⁵¹

On average, **young men recorded a lower level of educational attainment than young women**. The rate for 20-24 year old men having completed at least upper secondary education increased from 74% to 76.2% in the EU 27 member states between 2001 and 2010. A similar growth appears for young women (20-24 years), but their attainment rate is slightly higher (from 79.2% in 2001 to 81.8% in 2010). More than two thirds of all EU member states and EFTA states show a consistent or increasing rate of men in upper secondary attainment (2001 to 2010), whereas in some countries an opposite trend appears. (See annex 2.1)

A remarkable gap appears when the interconnection of country of birth and sex is addressed. (See annex 2.2) While 80.1% of non-migrant men have completed at least upper secondary education, lower **rates are found for men with a migration background** (EU 74.6%, America 62.3%, Asia 61.2%, other European countries 56%, Africa 54.5%). The results for women show a similar pattern, but slightly higher rates in all categories (non-migration background 86.3%, EU 76.3%, America 71.4%, Asia 68.7%, other European countries 58.4%, Africa 59.3%).

The **gap between men with and without a migration background** who have completed at least upper secondary education was around or above 30% in some of the Southern European countries, like Greece (31.7%) and Italy (30.1%), while the gap was particularly low in Portugal (0.6%) and Ireland (0.2%). Exceptions were visible in the United Kingdom (UK) and Ireland, where the gap showed an opposite pattern: in the UK more men with a migration background than non-migrant men have completed at least upper secondary education (80.3% compared to 76.2%). (See annex 2.3) This might have to do with higher educational standards of people with a migration background from Post-socialist countries, particularly Poland.

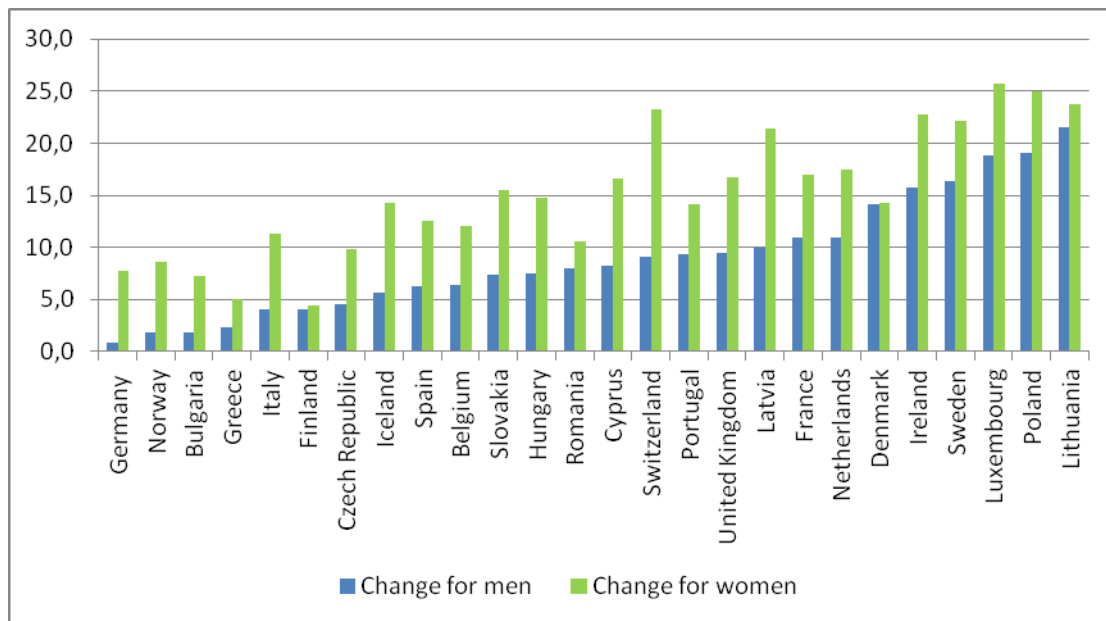
⁵¹ Based on European LFS yearly data 2009. "Upper secondary education (ISCED 3) corresponds to the final stage of secondary education in most OECD countries. Instruction is often more organised along subject-matter lines than at ISCED level 2 and teachers typically need to have a higher level, or more subject-specific, qualifications than at ISCED 2. The entrance age to this level is typically 15 or 16 years." (Education at a Glance, OECD, Paris, 2002, Glossary; <http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=5450>)

2.2.2 Enrolment rate and tertiary education attainment⁵²

Across the EU member states, the **rates of tertiary education attainment increased** by 7.6% (from 22.4% to 30%) for men and 14% (23.2% to 37.2%) for women from 2001 until 2010. (See annex 2.4) This is vital if the share of population in tertiary education is to reach the *Europe 2020 targets*. Women almost reached the target in 2010 (*“40% of 30-34-year-olds completing third level education”⁵³*). The most remarkable increases of the attainment rate of men since 2001 are reported for Lithuania (21.5%), Poland (19.1%), Luxemburg (18.8%), and Sweden (16.4%).

On average, the **increase of women’s attainment rate is almost twice as high as the increase of men’s attainment rate** from 2001 until 2010. In almost all EU member states and EFTA states the increase of women’s rates in tertiary education attainment is above 10% (except Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Finland and Norway).

Figure 2.1 Changes of male and female population aged 30 to 34 years with tertiary education attainment, by country, 2001-2010, changes in percentage points



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: edat_lfse_07); for Estonia, Austria and Slovenia no reliable figures are available for 2001; extracted on Jan. 14th, 2012

In 2010, **Northern countries** like Norway, Sweden, Finland and Denmark as well as Belgium and Ireland report **women’s attainment rates in tertiary education to be around and above 50%**, while men’s rates in tertiary education attainment did not reach 50% in these countries. The highest attainment rates of men in tertiary education are reported for Switzerland (47.5%), Luxemburg (44.8%), and Ireland (44.4%).

⁵² Based on European LFS yearly data 2009, tertiary education includes tertiary-type A programmes (ISCED 5A), theory-based and designed to provide qualifications for access to advanced research programmes and professions, and it includes tertiary-type B programmes (ISCED 5B), typically shorter than those of tertiary-type A and focussing on practical, technical or occupational skills for direct entry into the labour market. (cf. Education at a Glance, OECD, Paris, 2002, Glossary; <http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=5441>)

⁵³ http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/europe-2020-in-a-nutshell/targets/index_en.htm

2.2.3 Gender segregation in education

Meulders et al. (2010) have defined the term **gender segregation** as the tendency “*of women and men to work in different sectors and occupations.*” (p. 9) Work and education are specific societal fields in which gender is embedded as an important structural principle that divides ‘appropriate’ occupations and sectors for men and women. Segregation concepts offer definitions of horizontal and vertical segregation. Although phenomena of horizontal and vertical segregation become visible on the labour market, the roots of segregation already appear in the educational system.

Horizontal segregation describes the under- and over-representation of a certain group of people (gender, migration, class) in different sectors of occupations and educational pathways. (See Bettio & Verashchagina, 2009) It seems to be a persistent, almost ‘**immutable characteristic of current socio-economic systems**. (See Blau & Ferber, 1987)

Gender segregation strongly appears on the labour market, but it is already visible in education. In education we can find typical female and male areas. Though this has changed substantially over time and varies considerably across states, in some states **boys and girls predominantly choose gender-typical occupations**. (See Fényes, 2010) This contributes to a gender-segregated labour market.

Box 2.1 – Examples of gender segregation in education

Austria

Men are still over-represented among scientists. This is especially true for physics, mathematics and engineering. Men represent the major part of professors at Austrian universities. (See Scambor & Scambor, 2011)⁵⁴

Belgium

An uneven distribution of girls and boys among forms of education, courses and options is obvious. The distribution of enrolment in secondary education is sexually differentiated by types of education: boys are more numerous in vocational education than in general education. In terms of study fields, girls are also more present in the social and caring sectors and boys in technical courses (confirming horizontal segregation). In technical and vocational education in particular, the arrival of girls in traditionally male educational sectors is perceived as an invasion, while boys who make untypical choices are subject to judgments and homophobic behaviour from other boys. (See Wuïame, 2011)

Germany

When choosing vocational trainings, young men tend to opt for technical areas or manual work, whereas women are more likely to opt for work with more communicative and social aspects. For these reasons, it is assumed that the growth of the service sector would lead to a decrease in job chances for men. (See Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

Slovakia

The proportion of male tertiary education graduates has been permanently decreasing during last years. Since 2006, the share of young men is less than 50% (Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic). This indicates that boys have lower study ambitions than girls. Despite this fact, men’s situation in terms of employment and remuneration persists to be superior to that of women. (See Szapuová, 2011)

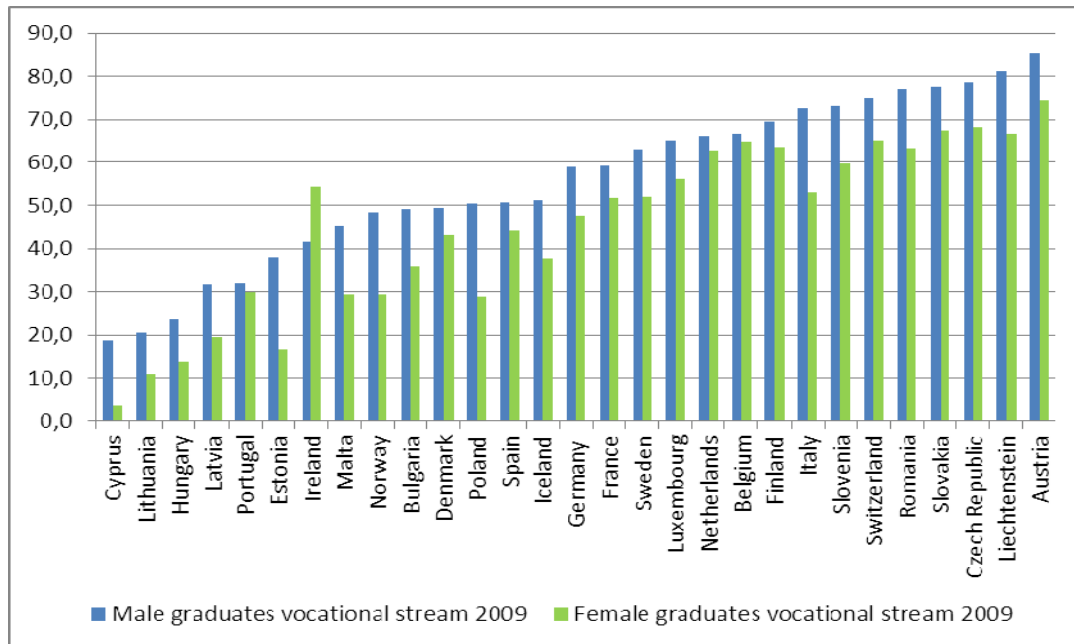
⁵⁴ Country reports are cited without page numbers.

Horizontal segregation in upper secondary education

The gender distribution in upper secondary and tertiary education shows some main tendencies that point to the persistent gender segregation in the educational system.

With the exception of Ireland, young men are predominantly represented in vocational education⁵⁵ if compared to young women. Furthermore, a great variation of male graduates in vocational education is obvious across Europe.

Figure 2.2 Male and female graduates in upper secondary education enrolled in vocational stream (as % of all upper secondary education) by country, 2009



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_grad2); extracted on Jan. 9th, 2012; vocational stream includes pre-vocational or pre-technical programme orientation and vocational or technical programme orientation; rest of the graduates are graduates in upper secondary education – general programme orientation

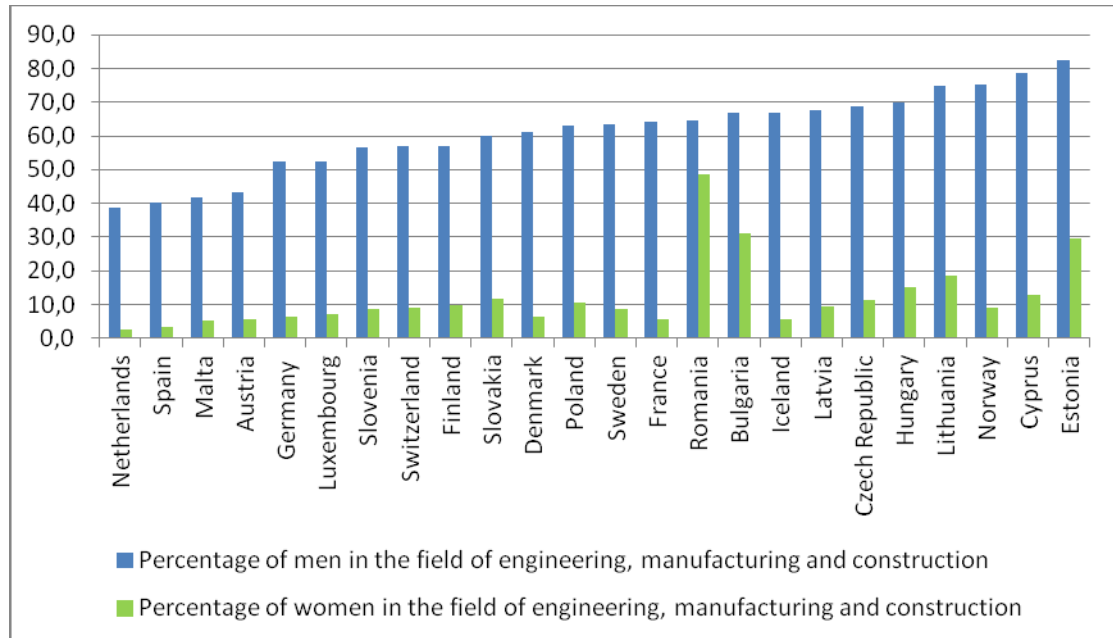
More young men than young women in Europe attend vocational education. Therefore **gender-sensitive initiatives** are highly recommendable in order to encourage boys and young men to choose untypical fields of vocational education. But again we have to be sensitive to the diversity of historical and cultural traditions (e.g. the former egalitarian cultures in the Post-socialist countries encouraging more women to embrace vocational education), so that we do not put countries on the same equal footing in reading the statistical data.

A causal link between **vocational education and learning outcomes of boys** may be drawn. Results on educational achievements show a significant gender gap referring to literacy skills like reading, in which girls outperform boys and may more often become eligible for studying.

⁵⁵ „Education and training which aims to equip people with knowledge, know-how, skills and/or competences required in particular occupations or more broadly on the labour market. Source: adapted from European Training Foundation, 1997. SOURCE: Terminology of European education and training policy-a selection of 100 key terms. CEDEFOP, Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2008.” <http://www.eqavet.eu/qa/gns/glossary/v/vocational-education-and-training.aspx>

Gendered patterns in different fields of studies are visible: **girls tend to be predominantly present in the social and caring fields of education**, while the **rate of boys is high in engineering, manufacturing and construction**. Figure 2.3 shows the proportion of male and female students enrolled in upper secondary vocational streams in the fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction. Romania, Bulgaria and Estonia are countries with a relatively high proportion of women in these fields, reflecting their cultural and political histories, while some other countries show a low participation of women, with percentages below 10%. There are countries with a relatively high proportion of male students in these fields: Estonia, Cyprus, Norway and Lithuania show rates above 65%. At the other end we find the Netherlands, Spain, Malta and Austria, where less than 50% of male students are enrolled in engineering, manufacturing and construction.

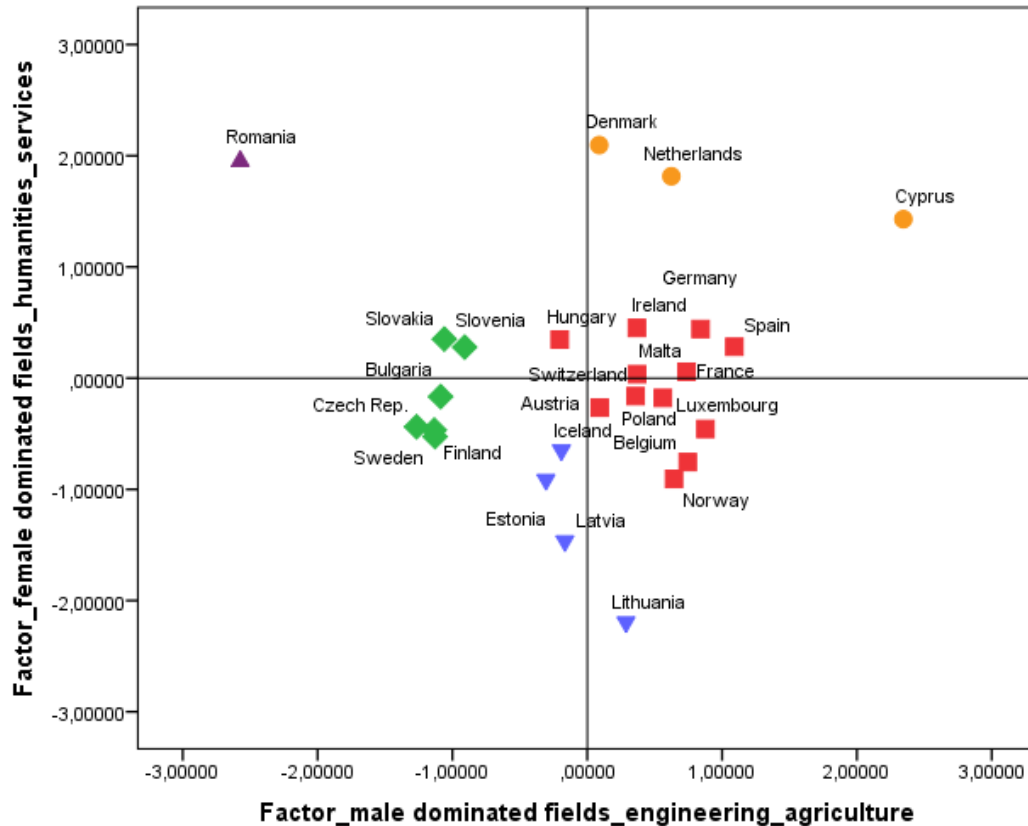
Figure 2.3 Percentage of male and female students in the field of engineering, manufacturing and construction as % of all male and female students in upper secondary vocational streams, 2009



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_grad5); extracted on Jan. 10th, 2012; vocational stream includes pre-vocational or pre-technical programme orientation and vocational or technical programme orientation

An attempt was made to provide a comparable picture about horizontal segregation in upper secondary education. A cluster analysis, based on the relation of the factors of male participation in the male dominated fields of 'engineering, manufacturing and construction'/'agriculture and veterinary' and male participation in the female dominated fields of 'humanities and arts' and 'services', showed different clusters for upper secondary education (see figure 2.4) and tertiary education (see figure 2.6).

Figure 2.4 Country groups ‘horizontal segregation upper secondary education’: country groups according to men’s participation in male and female dominated study fields, 2009



Source and explanation: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_grad5); extracted on Jan. 9th, 2012; calculation of participation in specific vocational field as percentage of all participants in pre-vocational or pre-technical programme orientation and vocational or technical programme orientation in upper secondary education; two factors have been calculated: “factor_male dominated fields” has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields „engineering, manufacturing and construction” and “agriculture and veterinary”; “factor_female dominated fields” has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields “humanities and arts” and “services”. Female dominated fields are those in which at least 60% of students are female in EU27, male dominated fields are those in which at least 60% of the students are male in EU27. On each factor, smaller (negative) values represent lower percentage of men; higher (positive) values represent higher percentages of men. With these two factors a scatter plot has been drawn and the country groups have been calculated by a cluster analysis; method used: Ward, 5 solutions, own calculations.

If countries converge in the centre of a cluster, the differences between these countries are small, big distances between countries in a cluster refer to bigger differences between countries. The following groups of countries have emerged from the material. (See annex 2.5)

- Romania shows indicators for a relatively low degree of segregation, a comparatively low percentage of men studying male dominated fields like engineering and agriculture and their respective percentage in female dominated fields being above average in the sample.
- Countries like Denmark, Cyprus and the Netherlands show a high participation rate of men in female study fields, which is exposed as an indicator of a low degree of segregation, but an average to high percentage of men also enrolled in male dominated studies (indicator of a high degree of segregation).
- Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia and Iceland show relatively low degrees of male enrolment in female dominated studies, and average degrees of male enrolment in male dominated studies. Especially the first indicator points to the endurance of cultural traditions of gender hierarchy that need to be dealt with in education at an early age, so that more oppor-

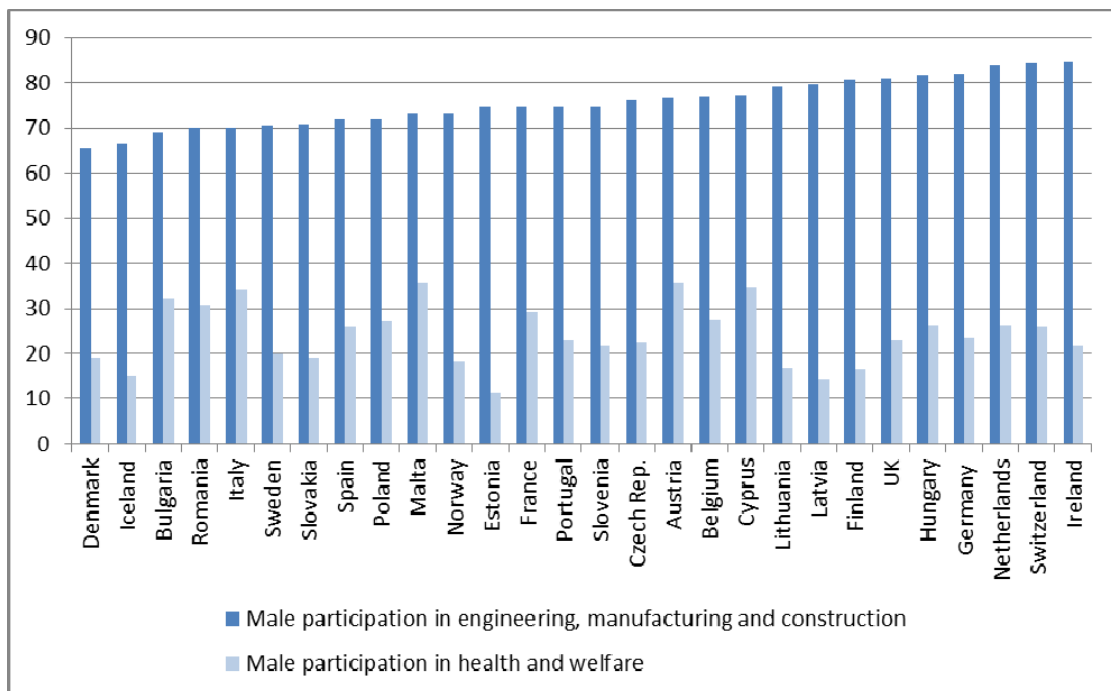
tunities will be opened up as young people experience the benefits of gender equality. With the decline of traditional industries that provided work for working class boys across Europe it is important for young men to also consider a wider range of work, for instance in the services and caring fields that they have traditionally rejected as ‘women’s work’.

- In countries like Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Sweden men’s participation in male dominated studies is below EU average and their participation in female dominated study fields is around EU average.
- All other European and EFTA countries show men’s participation in male dominated study fields as being around and above EU average (indicator of segregation) and their representation in female dominated studies as being around EU average.

Horizontal segregation in tertiary education

An overall perspective on tertiary education outlines the ‘immutable’ character and **persistence of gender segregation in the educational system**. In 2009 men still represented the majority of students (ISCED 5-6⁵⁶) in the fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction in all EU member states and EFTA states. Women were predominant in education as well as in health and welfare. In many EU member states and EFTA states the participation rate of men in the study field of education even declined from 2000–2009 (except Bulgaria, Cyprus, Lithuania, Slovenia, Finland, Iceland and Norway). (See annex 2.6) The same pattern appears in the field of health and welfare in almost all countries in the same period of time (except UK, Sweden, Slovenia, Cyprus and Netherlands).

Figure 2.5 Percentage of male students (ISCED 5-6) enrolled in the fields ‘engineering, manufacturing and construction’ and ‘health and welfare’ - as % of male and female students in this field, 2009



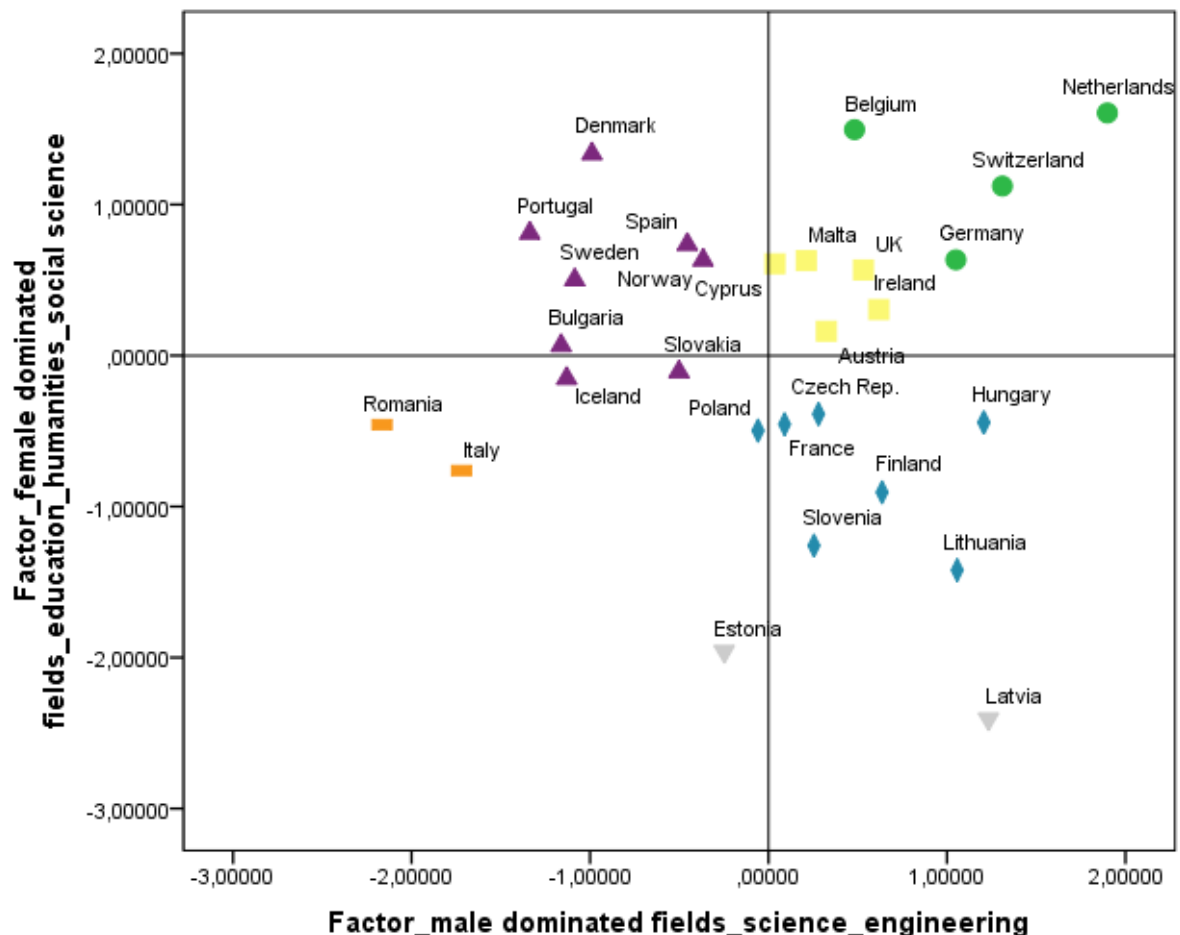
⁵⁶ With ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) the following levels of education have been classified: ISCED level 0 = pre-primary education, ISCED level 1 = primary education, ISCED level 2 = lower secondary education, ISCED level 3 = upper secondary education, ISCED level 4 = post-secondary non-tertiary education, ISCED level 5 = tertiary education (first stage), ISCED level 6 = tertiary education (second stage).

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_iterp); extracted on Oct. 31st, 2011; for Greece and Luxembourg no data are available; own calculations

Fényes (2010) points out that **horizontal segregation is almost constant, despite the fact that women increasingly participate in higher education**. The same trend is obvious on the labour market, where gender segregation has hardly changed in the past decades (see chapter 3), although the employment of women has risen. (See Bradley, 2000)

Again, a cluster analysis was calculated across countries to provide a comparable picture about horizontal segregation in tertiary education. (See annex 2.7) The cluster is based on two factors: male participation in the predominantly male dominated fields of 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' as well as 'sciences, mathematics and computing', and male participation in the predominantly female dominated fields of 'education', 'humanities and arts' and 'social sciences, business and law'. Small (negative) values represent a lower percentage of men, and high (positive) values represent higher percentages of men.

Figure 2.6 Country groups 'horizontal segregation in tertiary education': country groups according to men's participation in male and female dominated study fields, 2009



Source and explanation: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_iterp); extracted on Jan. 9th, 2012; calculation of participation in specific vocational field as percentage of all participants in pre-vocational or pre-technical programme orientation and vocational or technical programme orientation in upper secondary education; two factors have been calculated: "factor_male dominated fields" has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields „engineering, manufacturing and construction" and "science, mathematics and computing"; "factor_female dominated fields" has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields "education", "humanities and arts" and "social science, business and law". Female dominated fields are those in which at least 60% of students are female in EU27, male dominated fields are those in which at least 60% of the students are male in EU27. With these two factors a scatter plot has been drawn and the country groups have been calculated by a cluster analysis; method used: Ward, 6 solutions, own calculations.

Country clusters for tertiary education provide a different picture compared to upper secondary education.

- With the exception of Finland, all Northern European countries as well as some Post-socialist countries (Poland, Slovakia and Bulgaria) and some Southern European countries (Spain, Portugal and Cyprus) appear as less segregated country groups with a comparatively low percentage of men studying male dominated fields like engineering and mathematics and over average rates of men in female dominated fields. In countries like Romania and Italy men's participation rate in male dominated studies is below EU average, while their participation in female dominated study fields is slightly below EU average.
- Central European countries like the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany and Switzerland show high rates of men studying female dominated fields, but high rates of men enrolled in male dominated studies too.
- Men's participation in male and female dominated study fields is around and above EU average in countries like Austria, UK, Ireland, Malta and Cyprus.
- Post-socialist countries predominantly show the following pattern: men are over-represented in male dominated studies and under-represented in female dominated studies. Both are indicators for a high degree of segregation.
- In countries like Estonia and Latvia the rate of men in female dominated studies is very low. Similar results are outlined for upper secondary education. (See figure 2.4) This shows the persistence of ideas of gender segregation in former communist societies that had experienced gender equality as an ideal that was historically imposed, largely in relation to work.

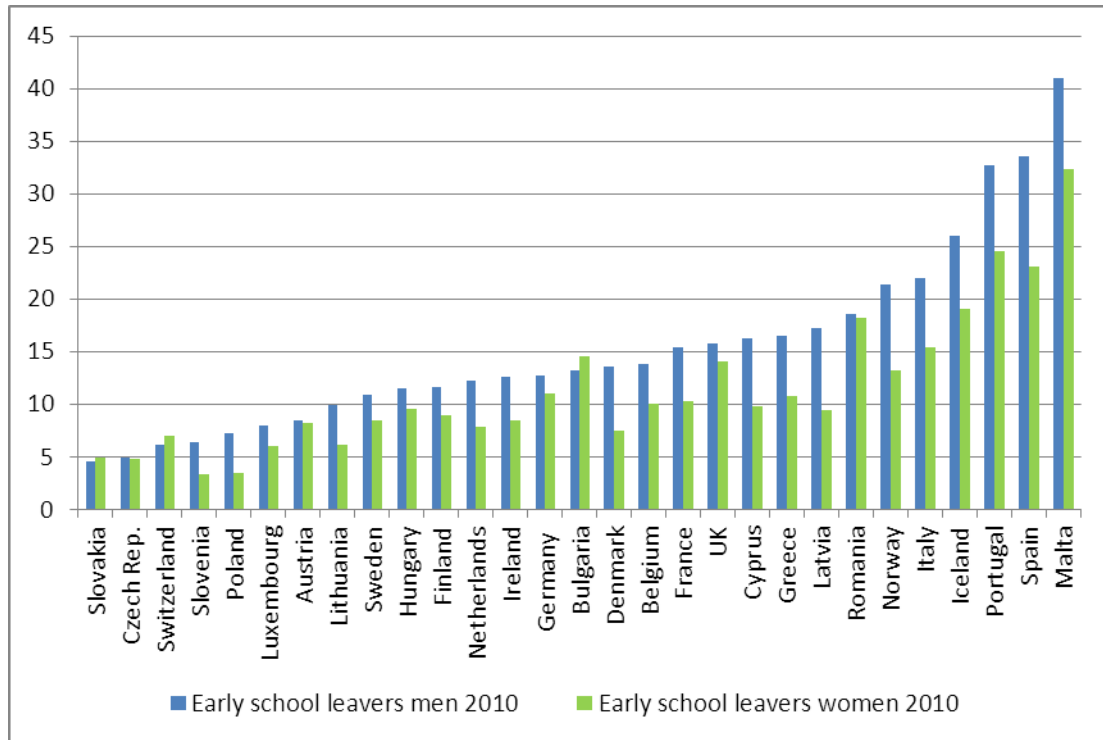
2.2.4 Early school leaving across Europe

In many European countries the **rate of early school leavers has slightly declined** in the past 10 years (see annex 2.8), but the initially agreed European average school leaving rate of 10% by 2010 (see European Commission, 2011b) has not yet been achieved.

The **gender gap in early school leaving** rates has been discussed with an emphasis on the different engagement of girls and boys at school, different labour market opportunities and school environment. (See Byrne & Smyth, 2010; Smyth, 2007)

As figure 2.7 shows, the **rate of male early school leavers is higher than that of women in almost all European countries.**

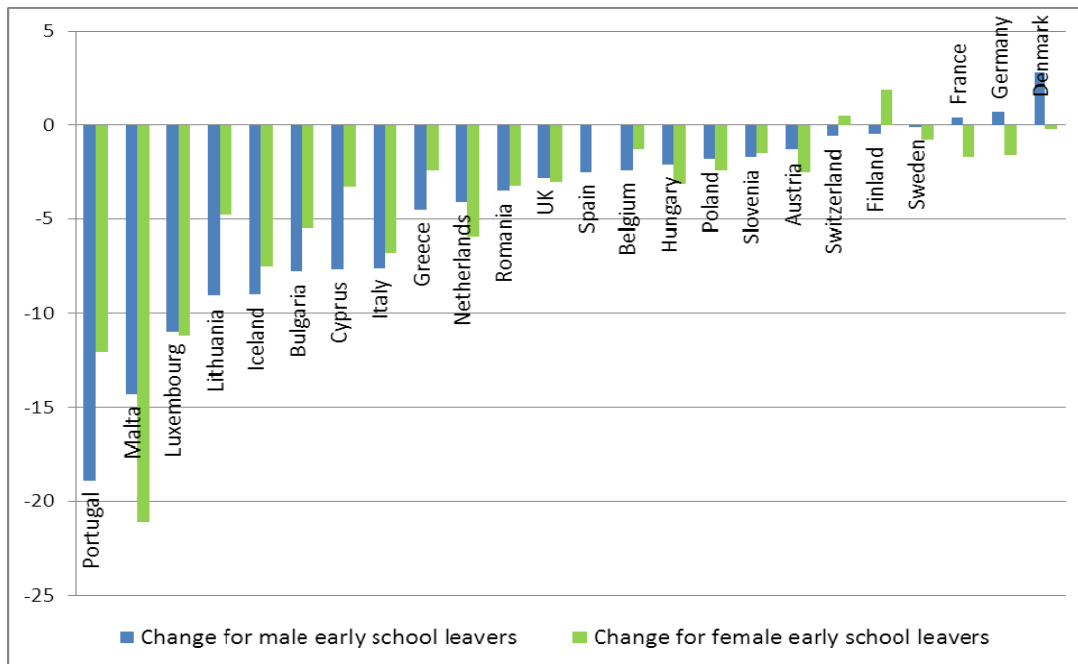
Figure 2.7 Early school leavers by gender (% of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training), 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: tsisc060); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; for Estonia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Slovenia no reliable data are available; own calculations.

Southern European countries like Malta, Portugal or Spain show the **highest rates of male early school leavers**. Low rates of male early school leavers are reported for Switzerland, Luxemburg and Austria as well as for some Post-socialist countries (Slovakia, Czech Republic, Slovenia and Poland). While between 2001 and 2010 the rate of early school leavers decreased in most European countries, a slight increase of male early school leavers is shown for Denmark, Germany and France. (See figure 2.8)

Figure 2.8 Change for male and female early school leavers by gender between 2001 and 2010, in percentage points



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: tsisc060); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; some countries are missing where no data for 2001 are available.

Almost all countries with high rates of male early school leavers in 2001 (more than 30%) have achieved **strong reductions** (e.g. Portugal 18.9%, Malta 14.3%).

Cross-national variations partly reflect different structures of the educational system. (See Smyth, 2007) The **Nordic model and the dual system model are associated with lower rates of early school leaving**. In countries like Norway, Sweden and Finland students follow the same educational way until the end of compulsory school. In combination with strong policy commitment to equity in these countries, the Nordic model results in small educational differences between social groups and educational outcomes. (See Byrne & Smyth, 2010) The dual system model (Germany, Austria, Denmark), a completely different model of education, which includes a strong differentiation between academic and vocational education at an early age, bears some potentials for low drop out rates as well. The dual system model combines in-school education and on-the-job training and therefore offers an opportunity for students who might drop out of school. (See Byrne & Smyth, 2010) At the same time it has to be mentioned that dual system models result in restricted career pathways in the long run. (See Gangl, 2003)

High rates of early school leaving in Southern European countries like Portugal, Spain and Malta “*may be attributed to historical trends in educational attainment and the lack of clear trajectories and returns from education.*” (Byrne & Smyth, 2010, p. 28) Research on inequality indicators in Portugal outlines **regional variations**, with early school leaving (aged 18 to 24, not gone beyond compulsory education, not studying) rates above 40% in the northern region of the country as well as on the Azores and Madeira.⁵⁷

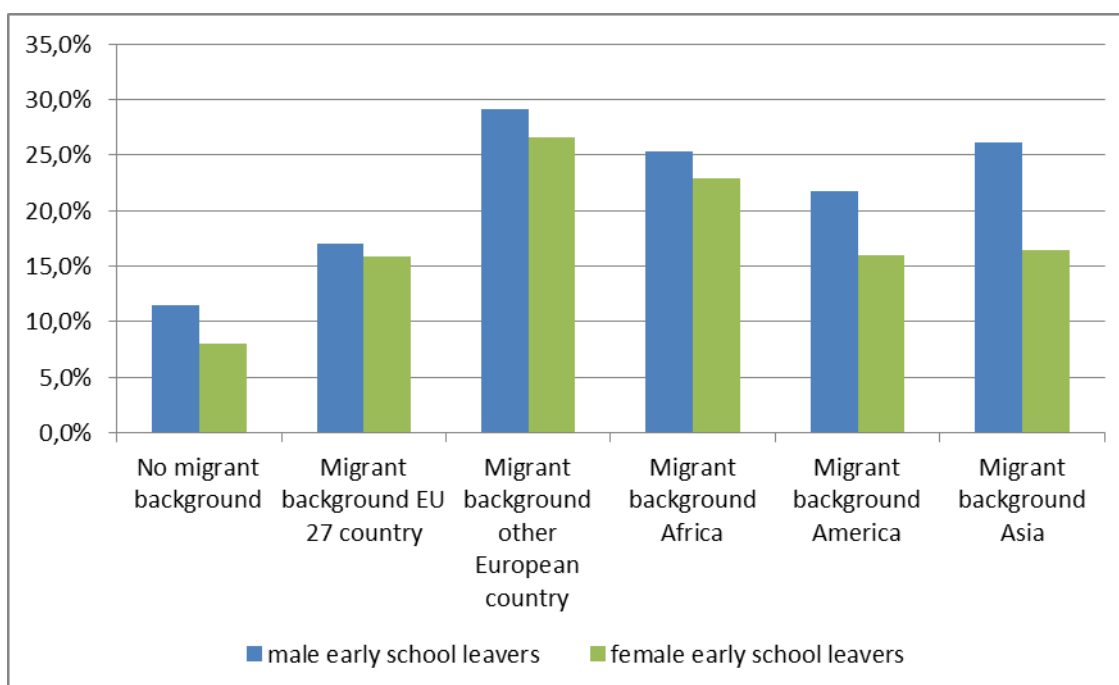
Research in Ireland provides deeper insights into processes of early school leaving of young men and women. Byrne & Smyth (2010) have shown that even at the same schools boys are more likely to leave education than girls. Especially **working-class boys respond worse to**

⁵⁷ <http://observatorio-das-desigualdades.cies.iscte.pt/index.jsp?page=indicators&lang=en&id=22>

the school environment and are more likely to step into a “cycle of ‘acting up’ and ‘being given out to’ by teachers, a cycle which reinforces their disengagement from school.” (p. 172) Furthermore, the need to attain educational outcomes is disregarded if **access to the labour market** (especially construction jobs) can be **secured**. In fact “[...] the negative consequences of early school departure for low-attaining females can often be greater than for low-attaining males because of the greater opportunities available to males in the labour market, an issue which merits more attention in the Irish context.” (p.173) But again with the financial crisis hitting Ireland hard, the employment situation has changed drastically.

A common pattern of male early school leavers is found across Europe, although the situation varies. In most European countries the **rate of male early school leavers with a migrant background is higher than the rate of male early school leavers without a migrant background**.

Figure 2.9 Early school leavers (percentage of population aged 15-24) by country group of birth and sex for EU 27, Norway and Iceland, 2009

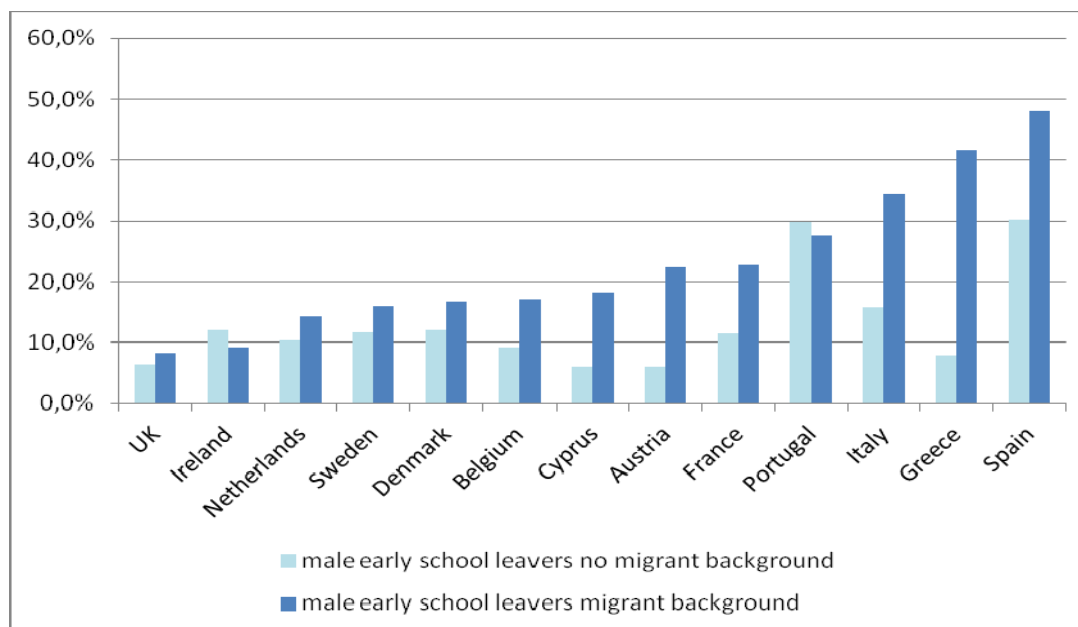


Source: LFS yearly data 2009; early school leaver = People aged 15-24 with at most ISCED level 0-2 and no further education during last 4 weeks; total = all EU27 countries and Norway, Iceland; own calculations.

In depth analysis shows that boys with a migration background are predominantly affected by troubles at school (see Herwartz-Emden, 2008; Stanat, 2006) as well as by low educational outcomes. Figure 2.10 shows people aged between 15 and 24 with at best ISCED level 0-2 and not being enrolled in further education. **Southern European countries** like Spain, Greece and Italy show high rates of male early school leavers and a **wide gap** between early school leavers without and with a migration background (except Portugal), in contrast to Northern European countries. This reflects very different histories, but also whether migrants (2nd or 3rd generation) have become integrated in different ways. Partly this depends on the degree of hospitality with which migrants are welcomed and on terms of multicultural and transnational belongings. If migrants feel unwelcome, it can be harder to integrate and this will be reflected by school achievements, especially if they have to work at a young age to support their families. Migrant boys in particular can also be subjected to bullying and racial

violence though, as data in the UK show, citizenship education can reinforce a sense of entitlement through education as a human right.

Figure 2.10 Male early school leavers by migrant background and country (population aged 15-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training), 2009



Source: LFS yearly data 2009; Early school leaver = People aged 15-24 with at most ISCED level 0-2 and no further education during last 4 weeks; migrant background = country of birth and/or nationality differ/s from country of actual residence; table includes only countries with reliable data; own calculation.

Figure 2.10 actually shows two variations among European countries. The **proportion of male early school leavers with a migrant background is lowest in Northern European countries**, and these countries show a very **small gap** between male early school leavers with a migrant background and male early school leavers without a migrant background. Again, this has to be analysed in relation to particular histories of migration and the ways this has led to different gender relations to education, also between different urban and rural areas. Often boys have more freedom but can be less engaged with schooling when they have less faith in the 'social ladder' effects of getting an education, especially in periods of high youth unemployment.

For Central European countries like **France and Austria**, **male early school leaver rates of more than 20%** are reported for young men with a migrant background. At the same time, Austria is among the countries with the lowest proportion of male early school leavers without a migrant background. The rate of male early school leavers with a migrant background is twice the rate of native boys in France, and even four times higher in Austria. Once again, this reflects **issues of citizenship status, language issues and terms of belonging**. There are different histories of migration and traditions of hospitality, but also in some countries one insists that migration is a temporary phenomenon, so that people should not in any way be encouraged to stay. These different factors will be reflected by education, figures for school leavers and entrance to tertiary education.

In general, **lower secondary education increasingly results in lower employment rates**, compared to higher levels of education (from upper secondary to tertiary education). (See annex 2.9) The precarious labour market position of lowly educated men has become worse in the past ten years and is likely to deteriorate in the current economic crisis. In almost all

European countries the employment rate of men has decreased, due to structural changes on the labour market (decrease of blue collar work, increase of tertiary sector) and economic crisis.

2.2.5 Educational achievements

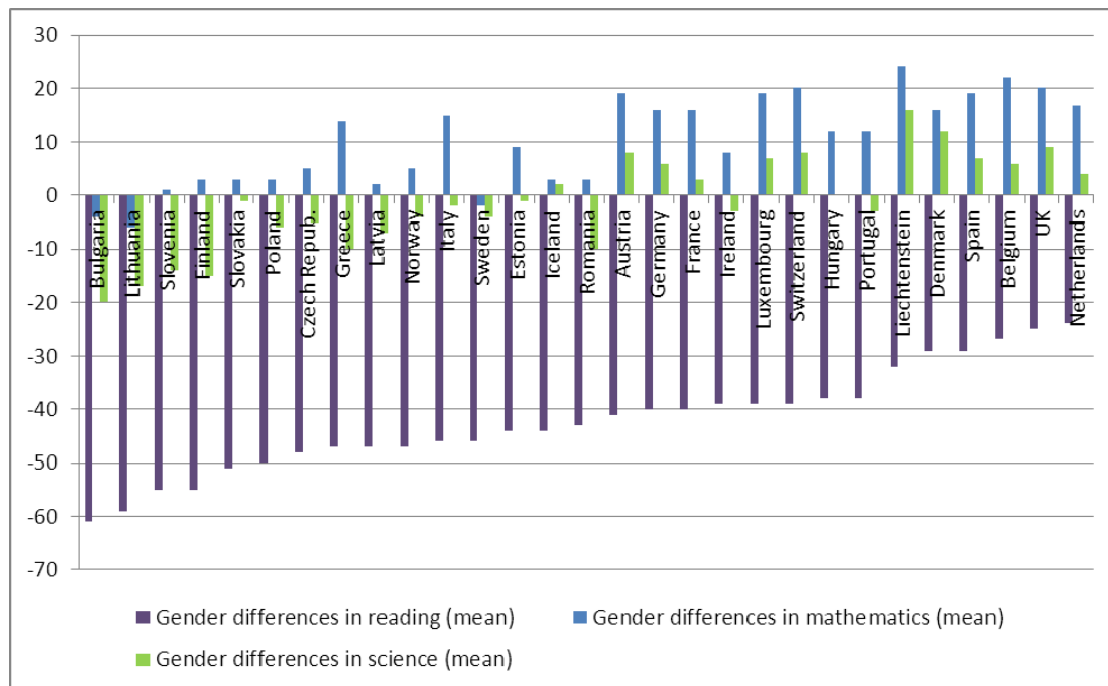
The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)⁵⁸, which assesses the knowledge and skills of 15-years-old students at the end of compulsory education, exposes gender differences in different study fields (reading, mathematics and science).

PISA results in 2009 show that the **gender gap** is *“far wider in reading than it is in either mathematics or science, and this has been true since the first PISA assessment in 2000.”* (OECD, 2010a, p. 46) On average, **girls outperform boys** in all countries participating in 2009, and the gender gap even widened in some countries between 2000 and 2009, but it did not become smaller in any of the countries.

- In Romania, for example, the gender gap in **reading skills** has doubled over the nine years period, mainly because of an improvement in girls’ performance in comparison with boys. In France and Sweden, the gender gap widened mainly because of a decline in boys’ performance. (See OECD, 2010a) On average *“the percentage of top performers increased among girls by more than nine percentage points and among boys by slightly less than five percentage points.”* (OECD, 2010a, p. 48)
- Trends in attitudes show that **girls “outnumber boys among students who read for enjoyment.”** (OECD, 2010a, p. 89) Across the OECD, 60% of boys and 77% of girls read for enjoyment in 2000. In 2009 the gender gap had widened (54% of boys and 74% of girls), mainly due to a greater decline among boys than among girls.
- Compared to reading, boys outperform girls in **mathematics** in more than half of the countries (35 out of the 65 countries) that participated in PISA 2009, and girls outperform boys in five countries. Boys outperform girls by an average of 12 score points, whereas in reading, girls outperform boys by an average of 39 score points. In some countries (for example Liechtenstein, Belgium, UK, United States, Switzerland) boys outperform girls by around and above 20 score points in mathematics. (See OECD, 2010b) A recent study on 15 to 17 years old students in Sweden, focussing on the perception of mathematics, showed that boys who were specialised in sciences were more likely to believe that mathematics are a male domain (see Brandell & Staberg, 2008), while other students tend to perceive it as ‘gender neutral’.
- **Science** seems to be *“a domain where policies that focus on gender equality have succeeded the most”* (OECD, 2010b, p. 28), due to the fact that, compared to reading and mathematics, **boys and girls seem to achieve very similar results**. In half of the countries there is no relevant difference in sciences performance between boys and girls. In countries like Finland, Slovenia and Turkey girls outperform boys while in other countries (Denmark, United States) boys outperform girls.

⁵⁸ 65 countries have implemented the PISA assessment in 2009: 34 OECD countries and 31 partner countries (<http://stats.oecd.org/PISA2009Profiles/#>) including all EU member states and EFTA states except Cyprus.

Figure 2.11 Pisa 2009: gender differences in students' performance (mean) in reading, mathematics and science, by country, 2009



Source: OECD (2010), *PISA 2009 Results: What students know and can do – Student performance in reading, mathematics and science*. Volume I. Explanatory note: minus bar means boys' underperformance in comparison to girls' performance and vice versa.

Comparative analyses of gender differences in learning outcomes, based on results of international students' assessments (data 1995 – 2005; PISA, PIRLS, TIMSS and others) “covering 4 school subjects (language, mathematics, science, and civic education)” and 6 grade levels (2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 8th)” (Ma, 2007, p. 95) show the following results:

- “[...] girls have kept their advantage in language across all regional and international student assessments, with the female advantage not only widespread but also substantial.” (Ma, 2007, p. 96)
- “[...] girls are catching up with boys in mathematics achievement with historical female breakthroughs in this traditionally male domain in both regional and international student assessments.” (Ma, 2007, p. 96)
- “[...] although boys manage to hold on to the male advantage in science, girls have gained ground, with historical female breakthroughs beginning to take place in this traditionally male domain.” (Ma, 2007, p. 96)

2.2.6 Differences among boys

While much attention is paid to tackling the gender differences in educational achievement, it is important to look at other factors as well. **Differences among boys are bigger than those between boys and girls.** Most notably, social class can exert a greater effect on educational performances than sex. (See Frosh, Phoenix & Pattman, 2002; Mac an Ghail, 1994; Ruxton, 2009) International research has indicated the influence of social class on educational success. (See Shavit & Blossfeld, 1993)

PISA results from 2006 showed a **greater influence of the socio-economic status** than gender and migration background in predicting learning outcomes in reading, mathematics and science. The socio-economic status explained around 5–25% of variance and exposed

statistically significant results in all countries. (See Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency [EACEA], 2010)

Ruxton (2009) argues, however, that the greater influence of social class does not mean that influences of gender should be minimised. It does put the issue of 'failing', 'underachieving' and 'problem' boys in a more appropriate context, though. If boys who are at risk of failing at school are characterised not only by being boys but as often by a lower socio-economic status, then strategies which seek to support these boys need to take into account gender and class at the same time. The reasons for failing at school may then differ because of other factors.

Box 2.2 - Education maintenance and low socio-economic position

United Kingdom

Some children from diverse cultural backgrounds can have strong verbal skills but perform less well in formal written tests, so that ways of assessment also need to be considered. This can be demoralising and make it more likely that these kids will leave school earlier, especially in the UK where the Educational Maintenance Allowance (EMA) has been withdrawn by the government. EMA had proved very effective with encouraging young people to stay in education. EMA gave students a small income that allowed them to be independent and afford travel, food and book costs. Many students who went on to university report that this had been a vital support at a crucial moment.

Belgium

In Belgium a growing gap in the relationship between boys and schooling is outlined as school can no longer provide them with a promising social and professional future, while girls use school as means of emancipation and professionalisation. This is, however, a controversial issue. In practice, policies are focussed on quality of education for all and on how to create socially mixed schools. The approach is compromised, however, by the fact that the link between school performance and the socio-economic positioning of the family has the strongest impact. (See Wuïame, 2011)

2.3 Analysis

2.3.1 Causes of gender segregation in education

Why does gender segregation appear as an immutable characteristic in education?

Research on different cultures in higher education⁵⁹ has outlined that "[...] *it is not a deficit in abstract thinking that drives them [women] away from technology, but the content and climate of technical institutions, referred to as an **atmosphere of dominant masculinity.***" (Sagebiel & Dahmen, 2006, p. 6) Women who dropped out of engineering courses have predominantly reported subtle forms of exclusion, based on gendered assumptions. (See Lynch & Feeley, 2009)

A similar mechanism may be assumed for female dominated occupations. One of the reasons why boys do not see care-related occupations as viable might be linked to **gender as an embedded structural principle related to subject and occupation**. Care-related work is strongly associated with women – this is true for family related work as well as for care as paid labour. The whole educational field is framed as a 'female' one and gender concepts are deeply lodged into organisational practices. (See Acker, 1992; 2006) Boys in this field of education (pioneers) have to bridge the gap between their expectations and a gendered order

⁵⁹ European project *WomEng-Creating Cultures of Success for Women Engineers*, <http://www.womeng.net/>

of the system. (See Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005) This may keep boys away from untypical educational fields.

Adolescence can be described as an important period in life, during which the development of identity requires a critical reflection of one's own role and position in society. A **binary gender order** shapes the **societal context** in which gender identity has to be developed. Under these conditions some subjects are framed as masculine and others as feminine, though we can trace processes of change across European societies.

Also other influential factors may shape the way to gender typical fields of education and occupations. Different studies describe the **important role of parents in the socialisation of boys**: *"Parents are powerful players in the gender game; they can and do reinforce gender stereotypical expectations."* (Lynch & Feeley, 2009, p. 37) Eccles and Wigfield (2002) showed that parents' expectations as well as their behaviour may discourage adolescents from choosing untypical occupations. Yryonides (2007) outlined that parent's attitudes towards gender equality do not automatically lead to gender-fair practices. Even if parents show a rather progressive attitude towards gender equality, they may invest more in their sons' education. (See Lynch & Feeley, 2009)

The persistent character of traditional career choices calls for **gender awareness in vocational guidance** in order to deal with gender stereotypes in the school environment as well as among students and employers. Gender-sensitive guidance is implemented only in some European countries, especially at lower and upper secondary level (see EACEA, 2009), and it is mainly targeted at girls. *"The purpose is to break traditional gender patterns and help girls choose, in particular, technology and natural science-oriented professions and educational pathways. Some countries (Belgium (Flemish Community), Germany, Luxembourg, Austria and Poland) organise in this context girls' days where companies and research institutions invite girls for visits to introduce them to technical jobs and careers which they traditionally do not take into consideration."* (EACEA, 2010, p. 63)

Vocational guidance initiatives for boys are less common.

Box 2.3 - Vocational guidance initiatives for boys

Austria and Germany

Vocational initiatives encouraging boys to choose non-traditional careers have increasingly emerged in Germany (*New Paths for Boys*) and Austria (*Boys' Day*) in the past decade. These initiatives predominantly focus on expanding the range of preferences towards care-related occupations.

Ireland

In Ireland, a programme for boys (*Exploring Masculinities*) addresses social and personal issues as well as issues around subjects and careers. This programme has been developed by the Department of Education and Science for male students aged 15-18.

2.3.2 Why are boys and young men losing out?

Scientific experts point out that in recent years, public discourse and policies about gender equality in education have focussed on the **'boy crisis'** and on 'failing boys' at school. (See Šmídová, 2011) The discourses focus on the point that currently school privileges girls and disadvantages boys. These debates as well as appropriate policies are often reduced to single causal factors (mono-causal explanations), and they tend to ignore trajectories which lead to a deeper understanding of this complex social phenomenon. While general tenden-

cies are outlined, there are also hierarchies and differences among boys that need to be seen and that might be easily overlooked if we understand boys as generally underachieving or disadvantaged.

The idea that schools privilege girls and disadvantage boys may be convincing when looking at the data presented in this chapter. However, looking at gender differences as found in the PISA studies, we see that there are **fields in which boys are not generally achieving less than girls** (mathematics and science). Also, scientific experts have pointed out that the **pay-off of education** is not the same for young women and young men. A comparative study that relates early school drop out of young men to their labour market opportunities confirms that worse formal education still pays off for men compared to women. (See Valentová, Šmídová, & Katrňák, 2007)

Furthermore, there are other outcomes of education, such as self-esteem or trusting in one's abilities that are not distributed in favour of girls but rather in favour of boys: more often than girls, **boys tend to attribute success to their own abilities**, and failure to bad luck or other external factors. Boys tend to overestimate their skills, in contrast to girls who tend to underestimate their skills. Research on boys' and girls' self-esteem in adolescence also bridges structural inequality in societies and gender norms in education. Research in the United States shows that **girls "lose their voices"** (Brown & Gilligan 1992, cit. in Kimmel, 2010, p. 31), **boys become more confident** (Pollack, 1997, cit. in Kimmel, 2010) when they reach adolescence: "[...] girls suppress ambition, boys inflate it." (Kimmel, 2010, p. 31) Similar trends have been shown in Europe. (See Helfferich, et al., 2009) This means that girls' and boys' self-esteem can turn in opposite directions. While this may also be one reason for boys working less hard for school, one may as well argue that a higher self-esteem and helpful strategies of attributing success and failure may help with being less dependent upon formal education. For these reasons the notion of disadvantaged boys should be used carefully, as it does not cover the whole situation.

2.3.2.1 School as a feminised environment disadvantaging boys?

The idea of disadvantaged boys furthermore portrays educational institutions as actively disadvantaging boys, as it is assumed in the critique of school as a numerically and culturally feminised environment. (See Francis & Skelton, 2005)

'**Numerical feminisation**' addresses the growing proportion of female teachers. Michael Kimmel (2010) pointed out that some groups of observers refer to the gender of teachers as the "*factor driving the boy crisis*" (Kimmel, 2010, p. 16). It is argued that the paucity of male teachers, seen as male role models in primary and secondary education, discourages boys' motivation and engagement. (See Thornton & Bricheno, 2006) A connection between the proportion of female and male teachers and students' outcomes has, however, not been found in research.

While the teaching profession is indeed feminised in many European countries, particularly in primary education but also in lower secondary education, there is more to be seen: "*The more educational work is related to the transmission of knowledge (and less about nurturing and care), the more it is related to decision making (and less to everyday education/teaching), the closer it is related to adulthood (and the less it is related to infancy), the more men currently do this work. Hence, the field of education is not simply feminised, but gendered, and it does include fields associated with masculinity rather than femininity.*" (Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

A second version of the feminisation-thesis is the idea of a '**cultural feminisation**' (often both versions appear together), which includes the idea that the learning styles and educational needs of boys and girls are fundamentally different. The idea that such a difference is based

on biological factors (brain, hormones) has increasingly become popular. Consequently, when female teachers are seen to feminise the learning culture at schools, this must be a disadvantage for boys “[...] because the ‘feminized’ classroom emphasizes girls’ skills and de-emphasizes boys’ skills.” (Kimmel, 2010, p. 18) It is, for example, seen as the teachers’ task to create an environment where ‘male energy’ can develop and not just ‘female energy’. (Gurian quoted in Knickerbocker, 1999, cit. in Kimmel, 2010, p. 18) However, research questions these generalised notions; the point is rather to create learning environments in which gender and sexual differences can also be given due recognition in education as a process of human development.

2.3.2.2 The hidden curriculum: gender climate at school and the role of boys

According to Kimmel (2010), a false opposition between the genders is drawn when educational reforms of the past decades, which were implemented in order to reduce gender inequality, are blamed for hindering boys’ educational achievements. In general, major changes in education in the past decade show an increase of educational attainment both for boys and girls, while at the same time the proportion of early school leavers has decreased. As data for EU member states and EFTA states show, **more boys and girls have completed higher education than ever before**, but the increase for girls is higher than the increase for boys. Michael Kaufman outlined for Canada that part of the change is not boys doing worse but so many girls doing better: “[...] girls having the confidence in their own abilities and capacities, and more teachers are now supporting girls’ efforts.” (Kaufman, 2012)

School as a gender biased environment

Scientific experts from Spain, Lithuania, Latvia and Slovenia point to **school as a gender biased environment** both referring to professionals at school as well as to learning methods and materials.

“In this regard, teachers are not sufficiently aware and trained to deal with stereotypes and gender segregation. In many cases they feel that gender issues are already overcome or are not a priority.” (Abril Morales & Romero, 2011) Research about teachers’ attitudes in Lithuania show strong stereotypical understandings about women and men: *“Teachers usually express their fear that gender equality will make more harm on girls’ and boys’ identities and eliminate girls’ ‘femininity’ and boys’ ‘masculinity’. Some teachers argue that beautiful girls do not need mathematics or physics, their interests are about fashion and beauty rather than sciences, while boys are much more interested in technological issues.”* (Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011)

Especially for Post-socialist countries and Southern European countries, experts point to the need to improve knowledge and awareness of gender identities and the gendered structure of societies. As teachers are important sources of information for children, their lack of knowledge and interest will *“contribute to the maintaining discrimination and inequalities at school.”* (Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011) The Latvian country report acknowledges that there are significant social barriers with *“stereotypical attitudes towards men portray them as aggressive, less caring, career oriented and controlling”* and show the significance of gender awareness in education, asserting that *“following written state guidelines and supported by gender unaware school and university teachers, such discriminatory ideology is being ingrained in children, teenagers and adolescents of both sexes from early age.”* (Novikova, 2011)

Textbooks, learning methods and tools are sources of knowledge for children which may contain gender biased information. **Gender stereotypes in school textbooks and educational materials** affect socialisation patterns and the development of a gendered identity,

and it affects occupational preferences as well as family and caring roles of men and women. Analyses of textbooks revealed a wide range of more or less subtle ways of gender construction. Dualisms of active/passive, public/private and/or culture/nature clearly associated with male/female reproduce un-reflected images of men and women and strengthen inequalities at school and in society. (See Hrzenjak, 2011; Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011) Textbooks often do not represent the diversity of boys and girls and reproduce the marginalisation of gays, lesbians, bisexuals and transgender people. (See Bittner, 2012)

Patterns of masculinities and their impact on educational career

In general, it is obvious that boys and girls are better educated than ever before. But why do girls do better than boys? Is it the enthusiasm for learning and hard work which produces well educated girls and working girls? (See McRobbie, 2009; McRobbie, et al., 2010) Or is there a predominant concept of masculinity, which is less combinable with doing well at school?

What makes a boy a **'real' boy** could be strongly **connected to disengagement at school**, and it is the peer group which shapes the orientation patterns of masculinity. Pollack (1998) speaks of the 'boy code', characterised by the invisibility of vulnerability, and Kimmel (2008) further developed the 'guy code' in *Guyland*. "*What is most astonishing [...] is that it remains fairly firmly in place despite the massive changes in women's lives.*" (Kimmel, 2010, p. 29) Kaufman speaks of a kind of *hyper-masculinity* being currently celebrated, which is characterised by a glamorization of muscles as well as a rejection of intellectual engagement among young men that lasts well into their twenties. Following Kaufman's argumentation, this is a reaction to feminism, an assertion of qualities that assert a type of masculine space denied to women. (See Kaufman, 2012)

But there have been significant changes since the 1980s, especially at inner city schools across parts of Europe, where **alternative masculinities** and much more tolerance among young people towards gender and sexual differences are visible. (See Seidler, 2005)

Nevertheless, with high youth unemployment across Europe (especially in Southern countries) young men may get the impression that school does not promise a future, so that they resort to traditional masculinities. We find an increase in bullying as well as an increase in peer pressure towards traditional masculinity. Scientific experts point out for Spain that nowadays boys have more difficulties at school, get worse marks, "*have more discipline problems, more often resolve conflicts with violence and are more likely to drop out of school after compulsory secondary education.*" (Abril Morales & Romero, 2011) The orientation at traditionally formed patterns of masculinity (power, dominance, competition, etc) leads to conflicts at school: "*Doing masculinity [...] and doing student [...] thus become contradictory.*" (Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

In Germany, qualitative research on boys' situation at schools has shown that **boys very rarely have the possibility to reflect on their gendered practices** (see Budde, 2006) and therefore find it hard to develop a gendered awareness that includes themselves. Especially in countries like Germany and Austria, projects for boys are increasingly offered, but research indicates that too often these offers rather reproduce stereotypes than support a gender sensitive reflection on masculinity. (See Budde, et al., 2012)

For Switzerland, a clear **correlation between traditional gender behaviour and low school performance has been** revealed: "*[...] the researchers could attribute lower male school success to 'school alienation' (low intrinsic motivations, negative attitudes, negative peer pressure, see Hadjar, Lupatsch 2010, 617). It seems that the persistence of traditional role models became dysfunctional for schoolboys.*" (Fuchs, 2011)

Within the gender system, **girls' success may lead to a reinforcement of traditional masculinity** and seems to even encourage boys' disruptive behaviour and school refusal.

- Seidler (2000) argued that when boys face difficulties with their learning or at home they can feel **unable to reach out for support**, since asking for help may be perceived as a sign of weakness and threatens their male identity.
- The 'boy code', characterised by an intrinsic principle of male power, leads to false voices of bravado, and **boys are likely to overestimate their abilities**, which finally results in lower educational achievements: *"They are not better than the girls – they just thought they were."* (Kimmel, 2010, p. 32)
- But if we also understand this as a '**mask**' boys feel they must put on, especially if they are losing out in competition with girls, then it will be important that awareness for the psycho-social dynamics in classrooms will have to be included into teachers' training.

Most of the research results do not refer to a 'feminised' school environment as a driving factor for boys' disengagement but rather to the fact that **boys ascribe traditional patterns of masculinity to themselves**, which prevents them from educational success. And as long as gender norms and prejudices are an integral standard of school systems and societies (see Biffi & Skrivanek, 2011), this situation will not change at all. This means that a greater focus on gender equality at schools and in educational policies is recommended. (See Ruxton, 2009)

Engaging with Differences

While public discourses about 'failing boys' focus on differences between girls and boys, other categories of social difference are concealed. Especially **differences among boys**, most notably social class, appear to have a great effect on early school leaving in many European countries (especially Germany, Belgium, Austria, Ireland and United Kingdom). Gender should not be ignored, but the focus on social class puts the issue of male early school leavers in a more appropriate context. (See Raine & White, 2011)

For the USA, Canada and Australia similar patterns are outlined. Girls outperform boys in higher levels of educational attainment, and boys are more likely to drop out. But – as Pease described for Australia - it depends on which boys are addressed. **Boys missing out** in the Australian education system are predominantly **indigenous boys, refugees and boys from rural, lower income backgrounds**. A well known pattern is described: While public discourse and policies about gender equality focus on boys missing out and the feminisation of school, more in-depth studies point to a more complex picture: issues like class, sexual orientation, race and ethnicity and rural versus urban location shape the phenomenon. (See Pease, 2012)

Social class

Phoenix and Frosh (2001) pointed out that important characteristics of masculinity are strongly influenced by socio-economic status. Qualitative interviews with boys at schools in London, both in the private ('independent') and state education sector, exposed **different aspects of 'doing boy' and 'being a man'** in both worlds. Boys in educationally disadvantaged positions, who are predominantly part of the state education system in London, show different targets and future perspectives than boys at private schools. Physical power, attractiveness and coolness form important attributes of masculine orientation patterns of boys at state schools, while intelligence, success and career shape the appropriate patterns of boys at private schools. Helfferich et al. (2009) have also shown the devaluation of educational success as an important collective strategy towards the construction of a superior masculinity. These characteristics prepare and shape their future perspectives. By implementing a

publicly funded comprehensive school system that is no longer divided between private and state and by making teacher education more valued, Finland has proven able to raise the levels of numeracy and literacy among boys.

Migration background

Recent studies examined the influence of school on the educational careers of boys and young men with a migration background.

- **Culturalised interpretation patterns** of teachers tend to reduce educational perspectives of boys with a migration background. (See Stanat, 2006, cit. in Herwartz-Emden, 2008) Teachers predominantly described boys with a migration background in a **deficit-oriented** way, which is supposed to be due to their migration background and an implied patriarchal pattern. These stereotypical attributions lead to a dilemma for the boys: they either try to comply with these culturalised expectations, which will lead to devaluation, or they try to overcome these expectations through strong counter-adaptations. These deficit-oriented patterns of culturalisation are seen as one of the main reasons for class repetitions of boys with a migration background. (See Söhn & Özcan, 2005; Weber, 2006)
- In Switzerland, Juhasz and Mey (2003) analysed the **educational biographies** of male migrants and outlined differences between well and less well adapted adolescents. Male migrants with educational success are perceived as well adapted within their social environment. Those who fail in terms of education are rather perceived as deviant boys. For the latter, low support and acknowledgment from teachers is evident. (See Juhasz & Mey, 2003)

Good practice examples on policy and school level have been reported in different countries across Europe. These examples are outlined in the following box.

Box 2.4 - Good practice examples for gender equality and social inclusion

Austria

In 1995, the teaching principle *Education to Equality between Women and Men* was integrated into the curricula of the Austrian educational system, as a measure in the context of the strategy of gender mainstreaming. Information about the educational principle, objectives and contents were handed over to the provincial school authorities and to the colleges for teacher training. The aim was to raise awareness among teachers, so those working in the field of education should consider gender equality issues in classes as well as in contents, textbooks and education materials, and they should be able to intensify the debate on gender equality in schools. The educational principle has intended to raise the awareness of gender specific socialisation, distribution of paid and unpaid work, the impact of the school environment for reproducing gender biases, violence and oppression at school and strengthening self-awareness, self-confidence and socio-cooperation at school. The provincial school supervisors and the municipal education authorities are requested to offer special in-service programmes in order to develop appropriate methodology and didactics. (See Scambor & Scambor, 2011)

Cyprus

Poverty and social exclusion are directly associated with educational attainment. According to the governmental strategy for social protection and social inclusion, it is a priority to improve educational levels, which will lead to increased employment opportunities, higher living standards and increased access to goods and services. Among the objectives of the strategy there is the prevention of early school leaving, the facilitation of access to secondary education for immigrant children, the improvement of the information technology infrastructure at public schools, the expansion of all-day school and the operation of second chance schools in the main towns of Cyprus. The strategy should offer the opportunity to those who are considered early leavers to re-enter the school system, so that they will have the necessary qualifications to enter higher education. (See Koutselini, 2011)

Germany

The German federal government funds the network project *New Paths for Boys* that provides resources for the education of boys towards a broadening of their understanding of masculinity in general and a broadening of their career choices in particular (since 2005). The project counts 191 partners in Germany. An evaluation of the project has shown that half of the schools involved in *Girls Day*, a nation-wide day introducing girls aged 10-15 to professions in the field of technology, information technology and science, also provided offers for boys. Two thirds of these schools also offer classes or groups for boys on a regular basis. (See Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

Ireland

Tackling the imperative for men to be dominant and educating boys about sexuality, masculinity, health and wellbeing has been central to attempt to provide boys with a more rounded education in Ireland. Crucial to this has been developing strategies to deal with oppressive hierarchical gendered relations within the institutional practices of Irish primary schools, so that children who are perceived as different, disabled or weaker do not experience bullying. They have had to develop sex education programmes at schools that have a critical engagement with dominant masculinities. They have also recognised an urgent need to develop programmes to educate all citizens – boys and girls – for care. (See Hanlon, 2011)

United Kingdom

The *Equality Act 2010* replaced previous anti-discrimination laws with a single act, thereby simplifying the law and removing inconsistencies. The public sector *Equality Duty* introduced as part of this act came into force in April 2011 and combined the *Gender Equality Duty* with those related to race and disability. This *Equality Duty* is seen to represent a significant opportunity to address concerns relevant for men and boys. There is, for example, a requirement on schools to address inequality issues, allowing for an improved understanding of the experiences, attitudes and achievements of both boys and girls, and the subsequent development of effective policy and practice. (See Raine & White, 2011)

2.4 Conclusions and recommendations

Research on the underachievement of boys across Europe shows that the differences among boys are bigger than those between boys and girls and that the differences related to class, 'race', ethnicities and migration must be thoroughly considered by any related policy. Also it must be fully acknowledged that, considering gender equality in education, a whole range of issues must be tackled, such as literacy, bullying at school, homophobic violence, human rights and citizenship education. These policies open up different paths through which boys can become men and learn to respect their own gender and sexual identities as well as those of others.

Concerning issues of 'race', disability and sexual orientation, the awareness must be raised of how these categories are interrelated with gender equality issues. In the following section we give an overview of recommendations that should be developed in Europe from childhood to lifelong learning.

Recommendations

Integrate gender equality programmes in early childhood education

Horizontal segregation shows the endurance of quite different cultural traditions of gender hierarchy in different parts of Europe that need to be dealt with in education at an early age if more opportunities are supposed to be opened up for young people. To support this process it is necessary to recognise the significance of early and pre-school education and to implement gender equality initiatives at early childhood institutions.

These initiatives at national level should include:

- Develop specific **curricula for teachers and educators** working in the field of early education which include compulsory gender equality modules to encourage teachers and educators to reflect on their own gender behaviour. An introduction to non-stereotyped methodology in pre-school education programmes for boys and girls should be provided.
- Improve **educational syllabuses** for pre-elementary schools which include the aim of promoting gender equality by taking both genders into account.
- Implement **gender equality programmes** for early childhood education, including the encouragement of boys to experience a broad range of skills and competences not only limited to those expected to be "traditionally" male.

Foster initiatives to reduce horizontal segregation in education

As studies show, teachers, parents and peers are important players in framing educational and occupational preferences and in reinforcing stereotypical expectations, framed by a binary gender order in society. The study at hand shows the constant prevalence of horizontal segregation in the educational system, which indicates a strong need for initiatives and campaigns to promote gender equality focussing on boys and girls in untypical educational paths and occupations. Projects like *New Paths for Boys* in Germany or *Boys' Day* in Austria realise activities for boys with regard to expanding their range of preferences towards care-related occupations as well as their range of soft skills (social competencies) towards caring masculinities. But not only boys have to be prepared; also their environment (peers, teachers and relatives) has to be prepared as well.

Initiatives at EU, national as well as at regional level should include:

- Implement **initiatives and projects to support untypical educational choices**, to encourage young men to enrol in untypical fields of study; such programmes should also include non-traditional work experiences.
- Develop gender sensitive **seminars for educational counsellors** to support their encouragement of young men (and women) to broaden educational/career choices.
- Support **campaigns** which include the promotion of **male role models in untypical careers**.

Promote gender equality in teaching

The study results show a necessity to analyse teaching styles and materials as well as educator-student interactions with regard to gender stereotypes, gendered expectations and hierarchies. Furthermore, an increase of teachers' knowledge of gender is recommended in order to encourage them to work against stereotypical practices at school and in education.

Initiatives at national level should include:

- Implement **compulsory gender equality modules in the curricula** for teachers.
- Support a gender sensitive teaching style by **special training programmes for teachers**, implemented in further education for teachers and postgraduate programmes.
- Develop **incentives** in this regard, like **scholarships and awards** for gender sensitive teaching or schools which are especially committed in this respect.
- Analyse and **adapt educational material**, like textbooks, learning material and tools if they contain gender reflective information and represent the diversity of boys and girls in society.
- Support programmes to encourage under-represented groups of teachers (under-represented gender, migrant groups, etc) to ensure that teachers represent the **diversity**

of men and women in European societies and also to give children an opportunity to become early acquainted with **men in care-giving roles**.

Improve gender equality policy programmes in education

As this study shows, school may still be seen as a gender biased environment, and as long as gender equality is not addressed, a lack of knowledge and consciousness of gender identities and the gendered structure of societies may lead to the reproduction of gender stereotypes at school. Therefore, educational institutions should be required to implement gender equality policy programmes in order to avoid stereotypes that restrict options for boys and girls in various ways.

Initiatives at EU and national level should include:

- Develop **gender equality standards** at EU level: the implementation of the standards at schools should be encouraged in EU member states.
- Develop **national standards for gender equality policy programmes in education**, including concrete equality targets and measures which are monitored, evaluated and reported at national level as well as for each school.
- Conduct **awards and public appraisals** for schools especially dedicated in this respect to support the implementation of such programmes.

Integrate gender reflective measures on the role of men in gender equality

The attitudes and approaches to educational success are very strongly connected to social practices of gender. Ideals of masculinity play an important role, their impact on the performance of male youngsters must not be underestimated and has to be understood in order to develop and apply appropriate measures. Therefore, education itself has to be addressed as an important field in which the role of boys and men in gender equality should be mainstreamed.

Initiatives at national as well as at regional level should include:

- Implement **gender reflective workshops** for boys and girls in order to critically discuss gender norms in the students' environment. It should become clear that traditional gender roles tend to limit future prospects. Young people should be provided with tools and knowledge to recognise gender stereotypes and gender typical professions.
- Develop **programmes to encourage non-violence at schools** through anti-bullying strategies, an emphasis on human rights and equal voice. These initiatives can also help with sustaining cultures of gender equality that can foster the positive engagement of boys with schooling.

Keep disadvantaged groups of young people in education

While attention is paid to tackling gender differences in the educational system, it is obvious that differences among boys are big and talking about 'the boys' as a homogenous group can be misleading. Most notably, social class and migration status seem to have a greater effect on educational career than gender.

Therefore, gender equality policies in education need to pay attention to social class, migration and gender at the same time, in order to adapt gendered practices and patterns in education.

Initiatives at EU and national level should include:

- Implement **socially-inclusive learning strategies** which value informal skills (e.g. writing songs and lyrics, *Hip Hop*, etc) and competences in order to keep disadvantaged groups of young people in education.
- Conduct **awards** for schools that value informal skills (see above) to strengthen this strategy. This can be fostered through EU educational programmes and implemented by national authorities.
- Support the development of special **VET (Vocational education and training) programmes** (dual system model of education) in order to raise the chance for disadvantaged groups to stay in education.
- Develop flexible VET programmes, which open the way from upper secondary education to tertiary education (from apprenticeship to university-entrance diploma).
- Initiate **allowances** paid directly to young people (or disadvantaged young people) to stay in education after compulsory school.
- Develop **social programmes** designed to encourage disadvantaged groups of young people to stay in education, which also include working with their environment (parents, peers, etc).

3 Work

3.1 Introduction

The social relations of work represent some of the most fundamental aspects of gender relations as well as some of the most important elements in the construction of men and men's relation to women and children. Paid work has been figured and continues to figure as a central source of men's identity, status and power. Yet many studies on work, organisations and management have long assumed their subject as being gender neutral.

Over the past few years the concept of 'multiple masculinities' (Carrigan, Connell & Lee, 1985) has become one of the most influential terms in analysing men at work. This concept is based on the assumption that there is not one right way to be a man, but different patterns and orientation models of masculinities. Therefore the approach focusses on the social construction of difference according to migration background, age, class, sexuality, ethnicity, occupation, and so on, which is seen as an important basis for the reproduction of gendered asymmetrical power among men and between men and women. The diversity of masculinities is also partly shaped by the different forms of work and locations of workplaces. (See Collinson & Hearn, 1996) Masculinities vary according to occupation, kind of industry, workplace culture, type of organisation and other characteristics.

At a glance

- Traditional division of work by gender has been challenged by social processes, with globalisation and economic crisis as the most significant ones.
- Especially working class men, men with a lower educational level in regions of former manufacturing industry and rural areas have increasingly been affected by job losses and reductions in prospects for secure employment.
- At large, the unemployment rate of women still exceeds the rate of men in the EU, whereas for young people (15-24) the gender gap in some countries turns into the opposite direction.
- Although employment patterns for men and women are becoming more similar, there are still differences in certain aspects, such as working time structures, segregation patterns and pay gaps.
- Part time work, less valued occupations, as well as lower salaries are rather female issues, while working overtime and dominating on the management level are still connected to the male gender.
- Horizontal segregation still remains high and has changed little since 1990. While women have made significant inroads into some traditionally male dominated sectors, men have mainly remained in traditionally male dominated professions.
- Horizontal and vertical segregation are interrelated. In general, the higher the vertical segregation, the higher is also the horizontal segregation, with some exceptions in Nordic countries, where high levels of horizontal segregation are accompanied by low levels of vertical segregation.
- Male employees are not a homogenous group, and therefore there exist different employment patterns between certain groups. Among the most significant factors which in-

fluence differentiations there are: age, family situation, class, education, migration background, etc.

- In recent decades, changes in gender divisions in middle management and professions are reported for some countries, while very slow changes appear at the top of business.
- There is a connection between work satisfaction and actual working time. Male employees in the EU 27 are predominantly satisfied with their working conditions if their numbers of weekly working hours are low (around 37 working hours) and vice versa.
- Although men's attitudes have shifted from a clear provider role towards care-integrating models (especially fathering) in the past decades, organisations predominantly do not change their view of 'caring men'.
- Among the main recommendations regarding increasing gender equality at work there are:
 - reducing social exclusion on the labour market;
 - change workplaces: from traditional masculinity to gender equal workplaces;
 - support measures to increase men's participation in female dominated occupations;
 - support the reconciliation of care, home and paid work for men.

In this chapter, after summarising the basic results, changes and trends in work as related to gender and men, four topics (working time models, horizontal and vertical segregation as well as organisational cultures) will be analysed. Ongoing developments in the restructuring of paid work (caused by globalisation, but also by gender equality endeavour in the past few decades and by the ongoing economic crisis) and their consequences for men and gender equality will be outlined. The economic crisis in Europe has brought along some major challenges for work, employment and gender equality in the European economy. Sustainable growth and the creation of new quality jobs should be pursued and offered to European societies. (See European Commission, 2010) In the *Europe 2020 strategy* the topic of work, its promotion and distribution is one of the central planks for a way out of the crisis.

3.2 Basic results

3.2.1 Overall development

In most European regions, the traditional gendered division of labour is challenged by different developments: not only have women claimed higher positions on the labour markets but their labour market participation has also increased in most countries. At the same time, many men have been hit by long-time unemployment. The 'male breadwinner model' has lost ground. Policies of gender equality, but also changes in industrial relations (like the shift from a products-based to a service-based economy) have had a huge impact on men's labour market positions.

A fundamental aspect of work restructuring is the **impact of globalisation**. Outsourcing is increasing, not only regarding less skilled work but also medium and highly skilled work. Such changes have implications for reducing many men's prospects of long-term secure employment in the sector of their choice. The intersections of Post-socialist transition, European integration (in flows of goods, capital, information, people) and work restructuring have contributed to higher levels of migration. The migration of workers raises many issues in terms of relations of work, home and family, management of work, cultural and linguistic questions, and access to equal rights for workers. The Latvian country report notes that men

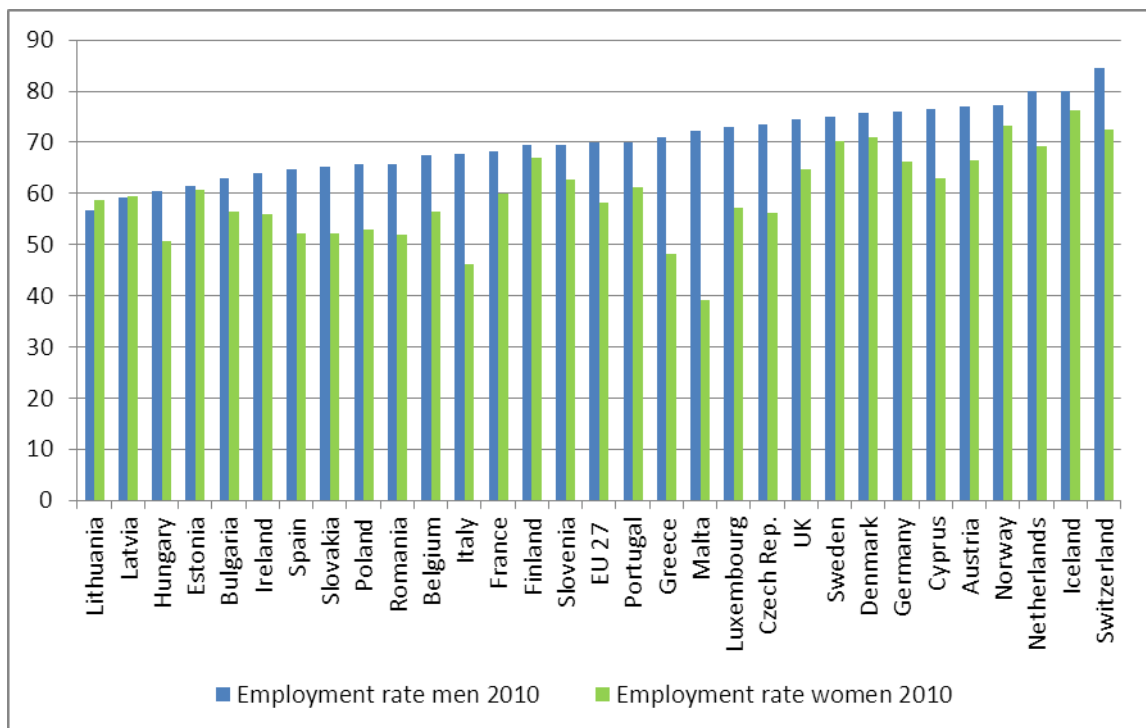
with a migration background “are predominantly involved in the jobs not always adequate to their education and skills, such as blue-collar jobs (building industry), services and as unskilled labourers in agricultural and other sectors of recipient economies.” (Novikova, 2011)

Another macro aspect of current globalisation processes in relation to work that clearly cannot be ignored is the **contemporary economic crisis**. In the past few years, the EU states have experienced divergent economic trends, with competitiveness gaps and macro-economic imbalances. A key issue is the gendered nature of policy response. While the economic crisis has reduced employment for some men, there has also been a growth of gender biases in politics in relation to the economic crisis. Finance ministers, financial boards, economists and banks have generally maintained what has been called ‘strategic silence’ on gender, even though their policies have uneven effects on men and women. Generally, deflationary policies, policies based on the assumption of the male breadwinner, and state cutbacks (rather than higher taxes) tend to have less effect upon men and more upon women. (See Young, Bakker & Elson, 2011; Villa & Smith, 2010) In some countries the economic crisis initially had a stronger impact on men and employment of men, but later more impact on women, with cutbacks in state services and support and loss of jobs. (See Wuame, 2011)

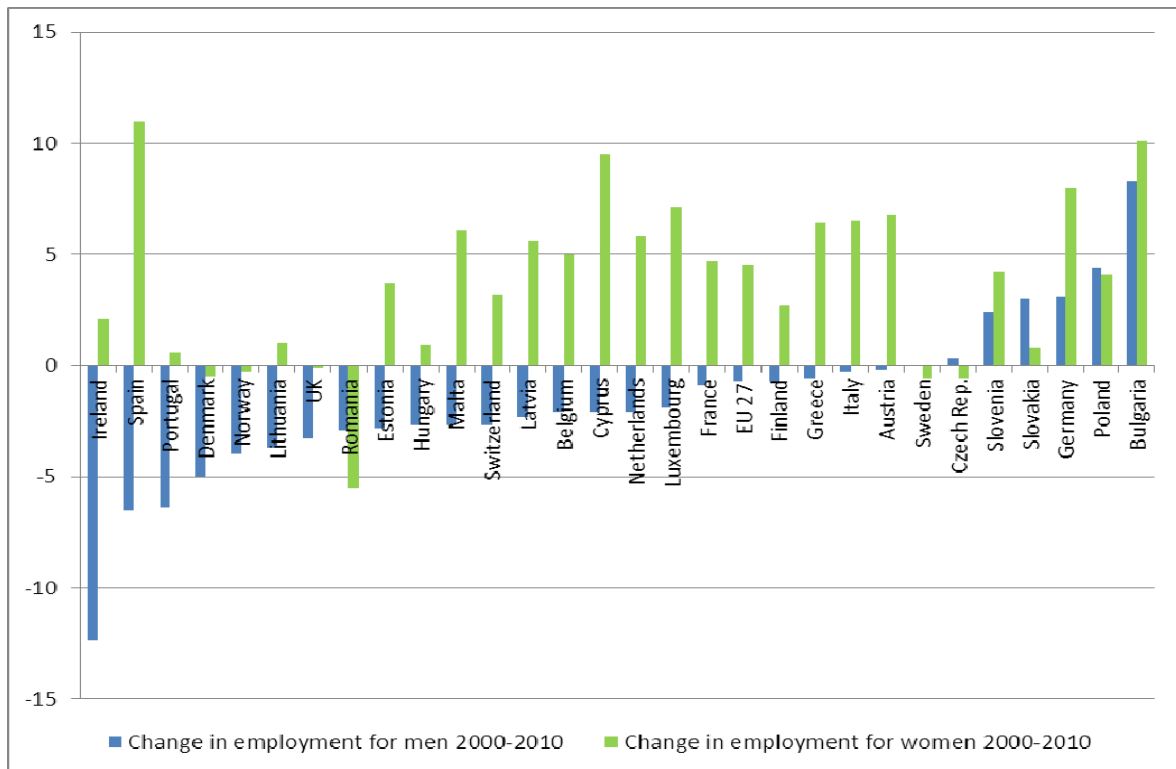
3.2.2 Employment and unemployment

Women’s and men’s employment patterns have become more similar. While on the whole the employment rates of women in the EU 27 have increased by 4.5% (2000–2010), employment rates of men have been relatively stable (-0.7%). One exception is Bulgaria, with a significant increase for both men (8.3%) and women (10.1%). In Portugal (-6.4%), Spain (-6.5%) and Ireland (-12.4%), employment rates of men showed the strongest decreases.

Figure 3.1 Employment rates (age group 15-64) by sex, in %, 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsl_emp_a); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Figure 3.2 Change in employment for men and women (age group 15-64), in %, 2000-2010

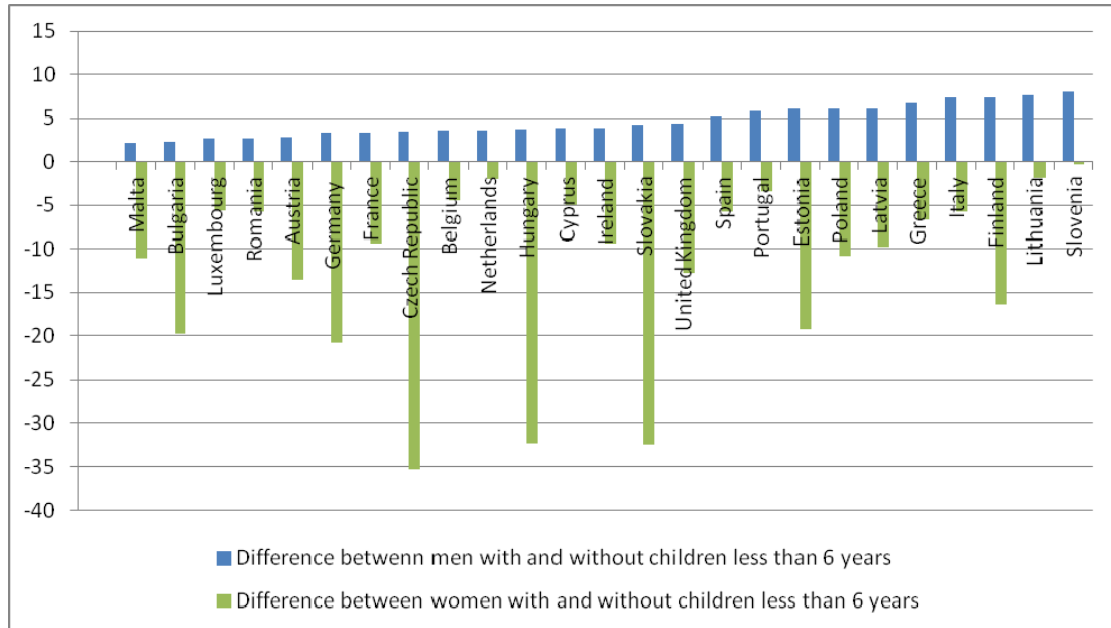
Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsl_emp_a); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Within these broad patterns, national employment rates for men vary considerably in 2010, from 56.8% in Lithuania to 84.6% in Switzerland. (See annex 3.1)

Labour market participation is strongly linked to **educational attainment**, an effect which is even increasing. While for men with tertiary education the employment rate in 2010 was 85.8% (2001: 86.9%), for men with lower secondary education it was only 53.5% (2001: 58.8%). (See annex 3.2)

A major issue in understanding employment patterns is the **intersection of gender and family, age, and responsibilities for young children**. Men with young children tend to have higher employment rates compared to those without children, while for women the opposite holds. In the age group of 25-49 years, the employment gap between men with children under six years and those without is particularly high in some Post-socialist and Southern countries and in Finland. Employment gaps of less than 3% between men with and without children under six years have been found for Austria, Bulgaria, Luxembourg, Malta and Romania. Women with children under six years tend to have lower employment rates than other women. These employment gaps are highest in the Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary and Slovakia, with gap rates of more than 20%. (See annex 3.3)

Figure 3.3 Differences in employment rates between 24 to 49 year old employees with and without children under six years, by sex, in %, 2010



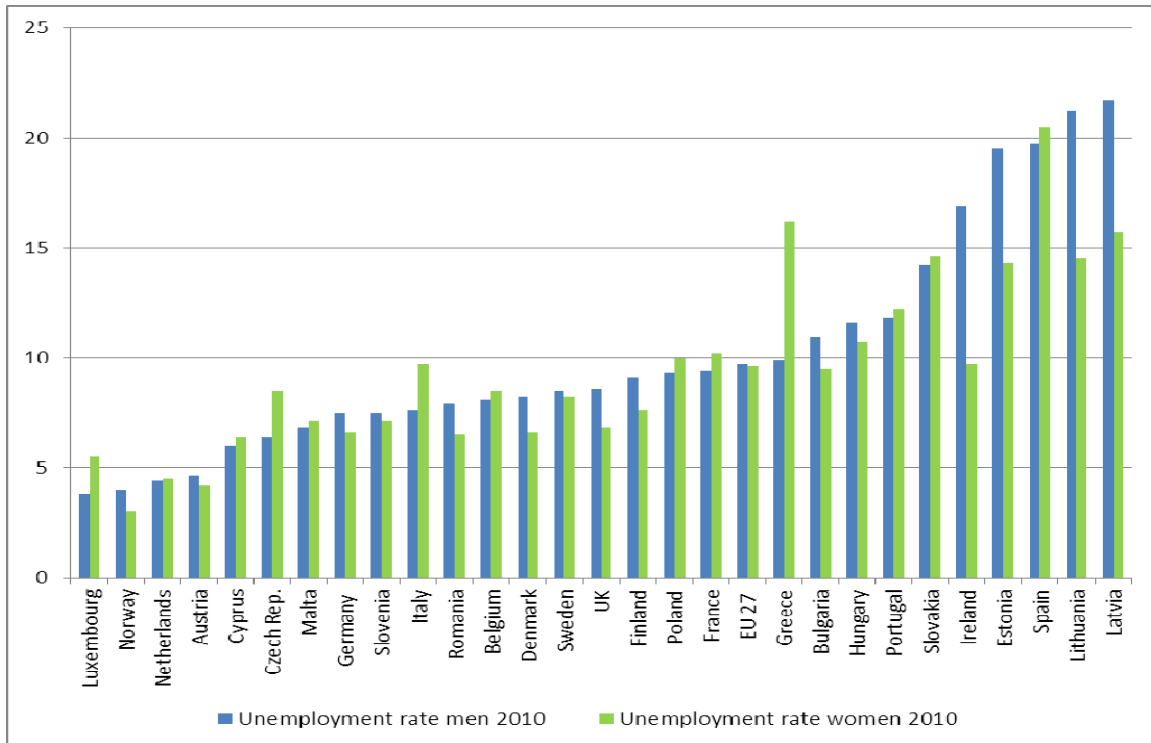
Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfst_hheredch); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Unemployment is a major issue on European labour markets. While in early 2000 about 9% of the total labour force was unemployed in the EU 27, in 2010 and 2011 the average unemployment rate was 9.7%. About 24.9 million men and women in the EU 27 were unemployed in May 2012. The rates vary extremely all over Europe, ranging from 4.1% in Austria to 24.6% in Spain. (Eurostat 2012⁶⁰) In 2010 the EU gender gap was 0.1% in favour of women (positive values indicate lower unemployment rates for women than for men). It was remarkably high in Ireland (7.2%) and Lithuania (6.7%). In some states lower unemployment rates were reported for men than for women, like in Greece (-6.3%), Italy and the Czech Republic (both -2.1%). (See annex 3.4)

A comparison of the unemployment rate of men by level of education shows modest increases of the unemployment rates for men with tertiary education compared to **higher increases of the unemployment rates for men with lower secondary education**. (See annex 3.5)

⁶⁰ http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Unemployment_statistics#Unemployment_trends

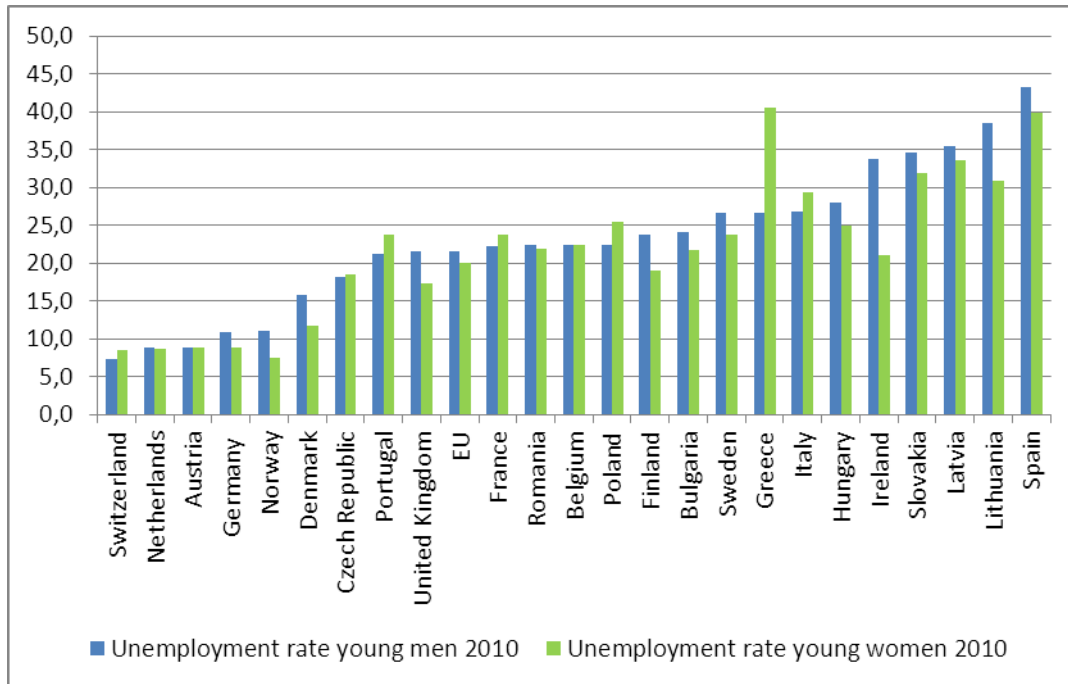
Figure 3.4 Unemployment rates for men and women (15-64), in %, 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ewhais); Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. Extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Among young people (15 to 24 years) in the EU the unemployment of women was higher than the unemployment of men in 2001. (See annex 3.6) This trend had reversed in 2010: more men (21.6%) than women (20%) were unemployed. However there is considerable variation between the countries in 2010.

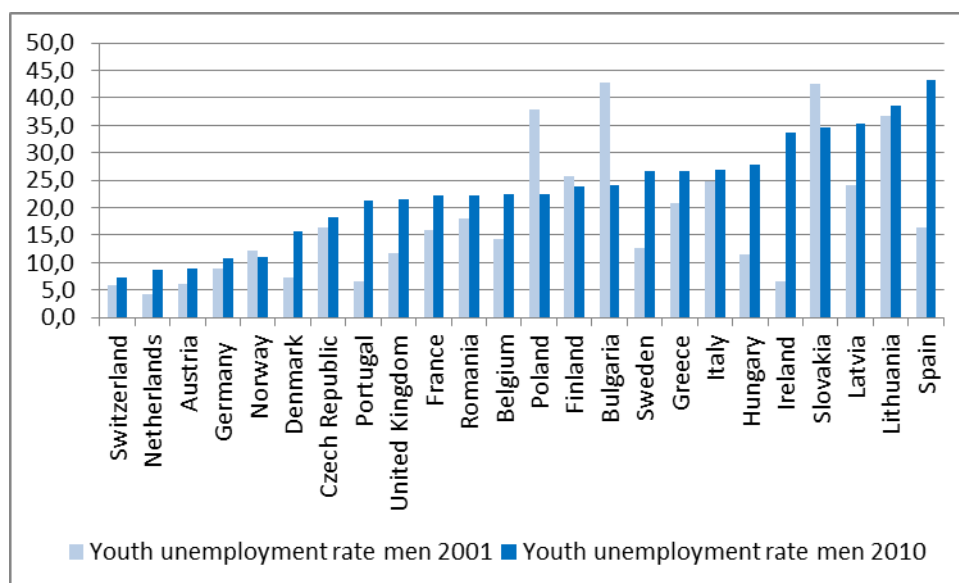
Figure 3.5 Unemployment rates for young men and women (aged 15 to 24 years), in %, 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ewhais); Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. No reliable data available for Estonia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia, Iceland; Extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

- Unemployment rates are higher for young women in Greece, France, Italy, Poland, Portugal and Switzerland;
- Unemployment is almost evenly distributed between young men and women in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Netherlands and Austria;
- In Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Spain, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, UK and Norway the unemployment rate is considerably higher for young men compared to women;
- The gender gap (unemployment rate higher for men than for women) is particularly high in Ireland (12.6% higher for men than for women) and Lithuania (7.7%). On the other hand, the gender gap (unemployment rate higher for women than for men) in Greece is 13.9%. Equality or slight gaps are found in Belgium (0%), Austria (0.1% higher for women), the Czech Republic (0.3% higher for women), and in the Netherlands (0.2% higher for men).

As the following figure shows, the unemployment rate of young men has increased from 2001 to 2010 in almost all EU member states and EFTA states, with exceptions among the Post-socialist countries, Norway and Finland. Strong increases of the unemployment rates have occurred in EU member states: Spain, Portugal, Italy, Ireland, Sweden, Hungary, UK. Some central European countries have reported lower rates during this period.

Figure 3.6 Unemployment rate young men, in %, 2001-2010

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ewhais); Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. No reliable data available for Estonia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia, Iceland; Extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Many studies have highlighted that **emotional and health problems for men arise in connection with unemployment.** (See Erlangsen, Jeune & Bille-Brahe, 2004; Nordentoft, 2006; White, et al., 2011) Young men are more frequently exposed to conditions of work insecurity (temporary employment and casual work, both being poorly paid and bringing less social security rights) than the general population. This means that young men predominantly carry a bulk of risks generated by the growing flexibility of employment. This may have a long-term impact on their lifestyle and brings along developments that have an impact on gender relations. (See box 3.1) Such flexible employment is socially less secure, demands more life energy, generates pessimistic attitudes, and influences delayed separation from parents, delayed formation of their own families and delayed decisions to have children. (See Svetlik, 2006) To illustrate the impact of unemployment, extracts from two country reports are included here.

Box 3.1 – The impact of unemployment

Spain

The global economic and financial crisis is particularly hitting employment in Spain. Before 2008 the trend was the creation of jobs and reducing the unemployment rate standing at 7.9% in 2007 (6.1% for men and 10.5% for women), in the second quarter of 2011 the unemployment rate stood at 20.8%, 20.5% for men and 21.2% for women. The increase of the unemployment rate was higher for men than for women. In Spain, the crisis has affected sectors with a higher proportion of men, such as construction and industry, and to a lower extent the service sector where women are concentrated. This situation may affect the distribution of work at home, especially if the man is unemployed. There had been an increasing number of male householders and an increase in the number of hours spent on domestic work by unemployed men. Unemployed men spend almost twice as much time on domestic work and childcare than those being employed. However, this is viewed negatively, as a loss of sexual identity, because they come into a socially devalued space: no satisfaction, no money and it is seen as women's work. (See Abril Morales & Romero, 2011)

Ireland

Unemployment among both men and women has risen sharply in recent years but is slightly higher among men. (Russell, et al., 2009) Russell et al. note, however, that given the change in attitudes towards women at the workplace it is unlikely that women will simply leave employment and be content to remain at home. Research is needed on the impact of the current economic recession on men (and women), to ascertain how they are coping with it and how gender relations are being affected. Previous research (see Goodwin, 2002) has shown that men are negatively affected by unemployment because it affects their traditional breadwinning roles and their self-understanding as men. (See Hanlon, 2011)

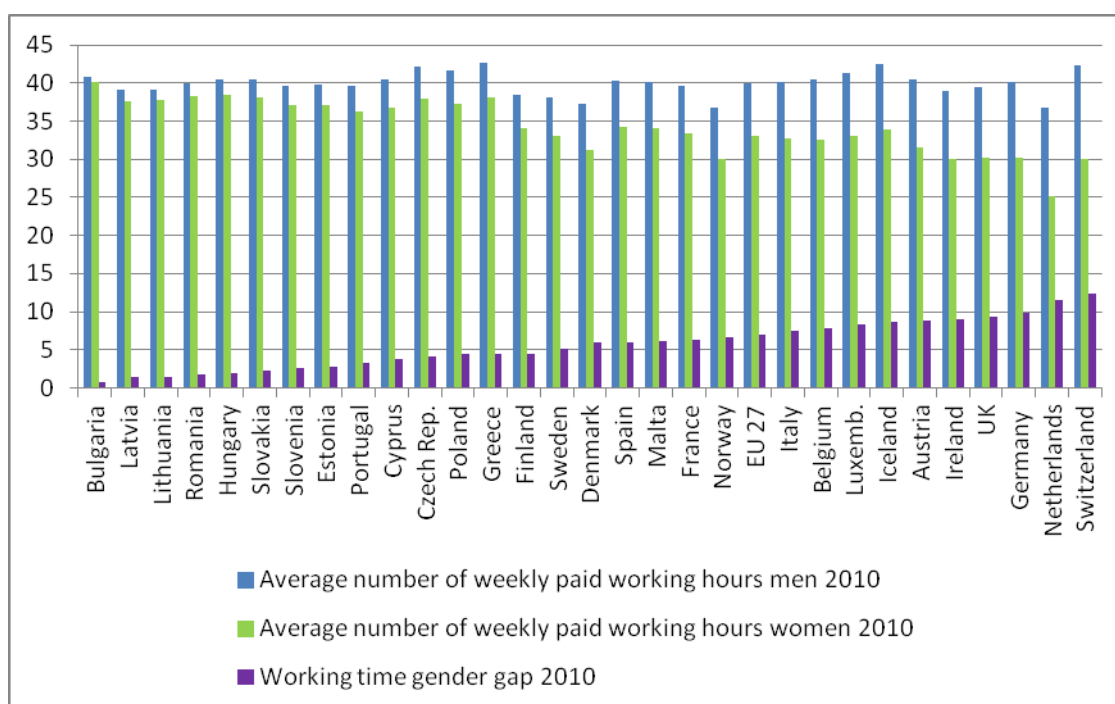
3.2.3 Working time

Working time, as Burchell et al. (2007) emphasise, is not only important in terms of quality of work but also in connection with gender (in-)equality: working hours, schedules, “*and whether people have some degree of autonomy to adapt their working time all impact on abilities of men and women to coordinate or ‘balance’ their employment with domestic responsibilities and other activities.*” (p. 35)

The overall trend is a **decline in working time for both men and women**: in 2010, men worked 1.2 hours/week (h/w) less than in 2001, while for women the decline was 0.8 h/w. In all countries presented, men spend more time with paid work than women. In the EU member states (2010), men spend an average of actually 40 h/w with paid work, while women spend 33.1 h/w. Thus, the gender gap is 6.9 h/w in 2010, which is slightly lower than in 2001 (7.3 h/w). (See annex 3.7)

The gap is particularly low in Bulgaria (0.7 h/w), followed by Lithuania and Latvia (both 1.5 h/w), and Romania (1.7 h/w). From all EU and EFTA states, the highest gap is found in Switzerland (12.3 h/w), but also the Netherlands (11.6 h/w), Germany (9.9 h/w) and UK (9.3 h/w) show high gender gaps.

Figure 3.7 Average number of actual weekly hours of work in main job by sex; 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfesa_ewhais); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations

In the EU member states **men's average working time fell by 1.2 h/w** from 2001 to 2010. (See annex 3.7) The following countries can be regarded as 'high scorers' (-2.0 h/w or more): Iceland (-5.8 h/w), Latvia (-5.6 h/w), and Ireland (-3.6 h/w).⁶¹ While men's working time is high in countries like Greece, Iceland, Switzerland and the Czech Republic (42 h/w and more), it is particularly low in the Netherlands and Norway (both 36.7 h/w), Denmark (37.2 h/w), Sweden (38.1 h/w) and Finland (38.5 h/w). However, despite showing lower male working hours on average, the Netherlands, Denmark and Norway still show about a quarter of men working more than 40 h/w.

The gender gap between 2001 and 2010 has declined by 1.5 h/w or more in Iceland (-5 h/w), UK (-2.2 h/w), Latvia (-2 h/w), Ireland (-1.7 h/w), and Romania (-1.5 h/w). With the exception of the UK, this has happened according to a two-fold EU trend (declining working hours for both men and women, plus a stronger decline in men's hours compared to women's). (See annex 3.7) In the UK, however, working hours of women have increased (while their part time rate and their employment rate have decreased).

3.2.4 Part time work

Men's part time rate has increased by 2% between 2001 and 2010, particularly strongly in Ireland (+ 5.1%) and the Netherlands (+ 4.9%). With the exception of Slovenia, the ten highest increases in male part time have taken place in Central and Northern European countries, while the eight strongest decreases have taken place in Post-socialist countries.

The part time rate for men is comparably low in Post-socialist countries (as it is for women): in 2010 Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Slovakia show the lowest rates (all below 3%). Only Central and Northern European countries (with the single exception of Romania) show a part time rate for men around or above 7.8% (EU mean). The Netherlands, Norway and Denmark – the countries with the lowest working hours for men (see annex 3.7) – are also leaders in men's part time rates, with an exceptionally high value for the Netherlands. This calls for a closer look towards the work structure and relevant policy measures behind it. (See box 3.2)

In the EU member states, the gap in female and male part time work is 23.5% in 2010: 7.8% of men and 31.4% of women worked part time. This gender gap in EU 27 has increased by 1.1% between 2001 and 2010.⁶² **The lowest part time rates for women and also the lowest gender gaps in part time are found in Post-socialist countries** (the gender gap is remarkably low in Romania and Bulgaria, followed by Lithuania and Slovakia), while in many countries with part time rates as a more frequent pattern the gender gap is usually high as well. The highest gaps are observed in Central and Northern European countries, with the Netherlands, Switzerland and Germany in the lead, while the Southern European countries are ranging in the middle. In conclusion, **a low gap comes along with a comparably low part time rate among women and, vice versa, higher gaps with higher female part time rates.** (See annex 3.8)

⁶¹ On the other end of the distribution there are countries where men's average working time had increased: Malta (+3.6 h/w), Sweden (+1.2 h/w), Belgium (+0.8 h/w), Cyprus (+0.3 h/w).

⁶² In 2001, 5.9% of men and 28.3% of women worked part time. The highest gender gap increases between 2001 and 2010 are found in Italy (+9.8%), Luxembourg (+8.2%) and Sweden (+6.1%). These countries also show the highest increases in female part time. Iceland shows the highest decrease of the gender gap (-11.5%), along with a decrease in women's part time rate by 10.6% (+0.9% in men). Thus we can conclude that gender gap changes are strongly related to changes in women's part time rates.

Box 3.2 - Flexible working hours in the Netherlands

In terms of working time and the part time rate among men, reforms in the Netherlands are particularly interesting. A series of labour market reforms known as the *Dutch Polder System* were meant to combat an economic crisis that hit the Netherlands at the beginning of the 1980s. (See Steffen, 1998) One of the core elements was to increase working time flexibility by part time and flexitime agreements. For instance, the *Act on Working Hours (Arbeidstijdenwet)*⁶³ makes it easier to diverge from the 9 to 5 working day and thus to reconcile labour and care. The *Act on the Adaptation of Working Hours (Wet aanpassing arbeidsduur, WAA)* 2000, amended in 2005, legally entitles every employee working in a firm of over 10 employees to decrease or increase his/her working hours after one year of employment with the same employer. Work-family balance is also improved by the *Act on Labour and Care, the Childcare Act and the Decree on Subsidy in the Costs for Childcare*. (See Verloo, v.d. Haar & v. Huis, 2011) Typical disadvantages of part time and discontinuous working biographies, like lower pensions or lower health and social security standards, are pronounced less critical in the Netherlands – and thus make these labour forms more attractive.

In no EU member state the part time rate of men exceeds that of women. In spite of the fact that male part time work is growing all over Europe, and in spite of single examples of a significant male part time rate, at large it is still a very feminised work form.

3.2.5 Fixed term work

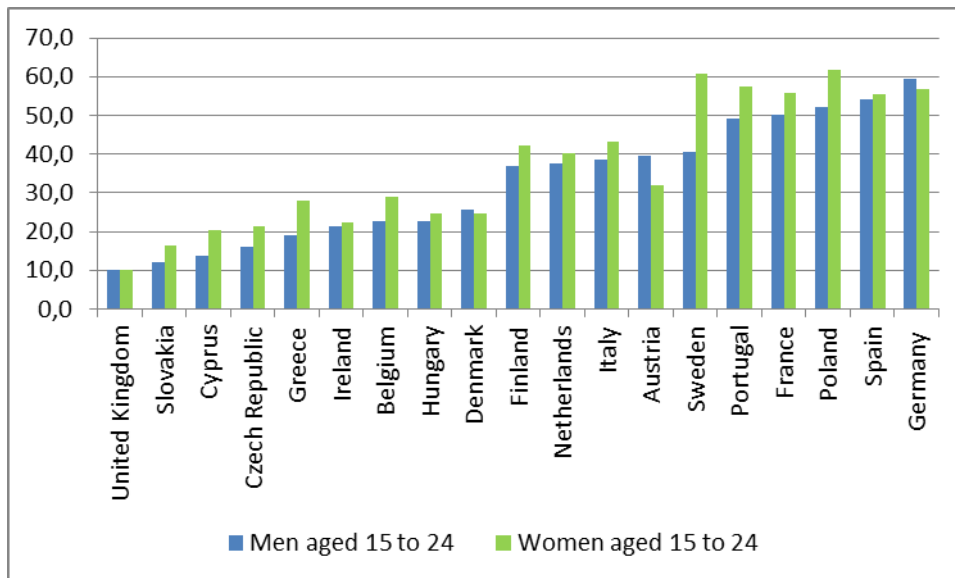
Fixed term work can indicate gender (in-)equality in terms of job security. Tendencies in this field might inform about the stability of ‘male breadwinner’ roles and give hints to gendered work arrangements.

Figures on **fixed term contracts for men** in EU member states vary a lot, with a mean of 10.3% of all contracts 2010. The highest proportions are found in Poland (20.4%) and Spain (18.7%), the lowest in Romania (0.8%), Malta (3.6%) and the UK (3.7%). For women (mean rate: 12.3%), the rank order of countries is nearly the same. The mean **gender gap** (with higher rates for women) is 2%: Cyprus shows the only significant gap of 12.5%, while four countries even show very slight converse gaps (with higher rates for men): Bulgaria (-0.7%), Latvia (-3.2%), Austria (-0.5%), and Romania (-0.2%). (See annex 3.9)

The gender gaps and absolute figures are much higher when it comes to **younger people** (age group of 15 to 24 years old). The EU member states’ mean is 37.5% (39.3% for young women). The highest rates are found in Germany (59.6%), Spain (54%) and Poland (52.2%), while in the UK (10.1%), Cyprus (13.8%) and Slovakia (12.2%) the rates are quite low. The **gender gap** is 1.8%, however with more extremes: Sweden (20.1%), Poland (9.7%), Greece (8.8%), and Portugal (8.3%) show the highest gaps (men having a lower rate than women), while Austria (-7.7%), Denmark (-1.3%) and Germany (-2.9%) show the highest converse gaps (men having a higher rate than women). (See annex 3.9)

⁶³ The act was adopted in 1995, amended in 2003 and 2006. In 2003 the Act was amended in order to extend the power of decision of employees on working times. In 2007 (2006 amendment) a simplified Act on Working Hours (replacing the 1995 one) allows for (even) less restrictive practices as to the length of the working day and scope of the working week. (See Verloo, Haar & Huis, 2011)

Figure 3.8 Percentages of temporary work (aged 15 to 24): selected EU countries, in %, 2010



Source: LFS; ifst_hhthemchi; no reliable data available no reliable data available for Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovenia.

3.3 Analysis: horizontal segregation

Gender-based horizontal sectoral and occupational segregation⁶⁴ is a universal characteristic of the labour market in EU member states. A notion of appropriate or 'suitable' occupation for men and women is still deeply rooted in the labour market. In recent research, four sets of factors are given priority in explaining the reasons for the persistence of horizontal segregation, all of them being rooted in gender inequality:

- choice of study field,
- gender stereotypes,
- demand for shorter or flexible working hours by women because of the unequally distributed burden of care,
- different income roles, covert barriers and biases in organisational practices. (See Bettio & Verashchagina, 2009)

One of the main implications of horizontal segregation is **wage inequality**, including an under-valuation of female work, while less attention has been paid to the equally important working conditions, such as employment security, health risks, working time arrangements or provision for reconciling work and family where men and women are both affected, though in different ways. Discrimination is also the reason for and the outcome of horizontal segregation which affects both men and women opting for untypical occupational choices.

Research on horizontal segregation has been mostly focussed on women and their efforts to break existing gender patterns, norms and barriers and to move into male dominated sectors and professions. In this way, horizontal segregation has been framed as a women's problem

⁶⁴ Sectoral segregation: a type of horizontal segregation in which the workforce of certain sectors (e.g., education sector, care sector, etc) is mostly made up of one gender. (See Browne, 2006) Occupational segregation: a type of horizontal segregation in which the workforce of certain occupations (e.g. nurse or surgeon in health sector) is mostly made up of one gender. (See Browne, 2006) A definition of horizontal segregation is provided in chapter 2.

only, and **issues related to men** and untypical occupational choices have remained under-researched and invisible. This section addresses the issue of how men are affected by horizontal segregation, but before this a quantitative overview of horizontal segregation in the EU is presented.

3.3.1 Trends of gender-based horizontal segregation in EU member states

Regional characteristics of horizontal segregation

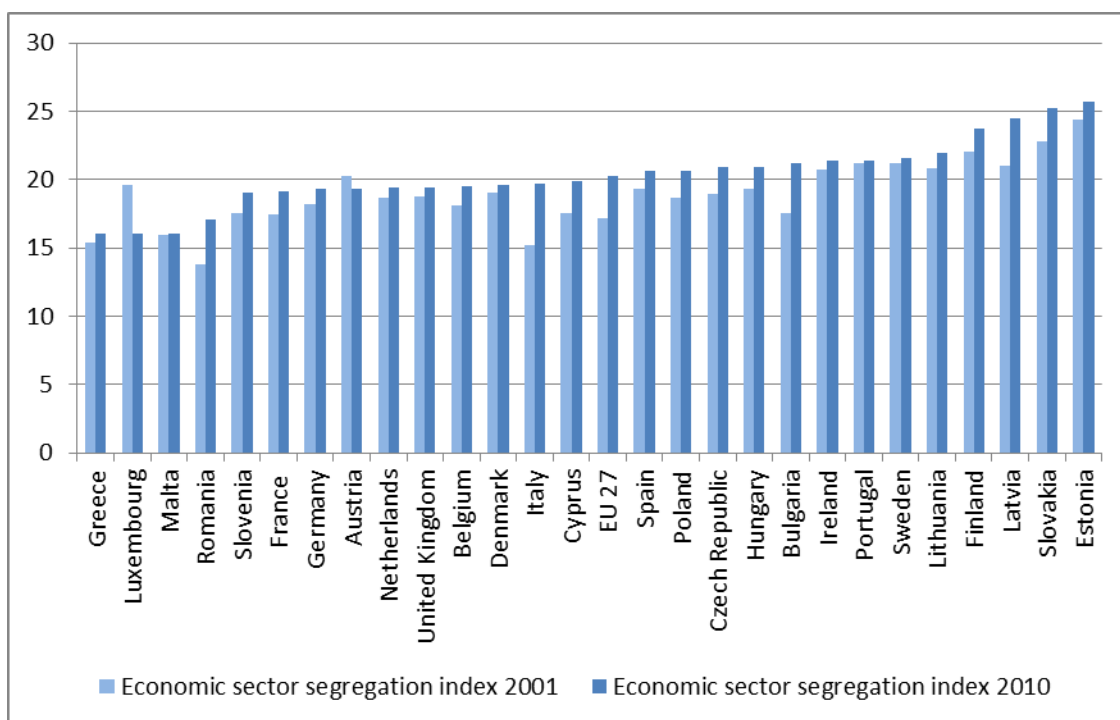
Although the labour market participation rates of women and men in Europe tend to converge, **the level of segregation remains high and stable** and has changed little since 1990. The upward trend over the past decade is somewhat more pronounced for sectoral than for occupational segregation. (See Bettio & Verashchagina, 2009) Segregation exists in all EU member states, however differences can be observed between countries.

Concerning both occupational and sectoral segregation, the same countries belong to the highly- and the lowly-segregated group, respectively: Slovakia, Estonia, Latvia and Finland are among the most highly-segregated countries in Europe, while Romania, Greece, Luxemburg and Malta are among the most lowly-segregated countries. (See annex 3.10)

Segregation across **sectors of economic activity** outlines an average of 20.3 index points⁶⁵ in 2010. An increase can be observed compared to 2001, when the gender segregation in economic sectors was 17.2 points. (See figure 3.9) The difference between the most and the least segregated countries is around nine points in both years. While some countries show improvement at the level of labour market segregation, others present the contrary. It is not possible to conclude that there is a general trend from 2001 to 2010 in all countries.

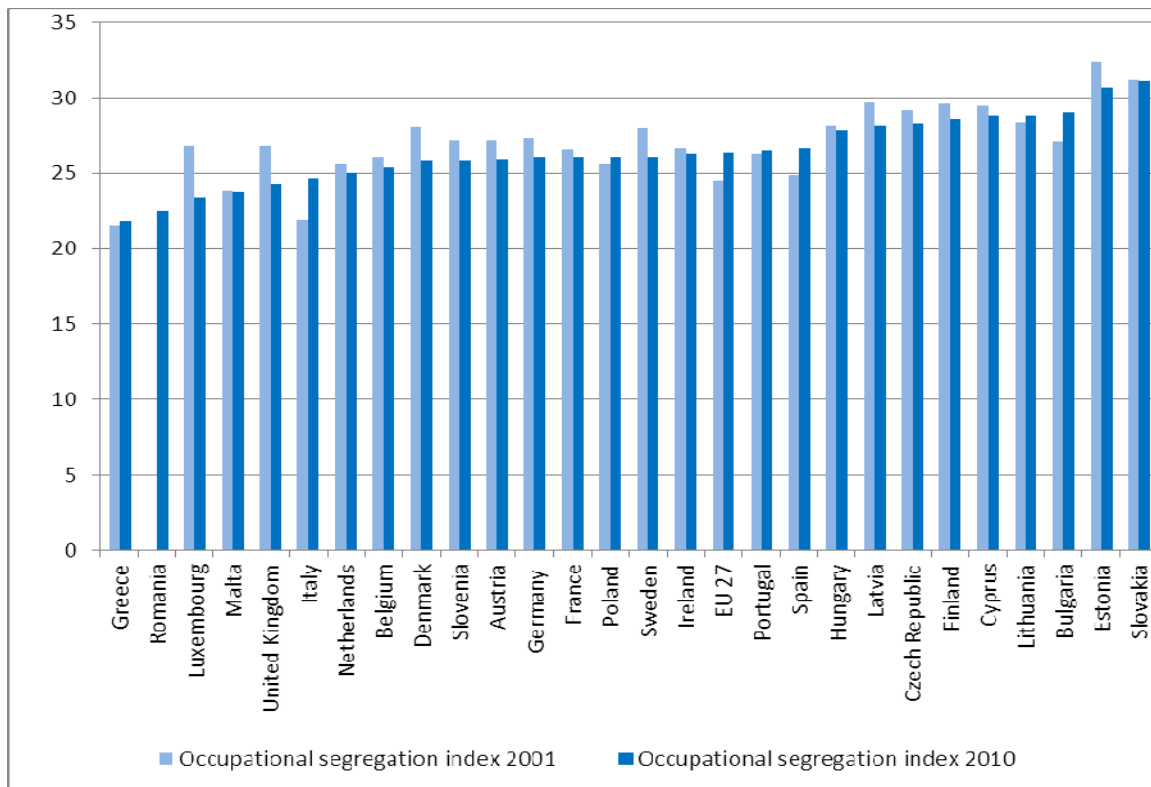
⁶⁵ The index points can be interpreted as the share of the employed population that would need to change the sector in order to bring about an even distribution of men and women among sectors. Higher index points indicate a higher segregation and vice versa. (See Bettio & Verashchagina, 2009)

Figure 3.9 Gender segregation in economic sectors, 2001 and 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS. Gender segregation in sectors is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each sector; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (NACE classification).

On average, **gender-related occupational segregation** in the EU member states was 24.5 points in 2001 and 26.4 points in 2010, with big variations across countries: in both years, the difference between the most and the least segregated country was around 10 points (2001: highest in Estonia, lowest in Greece; 2010: highest in Slovakia, lowest in Greece and Italy).

Figure 3.10 Gender segregation in occupations, 2001 and 2010

Source: Eurostat, LFS. Gender segregation in occupations is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each occupation; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (ISCO classification).

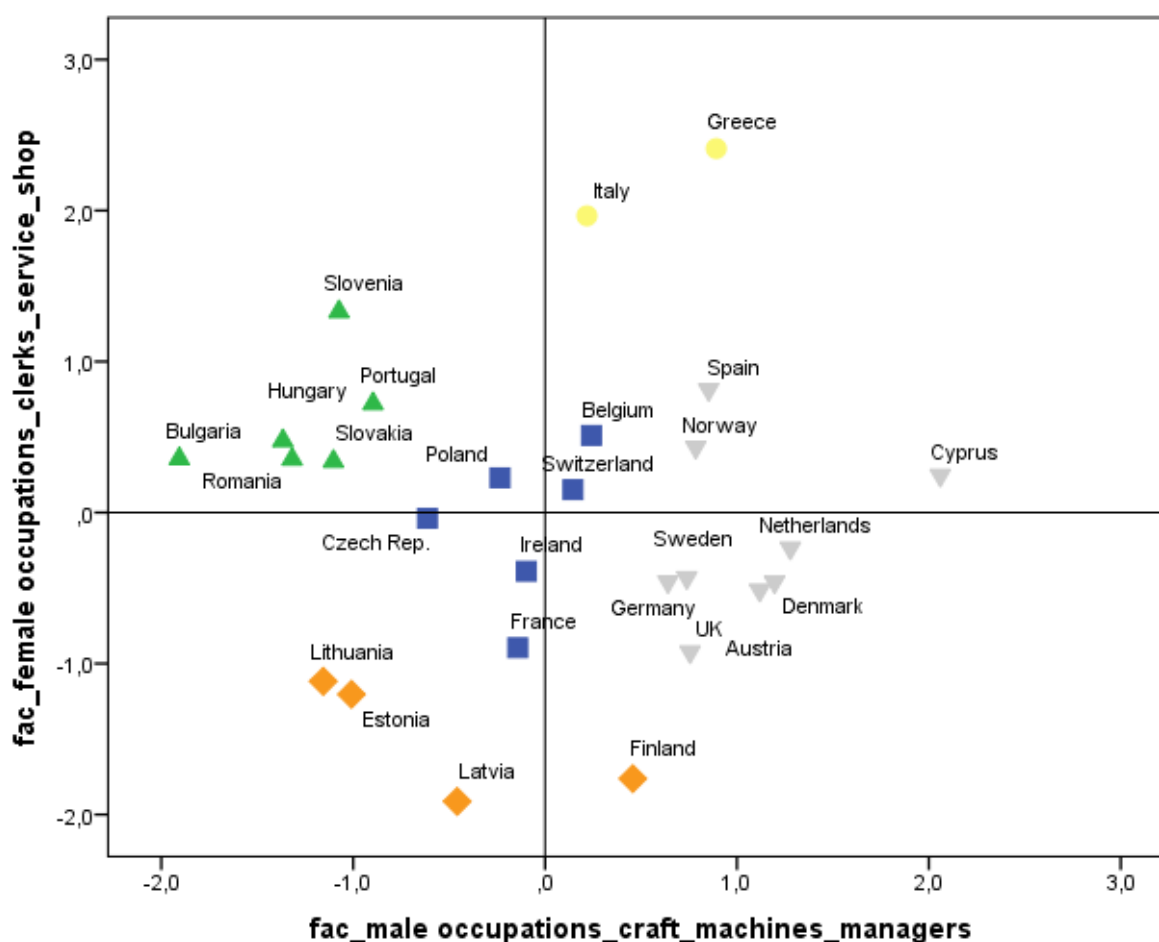
- In the past decade, the **Northern countries** have seen a relatively fast de-segregation, after having faced the 'gender equality paradox' consisting of **high labour market segregation despite developed gender equality policies**. The Norwegian scientific report highlights that this trend has been influenced by education. *"It is probable that the high degree of segregation has mainly been an effect of women (often with low education) entering working life in the 1970s to 90s, while the decrease of segregation especially with rising education has had a larger overall effect in the past decade."* (Holter & Blindheim-Andersen, 2011)
- On the other hand, most **Southern European countries**, together with some **Post-socialist countries** (Bulgaria, Poland, Lithuania) have actually experienced an **increase in occupational segregation**. The lowest level of segregation in Greece and Malta cannot be explained by de-segregation, rather it is due to a low rate of female participation in the formal labour market and concentration of women to the grey economy⁶⁶ which leads to a low segregation rate.
- In **re-segregated countries**, except in Romania, the increase of segregation was accompanied by a **growth in female employment**.

A cluster analysis using two-factors of male participation rates in different groups of occupations gives a more nuanced picture: the resulting five clusters indicate nuanced differences in the rate of men segregated in male dominated groups of occupations and the rate of men participating in female dominated groups of occupations, according to the average figures in

⁶⁶ An unofficial economy, also 'hidden economy', in which workers are usually paid under value, without income taxes and without social benefits (sickness benefit, etc).

EU member states. The first factor has been calculated with variables showing the rate of men participating in traditionally male dominated groups of occupations (crafts and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers and legislators, senior officials and managers). The second factor two has been calculated with variables showing the rate of men participating in traditionally female dominated groups of occupations (clerks and services workers and shop market sales workers). On each factor, small (negative) values represent relatively low percentages of men and high (positive) values represent higher percentages of men.

Figure 3.11 Country groups 'horizontal segregation': country groups along men's participation in male and female dominated groups of occupations 2010



Source and explanation: Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_eegais); extracted on Oct 31st, 2011; two factors have been calculated: factor 1 (fac_male occupations) has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields 'craft and related trades workers', 'plant and machine operators and assemblers' and 'legislators, senior officials and managers'; factor 2 (fac_female occupations) has been calculated with the variables 'clerks' and 'service workers and shop and market sales workers'. On each factor, smaller (negative) values represent lower percentage of men, higher (positive) values represent higher percentages of men. With these two factors a scatter plot has been drawn and the country groups have been calculated with a cluster analysis; method used: Ward, 5 solutions, own calculations.

Five groups can be identified:

- In a **less segregated group** we find mostly Post-socialist countries (Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia) as well as Portugal. This group is characterised by a comparatively low percentage of men working in male dominated occupations like crafts and engineering. Their respective percentage in female dominated occupations is above average in the sample (both are indicators of relatively low segregation).

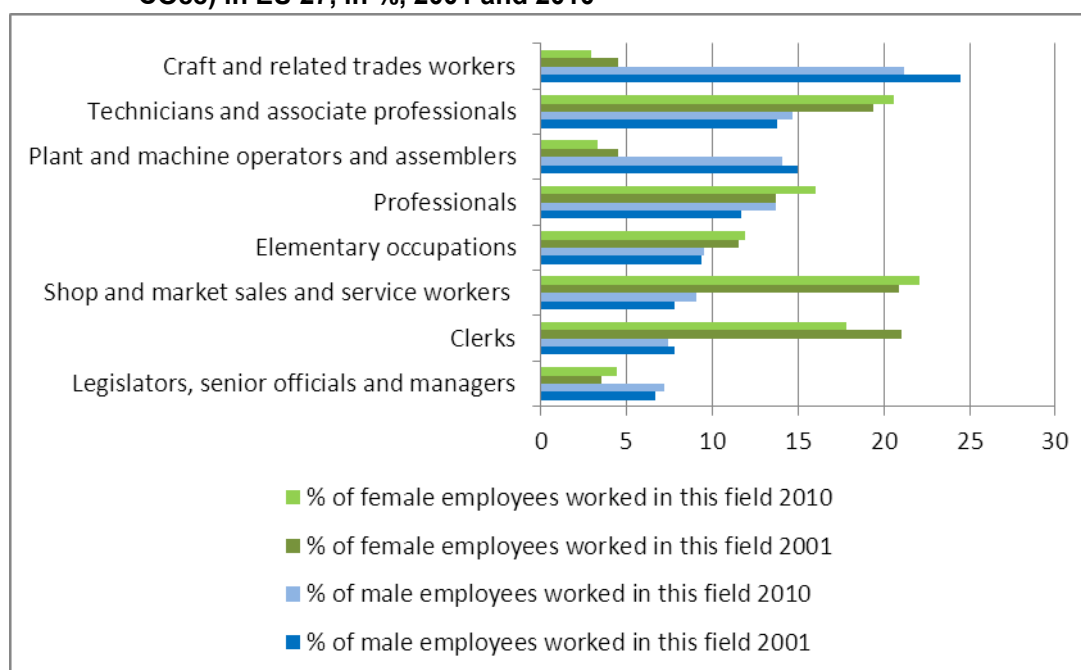
- In an **average group** we find regionally mixed countries (Belgium, Czech Republic, Ireland, France, Poland and Switzerland). In male and female dominated occupations the male participation rate is around EU average, which indicates an 'average' horizontal segregation in the respective occupations.
- In a **mixed group** we find Post-socialist countries (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania), but also Finland. It is on the one hand characterised by a very low percentage of men working in female dominated occupations like clerks, services, shops (indicator of strong segregation), on the other hand a comparatively low percentage of men working in male dominated occupations like crafts and engineering (indicator of low segregation).
- Italy and Greece represent an **separate group**, in which the highest percentage of men working in Europe-wide female dominated occupations such as clerks, services, shops can be found – as an indicator of low segregation – but also in Europe-wide male dominated occupations such as crafts and engineering – as an indicator of stronger segregation.
- A **highly segregated group** in terms of male dominated occupations includes a mix of countries from various European regions (Denmark, Germany, Spain, Cyprus, Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, UK and Norway) but not Post-socialist countries. In this group the percentage of men working in male dominated occupations like crafts and engineering is the highest in EU comparison. Their respective percentages in female dominated occupations are quite modest and rather around or below EU average (both indicators for a relatively high degree of segregation).

Gender characteristics of horizontal segregation

Despite growing participation of women in the labour market, it is common across all EU member states that women are still concentrated on a smaller number of occupations and sectors compared to men and that **segregation is higher in female dominated than in male dominated occupations and sectors**. Indeed, a significant increase in female labour market participation may raise the level of segregation, as women are predominantly employed in traditionally female occupations. Men's unequal share of care work in the family has a direct impact on horizontal segregation too because it frequently drives women to opt for part-time jobs to be able to reconcile work and family. This is likely to further restrict their choice of employment, as underlined by the significant increase of segregation that has been found for female part-timers in comparison with female full-timers. (See Bettio & Verashchagina, 2009)

In the past ten years **women have made significant inroads into some traditionally male dominated fields**, including managerial and executive occupations. Certain high status occupations such as lawyers have become integrated with higher women's participation rates. On the other hand, **men have mostly remained confined to traditionally male dominated occupations** and have not made significant inroads into female dominated occupations, for example teachers for primary education, nursing, personal services and office administration.

Figure 3.12 Shares of male and female employees in different groups of occupations (IS-CO88) in EU 27, in %, 2001 and 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_eegais); extracted on Oct. 31st, 2011; this table does not include the occupations 'skilled agricultural and fishery workers' and 'armed forces' due to limited numbers of employees; distribution of women/men in different groups of occupations; 'professionals' include academic occupations like doctors, architects, etc; own calculations.

Gender segregation is more pronounced in occupations with a lower level of qualification and unskilled work, while skilled and professional occupations are more de-segregated. This also points out to the generational and educational polarisation among women, between managerial, professional or white-collar work of younger, educated women transgressing gender occupational borders and the less-skilled manual work of older women who remain largely segregated in traditionally 'feminine jobs'. (See Walby, 1997) Also, the level of professionalisation and the established career ladders in different occupations can influence the level of segregation. For example, in Switzerland an increase in men's share in nursing has been observed, which can be explained by the increasing professional demands for this occupation ('tertiarisation of training', higher levels of education required than before). (See Fuchs, 2011)

The following tables 3.1 and 3.2 show the most important occupations for women and men in the EU as well as the degree of concentration of male and female employees in these occupations, compared to the respective male and female total workforce.

Table 3.1 Top 10 occupations of men EU 27, in %, 2000 and 2009

Top 10 occupations for men	Percentage of all male employees*	
	2000	2009
Motor vehicle drivers	4.9	5.1
Building frame and related trades workers	4.7	4.5
Managers of small enterprises	4.0	4.5
Building finishers and related trade workers	3.6	3.4
Physical and engineering science technicians	3.1	3.1
Machinery mechanics and fitters	3.5	3.0
Finance and sales associate professionals	2.7	2.9
Architects, engineers and related professionals	2.5	2.8
Shop, stall and market salespersons and demonstrators	2.7	2.6
Production and operations managers	2.4	2.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2009 Q4; calculated with ISCO-88 3-digit-numbers; * included are only those male employees where ISCO-88 3-digit number was available.

Table 3.2 Top 10 occupations of women EU 27, in %, 2000 and 2009

Top 10 occupations for women	Percentage of all female employees*	
	2000	2009
Shop, stall and market salespersons and demonstrators	7.8	7.3
Domestic and related helpers, cleaners and launderers	6.3	7.2
Personal care and related workers	5.4	6.9
Other office clerks	4.5	4.1
Secretaries and keyboard-operating clerks	4.1	3.9
Housekeeping and restaurant service workers	4.0	3.8
Administrative associate professionals	3.7	2.7
Nursing and midwifery associate professionals	2.7	2.6
Numerical clerks	2.7	2.6
Primary and pre-primary educating teaching professionals	2.3	2.4

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2009 Q4; calculated with ISCO-88 3-digit-numbers; * included are only those female employees where ISCO-88 3-digit number was available.

It can be observed that male dominated occupations like motor vehicle drivers, building frame and related trade works, managers of small enterprises and building finishers are linked to gendered assumptions of masculinity like physical strength, virility, mastery of technology and leadership. (See Puchert, Gärtner & Höyng, 2005) On the other hand, female dominated occupations like salespersons, cleaners, domestic workers, personal care and related workers, where the number of women has increased in the past decade, are linked to the extension of women's roles in families and to the essentialist stereotypes of women being 'natural carers'.

While the efforts to integrate more women in technical occupations have been successful to some extent (see figure 3.12), there are specific barriers to men's integration in female dominated occupations:

- **Initiatives for untypical choices** among young boys and girls have been rather one-sided, as they **primarily encouraged girls** to enter male dominated fields of work. Only recently initiatives have also tried to encourage boys to enter female dominated fields of work, as it was already described in chapter 2.
- Another problem is related to different structural conditions of female and male dominated occupations. While women have made inroads into male dominated jobs characterised by better payment, social esteem and recognised professional reputation, **men are expected to opt for under-valued 'feminised' work** and to expose themselves to low social esteem, under-payment, de-professionalisation and questioning of their masculinity and heterosexuality. The same analysis holds for Canada, as "[...] *there has been much more emphasis on women entering traditionally male occupations than vice versa.*

In part this is because those male occupations have tended to be more prestigious and better paid. But it's also because we haven't made the same strides in reshaping the meanings of manhood as we have in reshaping our norms for women.” (Kaufman, 2012)

This situation makes attracting men into female dominated jobs a particularly demanding task and calls for a restructuring of female dominated occupations along with deconstructing the traditional notions of masculinity. On the other hand, as Williams (1995) argues, because of the higher value placed on men by the larger society, any efforts to recruit more men into female dominated occupations must carefully consider the consequences for female workers in these fields and take steps to prevent reproducing gender hierarchies (e.g. 'glass escalator'⁶⁷).

3.3.2 How sectoral segregation affects men

In this part we outline how specific structural conditions of the labour market, especially sectoral segregation, and men's own practices and norms shape the positions of different groups of men on the labour market.

Changing structure of economy: a challenge for working class men

Many country reports describe the impacts of the **shrinking industrial sector** since the 1970s. Technological innovations and the globalisation of production have influenced the restructuring of workplaces, working class men's employment patterns and consequently men's identities. The **rapid decline of manufacturing and heavy industry** and the accompanying structural unemployment has had a major impact on working class men. Some authors argue that the decrease of these traditional patterns have produced a 'crisis of men' (see Gesterkamp, 2004; Mac an Ghail & Haywood, 2007). Difficulties experienced by men to adapt to the new economic challenges are indicated, particularly the **shift towards a more feminised service-based economy** and the shift from a model of work and life characterised by full-time work and continuous working patterns to a new model characterised by discontinuous, flexible and insecure working patterns. (See Tereškinas, 2011)

Though these developments are Europe-wide, in **Post-socialist countries** the transition to a different political and economic system, along with the collapse and restructuring of state enterprises with the resulting unemployment came a bit later in the 1990s and had a powerful impact on men, characterised also by a **mass emigration of highly and lowly skilled men** (and women) from Post-socialist to Western European countries. As the scientific expert from Lithuania states: *“Regardless of their age, many working class men expressed their disappointment with their current situation, disrespect by others, fear to lose their jobs, uncertainties regarding the future and limited possibilities to survive in the present moment. Many of them have experienced unemployment, work without contracts and long hours and exploitation.”* (Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011)

Economic restructuring has implications for the **cultural representation of men's and women's work**. It challenges pervasive images of men facing harsh, hard and 'heroic' work to provide the income of their families. Consequently, this shift might contribute to the reduction of men's identification with work as a generic site of their masculine identity. (See Mac an Ghail & Haywood, 2007) Situations of unemployment, precariousness of work and uncer-

⁶⁷ While women who pursue male dominated professions usually face 'glass ceilings', men pursuing female dominated work often experience 'glass escalator effects', i.e. being immediately promoted into more prestigious and better-paid positions which are considered 'more legitimate' for men, for example higher administrative and managerial positions.

tainties challenge male privileges and self-images, which might have an ambivalent impact on changing masculinities and gender equality (see Scambor, Schwerma & Abril Morales, 2005):

- On the one hand **new working patterns can encourage men to resist the centrality of work in their lives** and in their identities and to open themselves for other spheres, for example care and family.
- On the other hand recent developments on the labour market (like increasing intensity, flexibility, insecurity, deregulation of work and growing unemployment) have direct **negative impacts** on the quality of family life, active fatherhood, economic independence between partners and consequently on gender equality processes in general. These negative effects **especially influence specific groups of men, like working class men, young men and men with a migration background.**

Gender distribution between the public and the private sector

“The private sector remains to be dominated by men, both numerically and hierarchically. Women, on the other hand, are highly visible in public life and in the public sector and they occupy two-thirds of public sector jobs.” (Niemi, 2011) This is just one example from many country reports stating that **women prevail in the public sector, while men are over-represented in the private sector.** In the service sector, where women prevail, welfare services are state provided at least to some extent and differentiate among countries.

In the EU member states the **public sector**, with governments as employers, has normatively moved strongly towards **equal opportunity principles and practices**, mainly ahead of the private sector. The public sector is legally more obliged to provide support for work and family balance and to promote women to the very senior positions than the corporate sector where often managerial masculinity (global or local) with workplace cultures of long working hours and work being central for an employee’s life provides the norm. Though low-skilled, feminised and ethnicised care and nursing areas in public sector often point to poor working conditions as well, public sectors offer **more secure standard jobs** with more regular working hours and workloads, stable income and social security. From this perspective, the quality of employment and working conditions seems to be higher in the public than in the private sector, which becomes particularly evident when it comes to work and family reconciliation. In Austria for example some branches of the public sector offer additional paternal leave to employees, and this is intended to serve as a model of good practice for employers in the private sector as well; in Hungary part-time work is offered only in the public sector to those returning from parental leave. These practical and normative asymmetries between public and private sector structurally shape and strengthen a gender based segregation.

In terms of the quality of workplaces **men who are over-represented in private industrial occupations are somewhat more exposed to work related health risks** compared to women, though workplace studies confirm that on the whole men are more reluctant than women to say that their jobs leave them vulnerable. (See Messing in Wolkowitz, 2006) It appears that men are involved in more risky work and experience more sudden and traumatic accidents, mainly in jobs in the fields of construction, agriculture and industry. (See also chapter 5.2)

It seems that at this particular point **gender segregation of employment**, related also to asymmetries between public and private sector, **has a direct negative effect on men’s safety and wellbeing at the workplace.** In this respect, low-wage private sectors employing men with a migration background are of particular concern. Now that heavy industry has been transferred to low-wage economies in Southern European countries, even more vulnerable people with a migration background are employed for work that is difficult to export

(for instance, construction work, transport, agriculture, etc), allowing their employers to push down wages and minimise safety, so as to compete for contracts from retailers. (See Phizacklea, 2005)

It is important to highlight that the public sector provides a socially-important model of a ‘decent job’, basic social and health security of employment and of pursuing gender equality at the workplace. A **legal obligation for private employers to pursue standards and norms of quality workplaces and gender equality based on good practice examples developed in the public sector** can bring about a better quality of working conditions for many men working at private companies. In the long run it might also stimulate more women to enter the private sector.

Box 3.3 – Trade off between private and public sector caused by economic crisis in the United States

“From 2007 to 2009, 75% of all the jobs lost during the recession were jobs formally held by men, especially in manufacturing, construction, particularly in housing construction. What people call the man-cession or the he-cession was an indicator how gendered the recession was. This is completely different now. What happened as a result – our way of solving the recession, solving the economic crises, was to cut taxes and cut funding to state and local governments. So state and local governments are now receiving less money from the federal government and have begun to cut jobs dramatically. We see significant growth in the private sector, but a dramatic loss of jobs in the public sector. The jobs that we lost in the public sector are jobs like teachers, administrators, secretaries at state and local level, and that means that from 2010 to 2011 90% of the jobs lost were jobs held by women. So male jobs have returned in the private sector and female jobs have disappeared in the public sector.” (Kimmel, 2012)

3.3.3 Segmentation of the labour market and complexity of contemporary inequalities

The evidence from country reports confirms that the **segregation of employment** is not symmetrically distributed among men and women but it is distributed and mutually constituted along the lines of **gender in intersection with class, age, migration background and other social categories**, resulting in a segmentation of work also within the gender groups. This complexity represents a challenge for equality policies. (See Walby, 2009)

Box 3.4 – Examples of social inequalities and segmentation

Slovenia

The economic crisis has revealed a specific group of men on the labour market in Slovenia: the so called ‘third country nationals’ are mainly employed under the principle of working quota in the under-supplied construction trades. Working regulations state that a person with a migration background can acquire a personal work permit only if he or she has been employed for at least two years with the same employer. Such regulation makes the workers greatly dependent on the employer, and the current economic crisis revealed exploitation and abuse of workers with a migration background in the construction industry, which the system structurally allows. (See Hrženjak, 2011)

United Kingdom

In the UK, statistics reveal an occupational segmentation of men according to migration: white men are more likely to be managers or professionals than those with a Bangladeshi, Black African or Caribbean background, but less likely than Chinese or Indian men. It was further added that one in seven Pakistani men worked as a taxi driver, cab driver or chauffeur, compared with one in 100 white British men. Moreover, more than 25% of Bangladeshi men are chefs, cooks or waiters, compared to one in 100 white British men. (See Raine & White, 2011)

Switzerland

In Switzerland undocumented foreigners are a special case. For them, private households are the most important sector of employment, followed by catering, construction and agriculture. Undocumented women mainly work in households and seem to have more stable working conditions and to earn slightly more than men. Men work in different branches and often change their jobs. (See Fuchs, 2011)

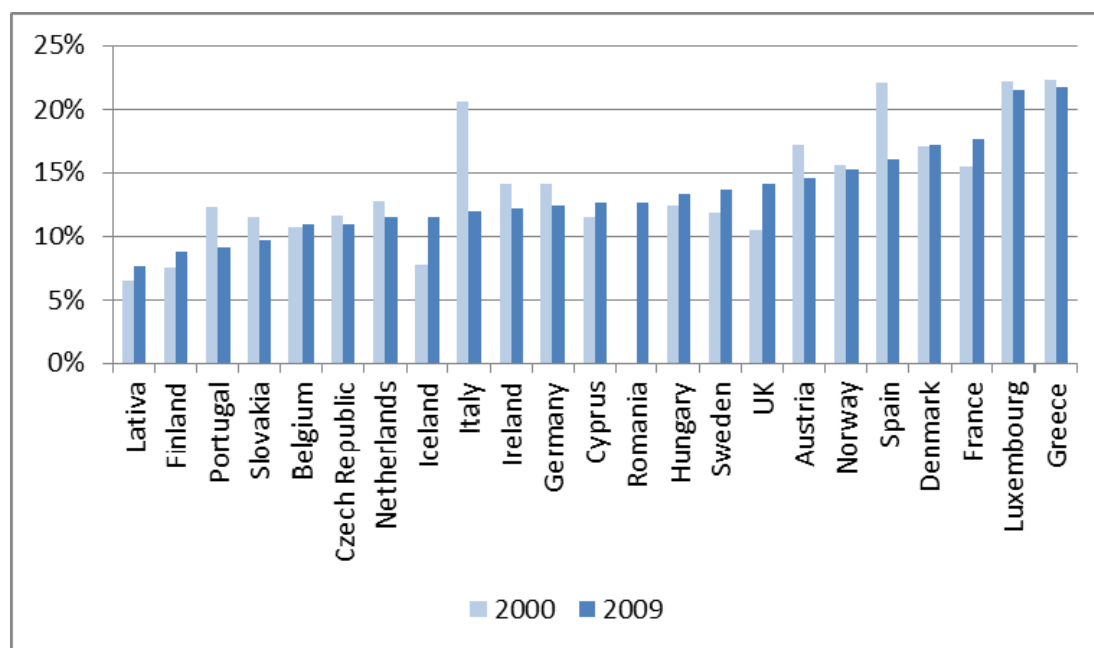
These examples support the view that the **EU labour market** is not only gender segregated but also **segmented**. The term segmentation refers to the coexistence of different groups of workers on the labour market with different access to jobs and job security, skills development, pay and career track. The selective implementation of labour market flexibility over the past decades has exacerbated divisions between the 'sheltered' jobs and so called 'triple D jobs' (dirty, dangerous and degraded), characterised by less favourable job conditions without protection or prospects.

In particular, the vulnerable and subordinated position of men with a migration background on the European labour market makes them **potential performers of women dominated occupations**. To some extent men with a migration background take up work in traditionally female occupations, such as cleaning and care. As some studies have pointed out, migration destabilises conventional notions of gendered occupations and remakes labour market gender segregation as the threat to the migrants' sense of masculinity is linked not only to downgrading social mobility but also to their employment in feminised jobs. (See Willis, et al., 2010) More research would be needed on the topic how men with a migration background respond to these potential threats to their masculinity.

3.3.4 Men in professional care work

A particular issue of concern is the under-representation of men in care work, including nursing, care for the elderly, early childhood education and primary school teaching. The following table shows the rate of men in the EU in these professions and the trends in the past ten years. (See also annex 3.11) It outlines that between 2000 and 2009 the **countries with the highest rates of male care workers** (Spain, Italy, Greece, Luxembourg and Austria) **experienced a decrease of men's involvement in professional care work**. All these countries have undertaken some kind of regulations of feminised migrant care work in the past decade, and as Bettio and Verashchagina (2009) have stated, resorting to cheap migrant labour can interfere with attempts to challenge occupational segregation or under-valuation of care jobs. Potential conflicts but also synergies between de-segregation and reliance on workers with a migration background still have to be carefully evaluated.

Figure 3.13 Share of men among ‘care workers’* by country, in %, 2000 and 2009



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey, LFS 2000 Q4 (with the following exceptions: Cyprus, Iceland, Luxembourg, Sweden 2000 Q2, Germany 2002 Q2 and France 2000 Q1) and 2009 Q4; „care workers“ calculated from the following occupations and the respective ISCO-88 3-digit-numbers: Nursing and midwifery professionals (223), primary and pre-primary education teaching professionals (233), special education teaching professionals (234), nursing and midwifery associate professionals (323), primary education teaching associate professionals (331), pre-primary education teaching associate professionals (332), special education teaching associate professionals (333), other teaching associate professionals (334), social work associate professionals (346), personal care and related workers (513); own calculations.

These data indicate that in the past decade this already heavily **feminised sector has experienced a further decline of the participation of men** in 11 out of 21 countries. In ten countries the participation of men has increased modestly, with values ranging from 0.1% to 2%, with the exception of the UK (3.5%) and Iceland (3.8%). Such imbalances reflect prevailing gender norms in societies, such as considering caring and the teaching of young children as ‘women’s jobs’. But there are also more tangible reasons for a predominance of women in these occupations:

- care work, as has already been pointed out, generally means low salaries and low status,
- many men do not want to ‘compete’ with the standard of women as ‘natural caregivers’ in early childhood education and care,
- men lack role models which might inspire them to undertake such work,
- insufficient information for boys at school about caring careers is an important barrier, despite a high level of boys’ interest.

Research carried out in the UK in 2005 showed that as many as 25% of boys expressed an interest in entering into caring professions – yet only 2% are offered the opportunity to explore this option by career advisors. (See Fisher, 2006)

Box 3.5 - Men in care-giving roles

Scotland

A good practice example was identified in Edinburgh, where a project called *Men in Childcare* began in 1991 as a series of accredited training courses for unemployed men and men who wanted to change their career to work in childcare and related professions. The 16-weeks introductory course was offered free of charge and in the evening to accommodate men’s schedules. It was also important that the course provided students with accreditation that could be used for seeking basic employment

in childcare or as a basis for further courses and national certification in education and childcare. The programme also included a mentoring component where students were linked with qualified male childcare workers. A number of different methods was used to make the programme known among men, such as flyers, radio spots and newspaper advertisements, all of which carry the messages “*men can care too*” and “*children need men too*”. Since the start of the project, the number of men employed in childcare has increased significantly (for example from 1% to 10% in Edinburgh). (See Seftaoi, 2011) This example proves that successful initiatives to motivate men into care work combine different strategies: from affirmative action (quota) to extra tailored training courses and awareness-rising and informative campaigns.

Attracting men to care work represents an important strategy for a desegregation of the labour market and it **opens up new potential professional pathways for men** in a situation of a shrinking industrial sector and a steady rise of the unemployment rate of young and working class men. It bears also prospects for upgrading caring professions in terms of higher payment, better working conditions, more career opportunities and extended social recognition of care work.

How can men in untypical occupations contribute to gender equality?

- As the Swedish country report states (see Balkmar, 2011), men working in untypical occupations are seen as important **role models for children and other men**.
- With more men in care work, the diversity of masculinities can gain more visibility in the public, and **rigid gender norms** which confine men’s identity formations to the limits of traditional masculinity **may become less strict**.
- Supporting and promoting caring masculinities, not only through family policies as active fatherhood but also through employment policies as professional carers, may **open the floor for a transformative impact on norms and practices of traditional masculinities**. This might have positive consequences for men as well as for the existing gender order and the gender equality project.

3.4. Analysis: vertical segregation⁶⁸

In different ways, **vertical segregation in the field of work impacts gender inequality: gender pay gap, lack of means of work-family balance, sexual harassment, and ‘glass ceilings’**. These problems are still persisting almost 20 years after the *Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing*⁶⁹ and after decades of both feminist and mainstream political endeavours for gender equality, although some important improvements can be stated. In general, men still dominate on the higher levels of organisations. But there are important differences amongst men, especially in terms of age, class, and ethnicity.

Importantly, horizontal and vertical segregation both within and between occupations and organisations intersect. Results of the study at hand (see below, chapter 3.4.4) show that the relation between horizontal and vertical segregation can be illustrated by two factors:

- Factor 1 represents vertical segregation by the rate of men’s participation in publicly listed companies and in central banks;

⁶⁸ By vertical segregation we mean the over-representation of men in high-status occupations, such as managerial jobs, and their under-representation in low-status occupations such as clerical jobs.

⁶⁹ “The *Fourth World Conference on Women* was convened by the United Nations in September 4-15, 1995, at the Beijing International Conference Centre, People’s Republic of China. Government delegates worked on a Platform for Action aimed at achieving greater equality and opportunity for women. The three previous World Conferences were in Mexico City (International Women’s Year, 1975), Copenhagen (1980) and Nairobi (1985).” (<http://www.earthsummit2002.org/toolkits/women/un-doku/un-conf/fourth%20wcw%20intro.html>)

- Factor 2 represents horizontal segregation by the rate of men's share in male dominated occupations of crafts and related trades, plant and machine operators and assemblers and legislators, senior officials and managers.

With the exception of the Nordic countries and the Netherlands, the results show that there is a close link between both forms of segregation: **the higher the vertical segregation, the higher is also the horizontal segregation**. Nordic countries don't show this trend because male participation in male dominated occupations is high but men's share in boards of publicly listed companies and in central banks is lower than in many other European countries (while it is still high in terms of gender equality). Interestingly, some of the **highest levels of horizontal segregation in labour markets are found in countries with lower levels of vertical segregation, such as Finland, Sweden and Norway**. (See Hearn & Pringle, 2006/2009; Pringle & Hearn, 2006)

3.4.1 Management and workplace authority

Vertical hierarchies are basic forms of power, frequently men's gender power. **Management is a major place of men's advantage** and the construction of men and masculinities. (See Collinson & Hearn, 1996) There have been significant historical transformations of management, from almost a male monopoly in management, with traditional stereotypes (competition, power) and symbols of masculinity, coming from sports, military, using arguments from socio-evolutionary ideology like 'survival of the fittest', to modern forms which include multiple actors and act across national borders. (See Hearn, 2012)

At the same time, **male homosociality⁷⁰ persists in management**, often involving men's preference of men's company, competitiveness, emotional detachment, exclusion of women and suppression of other men, reproducing a hierarchical order among men. (See Holgersson, 2003; Lipman-Blumen, 1976) Therefore management, especially where it is seen as being most effective, has often been assumed to coincide with characteristics which are traditionally valued with men. The meta-analysis of Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and v. Engen's (2003) concluded that **women more than men tend to enact transformational leadership styles⁷¹**, along with greater effectiveness. However, caution must be exercised in generalising on the impact of sex on leadership style. (See Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001)

In recent decades, in some countries, **changes of gender divisions in middle management and professions** have been reported, such as law and medicine, but slow changes at the top of business, science and technology. Strong gender divisions in managerial specialisations also persist, often under-written by gender divisions in education and training, such as men's domination of engineering sectors.

Having said this, there are **significant variations** in the extent of vertical segregation, depending whether one is measuring participation in company boards, top management, management teams, middle management, supervisory positions, entrepreneurs, in small and

⁷⁰ Kantner described how men perpetuate male dominance in the workplace by uniting with men who share the same or similar characteristics. (See Kanter, 1977)

⁷¹ A meta-analysis of 45 studies of laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership styles found that women in leading positions predominantly were more transformational than male leaders. According to Bass, transformational leadership *„[...] occurs when leader broaden and elevate the interest to their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group”* (p. 21) Transformational leadership strengthens the performance and motivation of employees through a close link between the employees' sense of identity to the collective identity of the organisation. Therefore employees are encouraged to take greater responsibility and ownership for their work, becoming more interested and increase their performance.

medium enterprises (SMEs) or multinational enterprises (MNEs). These different measurements provide a slightly different picture, even if the broad trend of men's domination is affirmed in all managerial categories. The most easily measured aspect is participation in boards:

- Currently, boards are dominated by one gender: 85% of non-executive board members and 91.1% of executive board members are men, while women make up 15% and 8.9% respectively.⁷² Just one in seven board members (13.7%) at Europe's top companies is a woman. This is only a slight improvement from 2010 (11.8%) for the largest publicly listed companies in the EU and for only just over 3% of board chairs. (See Armstrong & Walby, 2012; European Commission, 2011).
- **Large differences** remain across Europe, with 73% of board members in the largest Finnish companies being men, 74% in Latvia, but 97% in Malta and 96% in Cyprus.⁷³ (See European Commission, 2012)

Comparative figures for categories of management other than boards are less reliable, in part because of difficulties with maintaining consistent definitions across organisations and nations. More women in management mean less men there, unless there is a major expansion of management positions, something which is often resisted by most governments and employers. Reducing vertical segregation and men's domination of management, especially at the top, is a key in achieving a gender equal working life for men and women.

Box 3.6 – Legal requirement for equal participation on boards

Norway has made it compulsory for stock market listed companies to have at least 40% of both women and men on their boards. While this innovation has certainly triggered off a public debate, it was well prepared and resistance to it was relatively muted, as compared to the debates in some other countries, such as Germany. This Norwegian experience might serve as a positive example of men's relative acceptance of change. A similar legal requirement is debated in some other countries. Also in Finland and Iceland, public sectors and governmental boards and similar bodies are required to include at least 40% of both women and men.

3.4.2. Corporate success

Patterns of (in)equality in organisations affect organisational growth and success. There is growing research on links between the presence of more senior women, less senior men, and corporate performance – and thus between more senior men and worse performance. (See European Commission, 2011)

- An early study was the *Covenant Investment Management* study in 1993 (see Cox & Smolinski, 1994), which found that **companies with strong equity/equal opportunity programmes do address vertical gender segregation**. These companies outperformed Standard and Poor's 500 stock market average by 2.4% a year over a five years period. Companies with poor equity/equal opportunity records under-performed by 8% a year in the same period. (See WEL, 1998)
- According to Terjesen, Singh and Sealy (2008), the results of recent research are mixed, but generally a similarly positive relation has been found. In the UK, **research companies with less men and more women on their boards perform better financially and on various corporate governance measures** (see Singh & Vinnicombe, 2004), and in

⁷² http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-12-1205_en.htm

⁷³ <http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=IP/12/213&language=en>

Finnish research firms led by men, CEOs were 10% less effective (see Kotiranta, Kovalainen & Rouvinen, 2007).

- A recurring theme is the importance of a **critical mass of women**, or critical reduction or residue of men, to achieve change. Larger numbers of women in management can break the cycle of homosocial reproduction of boards and management. (See Essed & Golberg, 2002) A critical mass of women can be contrasted to an excess of men. (See Sinclair, 1998) The McKinsey Corporation has conducted a series of studies on how organisational performance depends on key leadership behaviours (which in their research are less frequent among men than women), and how these are enhanced by a **critical mass of at least three women**, and thus a lesser proportion of men, in management teams. They have found that companies with fewer men in top management are more successful in organisational and financial performance. (See McKinsey & Company, 2007, 2008, 2010)

3.4.3 Pay

The question of remuneration and other benefits, fair or unfair, is a central issue in men's relation to vertical gender segregation. The gender pay gap persists. In the **EU (2010)**, **men are still paid 16.2% more per hour than women**, on 'raw' unadjusted figures. (See annex 3.12) 'Raw' means that the figures are unadjusted for the effects of, first, the remuneration rates by observed characteristics of jobs, and second, the whole national wage structure. If these factors are taken into account, the gender pay gap as measured may change, for example, to a lower figure by 2-4% for the UK, and by a higher figure of up to 6% in the Netherlands. (*OECD Employment Outlook 2002*⁷⁴) There are indications of a slow narrowing of the gender pay gap in some EU member states (for example, Ireland from 17.2% in 2006 to 13.9% in 2010 or Slovakia from 25.8% to 19.6% in the same period), though some recent figures also suggest a slight widening in some countries (for example, the Czech Republic from 23.4% in 2006 to 25.5% in 2010 or Portugal from 8.4% to 12.8% in the same period). (See annex 3.12)

The continuing gender pay gap is reported with consistency in the country reports.

Box 3.7 – Examples for gender pay gap

Cyprus

It is more than clear that the pay gap in Cyprus cannot be explained by different qualifications but by discrimination in favour of men and against women. Salaries for men are higher than for women showing the same qualifications (education, previous experience in the same sector and shops of the same size. (See Koutselini, 2011)

Germany

The German country report notes that while the unadjusted gender gap in gross wage per hour is about 23%, the adjusted gap is about 8%. The main reasons given for the difference are different forms of contract and professions, different professional levels, and part time work. (See Gärtner, Rieseke & Puchert, 2011)

Latvia

The gender pay gap in Latvia is 18% after the crisis of 2009-2010. Major aspects that reflect the process of gender equality on the labour market of Latvia are the following: in comparison with other EU member states, there is a low rate of male employment and their participation in the labour market; a low proportion of women among entrepreneurs; negative increase indices; a low rate of gender equal-

⁷⁴ <http://www.oecd.org/els/employmentpoliciesanddata/oecdemploymentoutlook2002.htm>

ity principle observance, which can be seen from the difference in wages, as well as the distribution of positions among men and women. (See Novikova, 2011)

There is a mix of consistent overall structural advantage of men regarding pay, together with complex local and regional variations. This remains a vital issue to policy change if men are to contribute to gender equality.

3.4.4 National variations in men's domination of vertical segregation

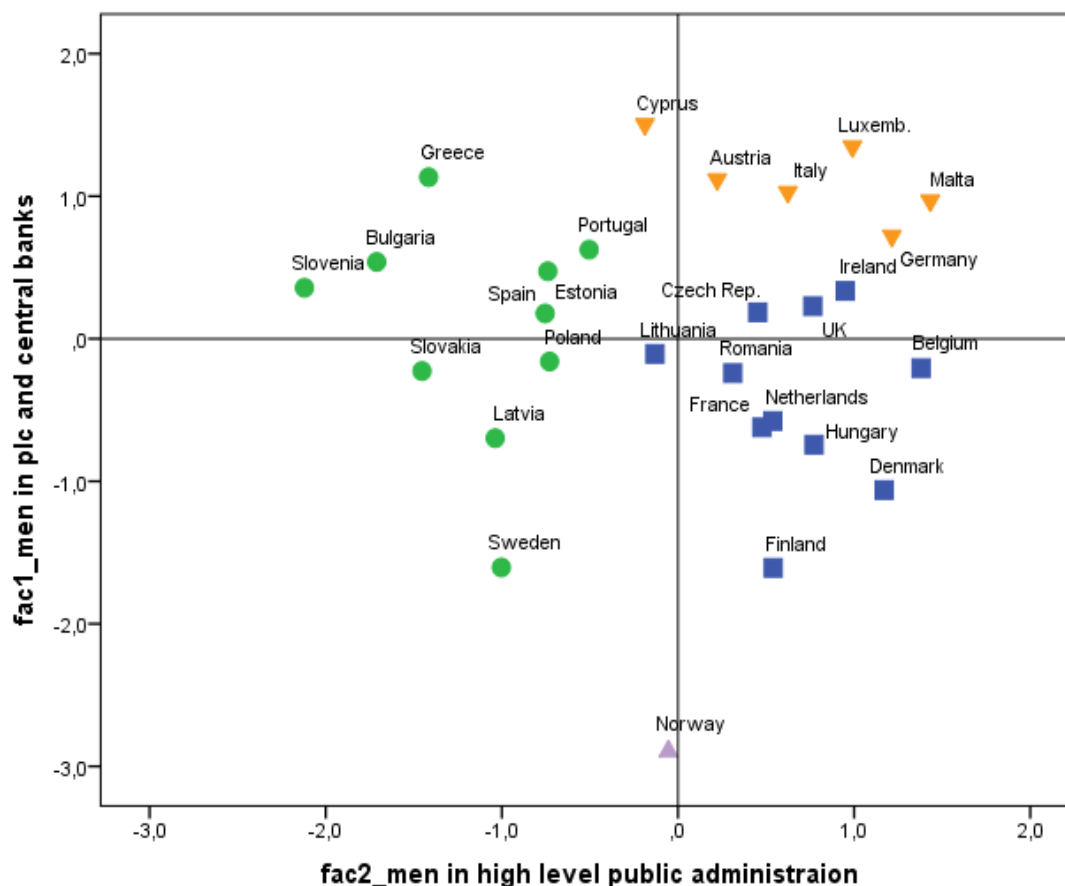
While the described broad patterns and trends are found in most EU member states, there are significant variations and also country clusters which, to some extent, are regional in nature. (See annex 3.13 and 3.14)

A cluster analysis based on two factors which represent vertical segregation results in four country groups with different types of men's participation in high level public administration and business and financial positions.

- Factor 1 has been calculated by the variables 'members of central banks' and 'members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies'. This factor represents men's participation in high level business and financial positions.
- Factor 2 has been calculated by the variables 'level 1 administrators: highest level of administrative (non-political) positions within each ministry' and 'level 2 administrators: second level of administrative (non-political) positions within each ministry'. This factor represents men's participation in high level public administration positions.

On each factor, smaller (negative) figures represent lower percentage of men and higher (positive) figures represent higher percentages of men.

Figure 3.14 Country groups 'vertical segregation': country groups along men's participation in high level public administration and business and financial positions 2010



Purple triangle = concentration of men in high level public administration on EU-average, concentration of men in PLCs and central banks clearly below EU average (less vertical segregation);

Green circle = concentration of men in high level public administration under EU-average, concentration of men in PLCs and central banks mostly around EU average (more vertical segregation than „purple“ in terms of PLCs and central banks, but less in high level public administration);

Blue square = concentration of men in high level public administration mostly above EU-average, concentration of men in PLCs and central banks mostly around EU average (more vertical segregation than purple and green);

Yellow inverted triangle= concentration of men in high level public administration above EU-average, concentration of men in PLCs and central banks above EU average (most vertical segregation);

Source and explanation: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making, extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011. Cluster analysis; method used: Ward, 4 solutions, own calculations.

The exact way in which these clusters operate in detail is subject to great variation, as illustrated by some of the country reports, which in some cases raise additional aspects of vertical segregation.

- The purple (triangle) cluster '**least vertical segregation**' comprises **only Norway**, a country that has been prominent in making it mandatory to have 40% of each gender on the boards of publicly listed companies. (See figure 3.14) While Norway shows low male rates of 'members of central banks' and 'members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies', men's participation in high level public administration positions is on average.
- Within the green (circle) cluster '**less vertical segregation in high level public administration**', where men's overall domination is higher, there are considerable variations in the national situation. In Latvia, for example, "*vertical segregation is the one that causes*

gender discrimination, and its features can be seen, for example, in state administration – those are mainly men who work in higher positions, as well as the wage difference between men and women being bigger.” (Novikova, 2011) In Portugal, *“the top levels of the labour market are occupied essentially by men, and the middle levels essentially by women. At the lower levels of labour hierarchies, those commonly characterized as ‘working class’, men tend to be more numerous in the industrial sector and women in the services, and most of all in the very low qualified and low paid services.”* (Aboim & Vasconcelos, 2011) Even in relatively gender equal Sweden vertical segregation is seen as persisting: *“Manager has been a traditionally male dominated position and still is. However, during the 2000s this trend seems to have been slightly weakened. Of all managers in Sweden, two-thirds are men. It is foremost within the state body that the numbers of women managers have increased; this is less so in the private sector.”* (Balkmar, 2011)

- Within the blue (square) cluster **‘more vertical segregation in high level public administration’**, men’s overall domination is greater still, although changes of gender divisions in leading positions are reported in some of the countries. For example, in France: *“The feminisation of management positions is increasing in all sectors. The construction sector shows the lowest proportion of female managers (13.5%), while it is highest in the service sector (34.2%).”* (Beghiti-Mahut, 2011)
- Within the yellow (inverted triangle) cluster **‘most vertical segregation’**, an additional point raised in the German country report concerns age and vertical segregation: *“To be promoted in the internal hierarchy, the principle of seniority is still crucial. This means that chances for occupational advancement are tied to company affiliation and personal age.”* (Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

Thus, in addition to the broad patterns and clusters outlined, it is important to consider the local and national conditions that both inhibit and promote change, including how men’s domination continues even with gender equality rhetoric; the impact of a long hours culture on management; and intersections of age and gender in management.

Box 3.8 - Good practice ‘vertical segregation’

In **Finland, Iceland and Norway** it is a legal requirement that public sector and governmental boards and similar bodies have at least 40% of female and male members.

In **Norway**, stock exchange listed companies have to have at least 40% of women and men on their boards.

An alternative non-mandatory approach has been developed in **Finland** by the Central Chamber of Commerce: gender equality has been part of their corporate governance code since 2003. In 2008 the code was extended, recommending that all boards should include women and men, and if not, a public explanation is required. Now Finland has the highest figure for larger companies in the EU for women on boards, with 27%. (See European Commission, 2012) Starting on International Women’s Day 2012, the Chamber of Commerce also initiated an 18 months programme of mentoring aspiring women managers and leaders by male CEOs and similar senior leaders. (See Saavalainen, 2012)

Catalyst, the **global** activism organisation in the US, Europe and elsewhere, has launched *Men for Real Change* (MARC), a web-based campaign on men standing publicly for gender change in corporate life.⁷⁵

⁷⁵ <http://onthemarc.org/home>

This includes *Engaging Men in Gender Equality Initiative*⁷⁶ and *Actions Men can Take to Create an Inclusive Workplace*⁷⁷. These actions target individuals, especially men who want to champion change, as well as human resources professionals, especially those in the fields of equality, diversity and inclusion. It specifically addresses men's apathy, fear and ignorance of these issues, and points to the possible use of women mentors of men.

3.5 Analysis: men and workplace cultures

3.5.1 Organisations and gender (in-)equality

Beyond macro tendencies, horizontal and vertical inequalities, another core level of **gender (in-)equality** has to be discussed: in the workplace, gender dynamics and trends among men can be observed **on a level of interaction and organisation/institutional cultures**.

Workplace cultures and their impact on gender (in-)equality (and vice versa) have been researched and discussed for a long time. Women's studies have been particularly interested in the **exclusion of women from leading positions** (see Cockburn, 1991) and the reproduction of male-only management (see Kanter, 1977). Critical studies on men took up this perspective and looked at **hegemonic masculinity in organisations** (see Collinson & Hearn, 2005), or they emphasised men's informal networks to maintain men's workplace dominance (see Höyng & Puchert, 1998). But the way of exclusion is seldom a direct one, and it is not restricted to dominance and management. According to Acker (1990), it is rather an issue of overall working culture: due to the "*gender-based division of labor and the separation between the public and the private sphere*", as Acker (1990, p. 149) argues, the notion of 'a job' already contains gendered meanings. The traditional model of the 'ideal worker' can thus be understood as a male 'ideal type', independent from care and domestic work.

The gendered division in workplace cultures affects the relation between labour and care in the private sphere. As Plantega and Remery (2005) emphasise, "***it is the organizational level where the details of the reconciliation of work and family life are worked out. As such, the organizational level is an important element of the overall care regime, with a distinct effect on patterns of participation and fertility.***" (p. 25)

Having pointed out the separation of spheres and gendered hierarchies, we also have to look at the **changes occurring in the past decades**: women's participation and position on the labour market has advanced in many ways, and it comes along with women's representatives, debates about workplace harassment and glass ceilings, as well as gender equality policies and bodies.

To understand gender relations in organisations, two aspects have to be kept in mind:

- basic structures of gendered attributions and hierarchies,
- workplace steps towards gender equality.

Taking up Plantega's and Remery's quotation, the organisation has to be seen as an interface of work, care, and gender (in-)equality. These areas are strongly connected and have to be linked to the role of men in order to foster gender equality. In current research on men and work, the focus has shifted **from dominant roles of men in management to potential role models like involved fathers, part timers and men in feminised**

⁷⁶ <http://www.catalyst.org/publication/323/engaging-men-in-gender-initiatives-what-change-agents-need-to-know>,
<https://www.catalyst.org/file/283/mdc-web.pdf>

⁷⁷ http://catalyst.org/etc/Virtual_Roundtable_PDFs/Actions_Men_Can_Take_Final_120910.pdf

occupations. (See Holter, 2003; Krabel & Cremers, 2008; Langvasbråten & Teigen, 2006; Puchert, Gärtner & Höyng, 2005) Also, data show that working time and work-family reconciliation increasingly matter to men.

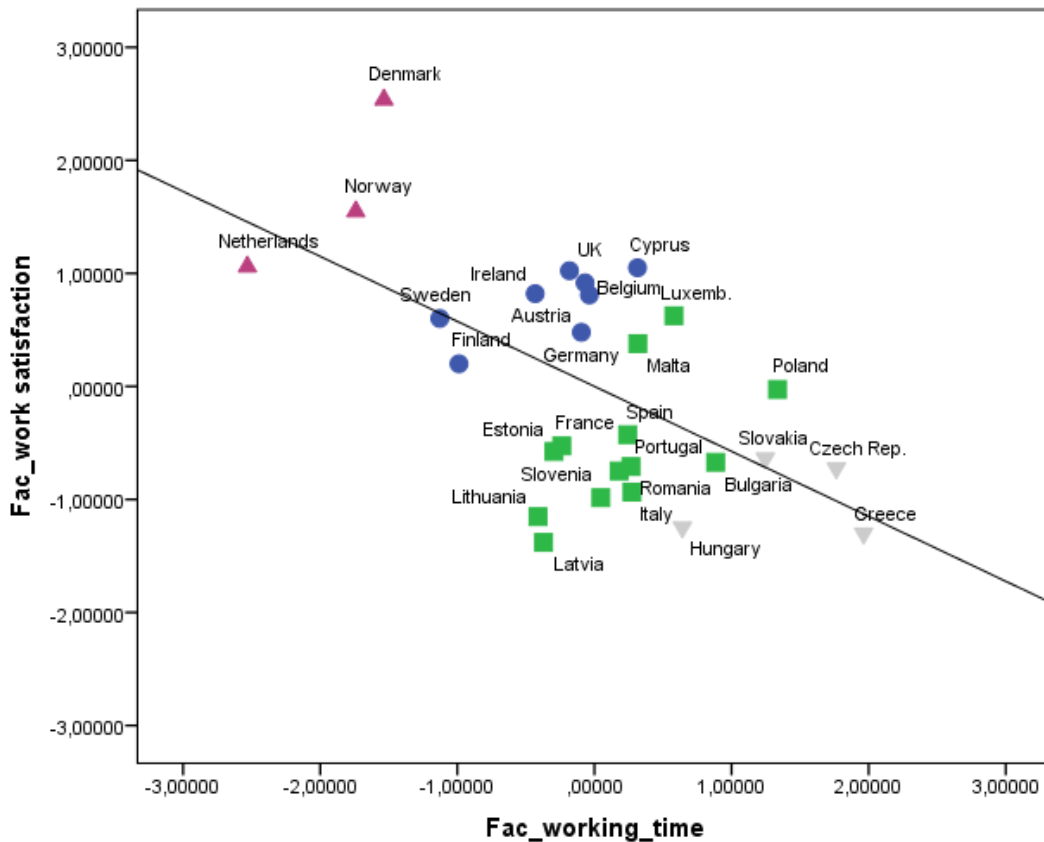
3.5.2 Working time, satisfaction and the reconciliation of work and private life

In 2010, 84.3% of male employees in EU 27 said they were either very satisfied or at least satisfied with their working conditions (females: 84.4%).⁷⁸ The highest levels of satisfaction are among men in Denmark (95.7%), the Netherlands (93.4%) and Norway (92.6%), the lowest among men in Latvia (70.8%), Lithuania (69.9%) and Greece (61.8%). In the same study, 32.8% of male employees said they would like to work less than currently (a figure 4.1% higher than among women), and only 11.8% said they would prefer to work more.

A comparison of work satisfaction and working time suggests a connection of satisfaction to weekly working hours (figure 3.15): Greece shows the highest working hours, while the three countries with the **smallest numbers of weekly hours among men** also show **relatively high levels of satisfaction**.

⁷⁸ Source: EWCS 2010; including employees and self-employed persons. Question: On the whole, are you very satisfied, satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with working conditions in your main paid job? The figures show the sum of responses 'very satisfied' and 'satisfied'.

Figure 3.15 Country groups along 'men's work satisfaction' and payments 'working time', 2010



Source and explanation: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_eggais and lfsa_ewhais); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011 and EWCS 2010; extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011; two factors have been calculated: factor 'work satisfaction' has been calculated with the variables men's satisfaction with working conditions and payments as well as working time fitting with family and social commitments (all EWCS 2010) and factor 'working time' has been calculated with men's average working hours, part time participation (both LFS) and share in long working hours (EWCS 2010). With these two factors a cluster analysis has been calculated to receive related country groups; method used: Ward, 4 solutions, own calculations.

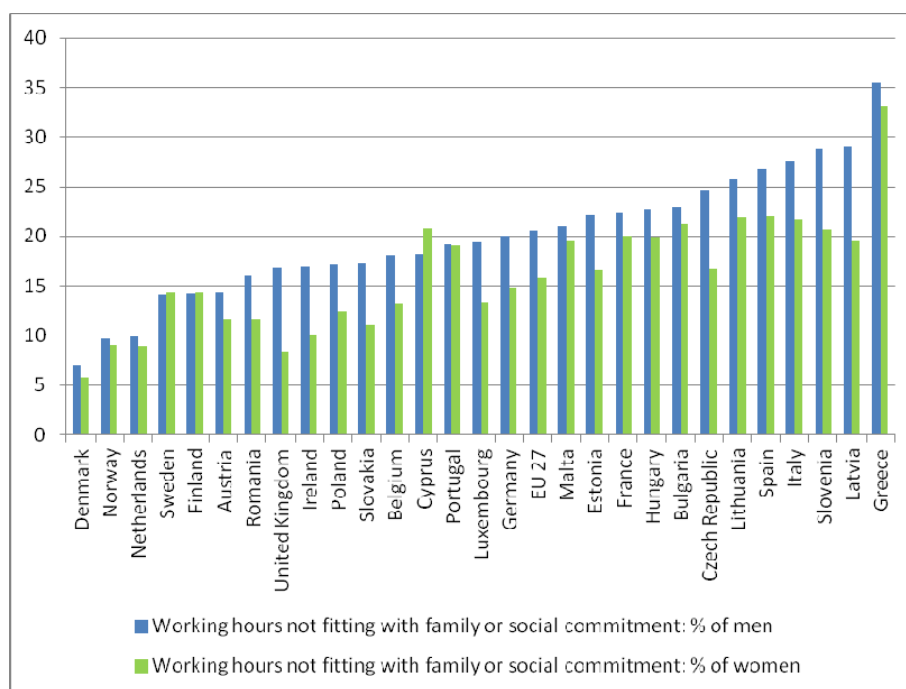
We can distinguish four clusters:

- **'Most satisfied – low working hours'**: men in Denmark, the Netherlands, and Norway are on average most satisfied with their working conditions and possibility to reconcile working time with family and social commitments. Men's actual working hours are below average and men's part time rate is quite high.
- **'Quite satisfied – average working hours'**: men in Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Cyprus, Austria, Finland, Sweden, and the UK are still quite satisfied with working conditions; the working hours are around EU average, and men's part time rate is slightly above EU average.
- **'Little satisfied – average working hours'**: in Bulgaria, Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Romania, and Slovenia the satisfaction with working conditions and payment is below EU average. Actual working hours are around or above EU average and men's part time participation is mostly around or below average.
- **'Hardly satisfied – highest working hours'**: men in the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, and Slovakia are on average hardly satisfied with working conditions and payment.

Men's part time participation is the lowest in the EU and the rate of men working long hours is the highest. Men's average working hours are also among the highest ones.

In terms of gender (in-)equality, men's relation between work and family commitment is important. Since time is a crucial factor here, unsurprisingly we find some similar patterns as in the paragraphs above (figure 3.15). All countries where more than 25% of men say that **working time does not fit family or social commitments** are also in the **lower section of work satisfaction**.

Figure 3.16 Working hours not fitting with family or social commitments by sex, in %, 2010



Source: EWCS 2010; including employees and self-employed persons. Question: In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well? Answers included in the graph: "fit not at all" and "fit not very well"

What we can learn from these data is that time and reconciliation, which are core elements in gender equality at work, do matter to men in terms of work and life satisfaction.

3.5.3 Men, care and organisations

Recent studies have described changes in men's attitudes towards labour and family work: apparently, **men's attitudes have shifted from a clear provider role towards care-integrating models** – in particular related to involved fathering. (See Fthenakis & Minsel, 2002; Gärtner, 2012; Holter, 2003; Puchert, Gärtner & Höyng, 2005) So it seems to be important to change the perspective from 'do men want to care?' to 'do organisations want them to care?' In many cases the answer is: organisations hardly change, and **most organisations are built on and reproduce traditional gender roles**: main issues are lacking opportunities for work-family balance as well as barriers in occupational career for men who care. (See Gärtner, 2012; Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005; Langvasbråten & Teigen, 2006) Since most carers are women, there is a strong connection between the issues of care and gender (in-)equality in organisations. (See Stone, 2007) Therefore, men and care would be a core element of better work and career conditions for women.

The role of men in equality still seems to be quite under-represented. When an EU-supported six countries study (see Puchert, Gärtner & Höyng, 2005) asked about the involvement of men in gender equality processes or the awareness of the situation of part time working men, the usual reaction in organisations was “*We don’t have anything like that here!*” (which is also the chapter title in Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005).⁷⁹ As the authors summarised, “**Gender has become allowed as an organisational issue, but only as far as women are concerned.**” (p. 84) Traditional provider roles of men have not been questioned on organisational level which results in persistent traditional work distribution models between men and women. Moreover, men in care-giving roles in particular are sanctioned, sometimes directly devaluated for not meeting organisational expectations of men as expandable performers. (See Gärtner, Gieseke & Beier, 2006; Holter, 2003; Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005) This contributes to a cultural system that confirms gender-traditional identities (breadwinner role) and couple arrangements (see Holter, 2003), while inequality at the workplace is constantly reproduced.

3.5.4 Changing organisations

Within this adverse framework of gender unequal and care hostile workplace conditions, however, changes towards equality and care integration have taken place and are still taking place. European projects on men, workplace cultures and family care (see Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005; Teigen & Langvasbratn, 2006) confirm that different political, cultural and organisational framework conditions can make a difference. Change processes, however, seldom take place without conflict.

Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor (2005) developed a **change model for gender equality in organisations**, built on three phases.

- In the **early phase**, gender inequality (and care hostility) is the norm, but generally hidden. The model describes a “*neutralized discrimination of caring in general and caring among men in particular.*” (p. 88) Organisations in the first phase show a gender traditional culture and also a gender based devaluation of men in care-giving roles.
- In the **middle phase**, discrimination and exclusion of men in care-giving roles still happen, but conflicts become obvious and changes take place. As an example, organisations often use a rhetoric of care reconciliation and work life balance as an image or front strategy without effectively implementing measures, which sometimes leads to in-house debates. This strategy shows, however, that potential employees – also men – are considered to find these topics relevant and that the demand for real change increases.
- In the **advanced phase**, not only women are regarded as care-givers and enjoy concrete measures to balance work and family but also men. Gender inequality and work-life frictions may not be overcome completely, but measures for reconciliation and equality are applied and become an integral part of the organisation’s policy on different levels. (See Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005) As Gärtner (2012) points out, organisations have quite practical reasons to implement these policies: they are largely interested in well-educated and highly motivated employees or in a family friendly corporate image.

The changes of organisations are not restricted to internal processes only. Different studies (see Gärtner, 2012; Langvasbråten & Teigen, 2006; Puchert, Gärtner & Höyng, 2005) point out certain framework conditions which are important for this process. As the following ex-

⁷⁹ Of course, many differences have to be noted – between individual organisations, branches, and countries. For instance, Nordic countries have been, for a long time, the only ones to offer a pro-active parental leave policy aiming at men, something which has changed in the past years. Other countries offer more incentives to men to take at least some parental leave.

ample shows, proactive measures have to link the national and governmental level (social policy, family policy) to the workplace level.

Box 3.9 - Austria-wide campaign for father-friendly workplaces

Austria

In Austria a new child care allowance scheme was implemented in 2010. One of its targets was to bring more men into paternity leave, which had not been sufficiently successful up to then: in September 2011 the share of fathers was still only 4.6%. To make paternity leave more attractive for men and companies, the *Federal Ministry for Women and the Civil Service* and the *Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection* along with the social partners launched a campaign for father friendly workplaces. The information campaign on paternity leave was directed to company leaders and Human Resources managers and included workshops and events. The core element of this campaign developed and conducted by abz*austria was to provide a support structure for encouraging and implementing 'proactive paternity leave management' in companies. Practical experiences and tools for leave management were introduced, discussed and evaluated at countrywide workshops. In 2011, 182 company representatives and HR managers and company representatives participated in these workshops. The combination of exchange of good practice, information on legal framework and discussion of requirements and benefits of paternity leave allowed participating managers to change attitudes and overcome barriers when recognising the win-win situation achieved by father friendly measures. Positive effects like an improved image and attractiveness as an employer as well as enhancing the loyalty and retention of employees are seen as a major motivation for companies to implement father friendly measures.

By and large, it can be summarised that, in terms of 'caring masculinities', **men are more 'advanced' than the institutional and workplace frameworks are.** (See Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005) These frameworks – company cultures, HR policies for reconciliation, gender equality institutions that are aware of men's reconciliation issues – seem to be crucial for a change of men in the direction of care and gender equality.

3.6 Conclusions and recommendations

The social relations of work represent some of the most fundamental aspects of gender relations, and some of the most important elements in the construction of men, and men's relationship to women and children. Paid work has figured and continues to figure as a central source of many men's identity, status and power. Yet gendered work relations have been subject to some important changes in recent years.

Men's 'breadwinner' role has changed dramatically with globalisation and the shift away from economies that are reliant on male dominated sectors, such as heavy industry and manufacture, towards more 'feminised' service-based sectors. This shift has resulted in considerable job losses for men. The unemployment rate of (mostly working class) men in the EU member states has grown in the past decade. Consequently the **number of men involved in the labour market shows a downward trend**, whereas for women the trend is upward. In particular working class and young men are negatively affected by the consequences of changing labour market conditions. The overall female unemployment rate still tends to exceed the rate of men in the EU.

Globalisation and outsourcing are increasingly relevant not only for less skilled work but also for middle and highly skilled work. Such changes have implications for reducing many men's prospects of long-term secure employment in the sector of their choice or as previously assumed. There are gradual increases in men's part-time work and slight decreases in

women's part time work, which implicates a **trend of women's and men's employment patterns becoming more similar**. However, men with young children continue to have higher employment rates compared to those without children, while for women the opposite holds.

Despite growing participation and education of women it is common across all EU member states that **women are still concentrated in a smaller number of occupations and sectors than men** and that segregation is higher in female dominated than in male dominated occupations and sectors. Nevertheless, in the past ten years women have made significant inroads into some traditionally male dominated sectors, including the managerial/executive sector, business and commerce, military and professional employments, while men have not made significant inroads into female dominated occupations. A particular issue of concern is the **almost absence of men in professional care work**, including nursing, elder care, early childhood education and primary school teaching.

Regarding vertical segregation, there is a more gender equal distribution in middle management and professions, but **slow or little change at the very top of business and science**. The average European gender pay gap of about 16%-17% has not basically changed over the past ten years, with larger gaps at older age.

In terms of the quality of workplaces **men, while being over-represented in private industrial occupations**, are somewhat more exposed to work related health risks, they work longer hours and have less work/family reconciliation options than women. At the same time, workplace studies confirm that on the whole men are more reluctant than women to say that their jobs leave them vulnerable.

The **global migration** of workers raises many issues in terms of access to equitable workers' rights, relations of work, home and family, management of work, cultural and linguistic questions, which still need to be adequately addressed by employment policies. Economic crisis hit male dominated sectors of private industry first (construction, car industry, manufacturing), rendering more men than women unemployed, but now, with a reduction of the welfare state and saving programmes, it is extending to the public sector, which hits women much more than men.

Recommendations

Support the reconciliation of care, home and paid work for men

An essential recommendation is to encourage men to devote more time and priority to the reconciliation of care, home and paid work. This is an important and difficult goal for all countries. In the growing governmental and political debates on reconciliation between home and work life, there is usually a lack of explicit focus on men. While on the one hand governmental commitments to increase men's actual parental leave can be observed, on the other hand the support of family friendly workplaces which include the recognition of men as care-givers is still missing.

Initiatives at European, national, social partners and company level should include:

- Support **work-life balance friendly working time arrangements also for men**, for example part time work, job sharing, flexible working arrangements. These models bear the potentials for a better work-life balance. An increase of non-sanctioned and self-chosen part-time, job-sharing and other flexible forms of employment for men, with sufficient income from shorter working hours, might contribute to the facilitation of work and private life also for men.

- Enact **regulations** which include the right of both parents to reduce working time for defined periods, for example the pre-schooling period of their children or a reduction of working time due to care for relatives.
- Develop a **range of services for counselling companies** to adapt their workplaces along reconciliation policies also addressing men. Especially the support of counselling services conducted from non-profit organisations or social enterprises working in the field of gender equality is recommendable. Also other important stakeholders, like social partners, should be the target group of counselling and information initiatives.
- Develop **campaigns** to encourage men to work fewer hours in order to reconcile work and private life, including role models and pioneers in this regard. Also male politicians and entrepreneurs should be shown as care-givers who organise their working days according to care-giving needs. Such campaigns should not only include young men as fathers but also men taking care of ill partners, their parents, etc.
- Support the **reduction of long-working hours and 'overtime culture'** via regulations on EU and national level.

Change workplaces: from traditional masculinity to gender equal workplaces

As organisations and enterprises are still more favourable to men maintaining traditional male roles and give them certain privileges, several measures should be undertaken for developing gender equality at workplaces. Besides providing a legal framework (compulsory equality plans, parental part time regulations, etc) to implement a gender equal work place, management and business leaders have to be addressed. The business case of a workplace framework fostering gender equality and work-life balance has to be made clear on management level.

A joint effort including social partners and civil society organisations, especially NGOs and social enterprises working in the field of gender equality, seems promising to achieve changes.

Initiatives at European, national, social partners and company level should include:

- Implement **Europe-wide programmes** which support the exchange between companies to spread and adapt good practices already successfully performed at companies regarding gender equality measures including also male employees; for example via workshops and conferences, similar to the European Commission's *Equality Pays Off* initiative.⁸⁰
- Foster social innovation concerning men in gender equality in the private business sector with **different support offers**, like counselling services and workshops which support companies with implementing new gender equality regulations and developing father/care friendly workplaces, development of HR management tools in this respect, etc.
- Support **campaigns and research**, so that businesses become aware of the costs of gender inequality and of dominant masculinities (like unhealthy and risky behaviour, lack of common responsibility) and the benefits of gender equality for male and female employees as well as on company level, like cost and benefit analyses showing the returns on investment.
- **Combine quotas to reduce vertical segregation** (for example in management, on boards, etc) **with awareness raising initiatives** also addressing both management and male employees to stimulate a debate about how men benefit from these quotas (like less pressure, more diversity, better work-life balance, etc).

⁸⁰ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/equality-pays-off/index_en.htm

- **Recognise care as a key competence in organisations.** This would be another important step towards gender equal workplaces for men and women. Recommendable steps could include establishing care as a key competence in the context of quality assurance systems – like EFQM and ISO – as well as promoting it as a part of assessment procedures by organising workshops and developing tools in this regard to support responsible stakeholders.
- Support **gender equal workplaces in the public sector** which could serve as a role model for the private sector. A change of traditional working culture should pursue equality, mutual care and wellbeing of employees, which could be supported by paying more attention to workplace health and safety, shorter working days, friendly working environments, a supportive and caring working style, family-friendly workplaces for both genders, etc.

Support measures to increase men's participation in female dominated occupations

Horizontal segregation is still a predominant pattern across Europe. While some programmes have been initiated to support women to enter male dominated jobs, projects to support men to enter female dominated sectors are still rare. Taking the huge changes on the labour market into account – shift from industry to services, 'white jobs'⁸¹ as a growing sector, etc – current developments should be regarded as a window of opportunity for achieving the desegregation of the labour market patterns. Higher salaries and better working conditions with more full-time positions and better career prospects in female dominated occupations would attract more male (and female) employees, along with efforts to recruit men for female dominated occupations. To avoid negative side-effects – like men making inroads into those sectors by occupying an un-proportional number of top positions – those initiatives should be accompanied by measures supporting gender equality.

Initiatives at European, national, social partners and company level should include:

- Implement **EU-wide programmes** on how to use the **growing sector of 'white jobs'** to set up gender equal workplaces for women and men, to tackle gender based problems like low wages, under-valuation of work, under-representation of male employees in these jobs, etc. Raising the status of health and caring professions through qualification and emphasis on training should result in higher wages for both men and women in the profession.
- Increase the number of **social and labour market policy projects at EU and national level which address men**, thus encouraging them to choose female dominated occupations. These projects can include internships and scholarships for men who want to work in these occupations, workshops and social events where the benefits of desegregation will be presented, involvement of role models which are significant for boys and men (such as charismatic social activists, celebrities, etc) who work in untypical occupations, providing men with better information of non-traditional career options.
- Develop strategies to **re-evaluate care-related paid work**. Trade unions and social partners tend to replicate and reinforce gender gaps if they agree on the same increase for all professions (e.g. plus 3% is more increase in absolute terms for high salaries than for low, and in the long run, the gap automatically widens if the same increases are agreed upon for all income groups. Solidarity models within the trade unions are needed, in the sense that the occupations with higher average salaries (e.g. finance professionals) accept lower increase rates (e.g. increases around the inflation rate) to support the occupa-

⁸¹ 'White jobs' refer to work in the health and social service sectors.

tions with the lower average salaries (e.g. health and care; increases above the inflation rate). In this way, care jobs and traditionally female dominated jobs in general and traditionally male dominated jobs would converge in terms of salaries, in the long run. Consequently, low salaries would not be a barrier any more for men to enter traditionally female dominated occupations.

Reduce social exclusion on the labour market

As gender inequalities intersect with other forms of social stratification, another important recommendation is to work towards reduction of all forms of inequality and marginalisation (for example based on class, race or health condition) which are reflected by uneven access to work. As the results of this study clearly outline, labour market opportunities are strongly influenced by social positions. For example, men with a migration background are often overqualified for ‘blue-collar’⁸² jobs they hold; lowly educated young men show higher unemployment rates than men in other age groups and young women.

Therefore, the integration of marginalised groups into the labour market seems to be a crucial step for improving (gender) equality in the EU member states and EFTA states.

Initiatives at European, national and social partner level should include:

- Increase the number of **social projects** addressed to the representatives of marginalised groups, to increase their involvement in the labour market, improve their social competences and deepen their social integration. A certain percentage of national as well as EU wide funds in this respect (like structural funds, active labour market policy) could be earmarked for marginalised groups.
- Support **legal rules and laws** focussing on the improvement of marginalised groups of men on the labour market. Also equality strategies and anti-discrimination laws should pay special attention to the impact of multiple discrimination (based on age, migration, gender, sexual orientation, etc).

Increase security conditions for young men and women

There has been a considerable increase in temporary work and contracts, especially for young adults. Young men and women seem to be predominantly affected by conditions of precariousness on the labour market. They are those who carry the bulk of risks generated by the growing flexibility of employment (temporary employment, occasional work, poor wages, less social security rights), which may have a long-term impact on developments in gender equality.

Initiatives at European, national and social partner level should include:

- Develop **comprehensive policy programmes** for education and labour, particularly focussing on an increase of permanent, non-precarious employment for men and women.

⁸² ‘Blue-collar’ jobs refer to skilled and unskilled physical work.

4 Care, family and households

4.1 Introduction

For a long time, care-giving has been a women-specific concept. In most societies, as emphasised by Tronto (1993), care work is distributed by gender, class and often by race and ethnicity as well. However, care as a separate and ‘naturally feminine’ task was mainly a development of modern industrial societies. In preindustrial societies, care for children was part of adult work roles among men as well as women, with the household as the main economic unit. (See Holter, 2003)

Increasingly, economists have become aware of the value-creative aspects of care work. (See Folbre, 2008) Daly and Lewis (2000) argue that care should become a central analytic concept in the comparative style of welfare regimes.⁸³ Obviously, the concept of ‘care’ is a point of intersection of a systemic reality that involves individuals, companies (workplaces) and society (welfare system, policies, culture). It also questions the relations between state, family, market, financing and childcare systems for working parents and work-life balancing policies.

One basis of gender equality is equal access of women and men to economic empowerment. However, if women and men both work, chores and parental tasks should fall to both genders to the same extent. This is precisely the reason why increasing men’s share of care-giving (for children, elderly) and domestic work (cleaning, shopping, preparing meals, etc) is one main strategy for extending women’s professional participation.

This relates to key issues in the *Europe 2020* strategy and council conclusions on the *European Pact for Gender Equality* for the period 2011–2020. The role of men in a more gender equal society, focussing on men’s share of caring, is important for the majority of these issues, with better employment and social inclusion among the main goals:

- Employment – better participation of men in family life increases women’s opportunities for labour market participation.
- Social inclusion – increasing men’s share of care-giving and domestic work fosters men’s inclusion in family life as well as women’s inclusion in professional life.

Experiences from the past decades show that policies for men will be less successful if presented from what can be seen as a women’s point of view. There must be a men’s point of view as well, and even more, these gender views need to be integrated into a democratic policy that reaches out to all.

In this chapter, figures and analyses show that men’s proportion of unpaid work has grown. However, time spent on domestic tasks and care activities remains gender-divided and varies significantly between European countries. There is uneven progress and different speeds. The variation can be explained by many factors, including labour market conditions, politics, gender arrangements, family variations and paternity leave systems. The beneficial effects of men’s caring involvement on well-being and better relationships with children are well-established. Increasing men’s share of caring and domestic activities means increasing

⁸³ A system in which the state undertakes primary responsibility for providing security (social and economic) of the state’s citizens (leave regulations, health care, pensions, social security benefits, and others). Countries are situated analytically and comparatively within the concept of ‘welfare state regimes’. Esping-Andersen (1990) developed a three type model (the ‘three worlds of welfare capitalism’) of market societies (conservative, social democratic, liberal), related to the effect of market economy on social inequalities.

women's participation in the workplace. And no country can afford to compromise its competitive potential by neglecting one half of its society.

Do men care? This chapter focuses on men's care for children in heterosexual parental couples, which constitutes the majority of families. We underline the importance of a broad concept of families, and the fact that men's care issues also include homosexual or trans-families, friendships and other relations, although these issues cannot be fully treated here on the basis of the available data.

It is important to recognise that men, regarding their practices, may be 'traditionally', but not necessarily gender un-equal. Good answers to the question of men's benefit from a larger share of care and domestic work depend on better research, focussing more precisely on the gender equality dimension, the socio-economic position, ethnicity, etc. A better understanding of men in care-giving roles requires an improved mapping of actual gender (in)equality, in terms of decision-making and division of economic resources, local environment, gender and family culture, labour division at home and at work as well as quality of life and health variables and of how all these aspects interact.

At a glance

- Increasingly, the answer to the 'do men care' question is 'yes', as measured by men's share of care activities at home. Indeed, there is an increasing desire to contribute to family life and childcare that goes beyond a theoretical level. Research shows a gradual yet historically remarkable change in men's participation in large parts of Europe – a growing participation in caring, especially caring for children at home, and in many fields of domestic work.
- Why do men care? Studies point to improved contact with children, satisfaction with life, relationship satisfaction, and other positive effects for men, through participation in care tasks and domestic work at home. The evidence is strong regarding care participation. Men's participation in domestic tasks is also strongly associated with women's relationship satisfaction, general well-being, and happiness. (See Bauer, 2007; Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2009; Scott, Dex & Plagnol, 2012)
- The potential benefits for men include better quality of life, health, and better marriages and relationships, with less probability of conflict and violence. These factors are partly the same as for women, yet men's view of doing traditionally feminine work is more mixed and ambivalent, especially in gender-conservative contexts. If the family puts emphasis on a traditional gender differentiation of tasks, so that for example cooking is a woman's task, the man's venture with the pots and pans may not be positively received.
- Men's choices partly depend on jobs and labour markets that accept men's care-giving role. The European labour market is not always supportive of an extended male share of caring. Men's care-giving role may become a job and career deficit. It is more associated with a downwards social mobility, compared to the upwards social mobility associated with women's increased presence in professional work. (See Holter, 2007a, 2007b)

4.2 Basic results

4.2.1 Men's share in caring and domestic work activities

Men's increasing proportion of care tasks at home was first seen in time use studies in the 1980s and 1990s, especially in Northern and Central European countries. In that period,

men's larger share was mainly related to **women spending less time at home**, associated with their larger professional participation. Thus the increasing employment rate of women in Europe has slightly reduced their unpaid work. (See figure 4.1; annex 4.1)

There is a connection between women's work and men's share of domestic work and parental tasks. Part-time work 'chosen' for family reasons is still largely more a women's than men's reality, associated with women's greater involvement in domestic and family tasks (e.g., in France 34% of women chose part-time work for family reasons, against 6% of men; see Bué 2002; see also Champagne-Morozon, 2012). According to a representative survey in Norway, in households where men share the domestic work, women work 14% more hours in paid work, compared to households with little sharing.⁸⁴ Across Europe there is a clear tendency that **men's contribution to domestic work comes along with a larger women's contribution to paid work**. Men's provider role and their share of the household income (among married and cohabitating couples) are strong predictors of a low level of male involvement in domestic work and care tasks, increasing the burden of women.

Men's increasing share of care and domestic tasks generally strengthens women's career opportunities and labour market potential, but this depends also on the man's role in a wider sense which includes his **views and norms regarding gender and gender equality** and his willingness to balance jobs or careers in the relationship. Even if patriarchal authority is mainly weakened in most of today's Europe, power differences remain. Economic factors (such as gender pay gap, etc) may also prolong men's breadwinner position, even among couples with gender equal ideals.

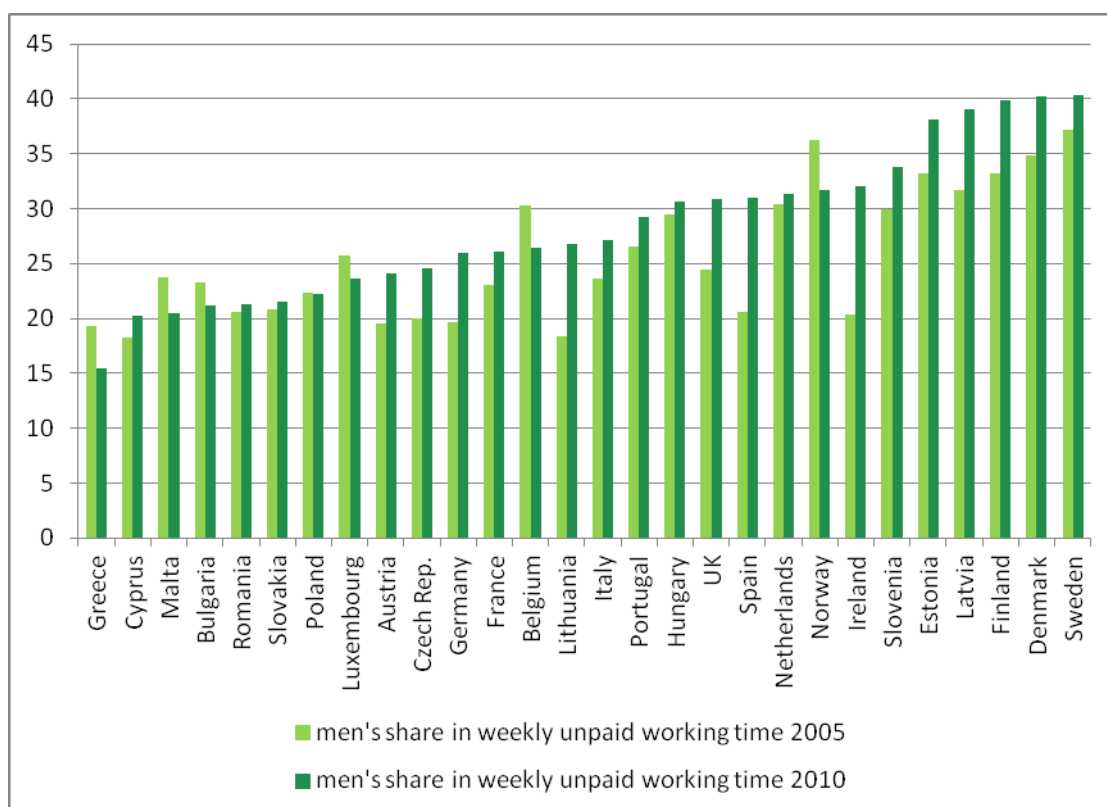
Today, men in Europe rate the **benefit of domestic work** quite differently. This is indicated by their highly varying share of care, and is further highlighted by the country reports of the current project. Men's reduced work time and extended use of time at home results from a number of factors, some of them not especially being gender equal, like unemployment – so we should not expect automatic gender equal effects at homes as a result of men taking a larger share of domestic work.

Likewise, it is not the case that a **woman's full employment** 'guarantees' her man's participation at home. However, employment remains important as one of the key factors for gender equality. Women's march towards full employment is a clear trend both in Europe and elsewhere, **increasing the need for other work input in the household**. This can come from other family members, paid help – or from men.

From 2005 to 2010, men's proportion of unpaid work at home has continued to grow (see figure 4.1). In 2010, men's share of weekly unpaid working time varies from 15.5% in Greece to more than double this figure, reaching 40.3% in Sweden and 40.2% in Denmark.

⁸⁴ Calculated by Holter for this report, based on Holter, Svare & Egeland (2009).

Figure 4.1 Men's share in weekly unpaid working time, by country, in %, 2005 and 2010



Source: EWCS 2005 and EWCS 2010; EWCS 2005: combination of different variables: ef4.1c, ef4.1d; explanations: average weekly unpaid working time: unpaid work is calculated for 7 days a week and includes hours of caring for and educating own children (included are persons with children aged less than 18 living in the same household) as well as hours for household/cooking-tasks; EWCS 2010: combination of different variables: ef3c, ef3d; explanations: average weekly unpaid working time: unpaid work is calculated for 7 days a week and includes hours of caring and educating for own children (included are persons with children aged less than 18 living in the same household) as well as hours for household/cooking-tasks; EWCS includes only persons in employment/self-employment; own calculations.

In some regions, like Northern Europe, gender equality expectations and norms have become stronger, and **men have become more involved**. With some exceptions, Nordic countries are at the top of the list in figure 4.1.

The graph shows important variations over the five years period. There was a large **increase in men's share** in some countries, like Ireland, Spain, Finland, Denmark and Lithuania. There was some increase in other countries, like Sweden and Portugal. Yet there was a decrease in a minority group of countries, like Greece, Bulgaria, Malta, Luxembourg, Belgium and, slightly, Poland.⁸⁵

The variation patterns can be interpreted as partial progress. In contemporary Europe, men's share of unpaid work (care and domestic work) is two times higher in the countries with the highest values (some Northern European and Post-socialist countries) than in the countries with the lowest values (some Southern and Post-socialist countries). The country reports often describe national and cultural patterns that vary more than the actual domestic work balance figures. The main tendency is that a **higher male share of caring (for children,**

⁸⁵ Norway seems to belong to this group, and shows a decline, while the rest of the Nordic countries show a rise, but this may be due to data error. Men's participation has increased in the 2000-2010 period, according to other research in Norway. Men increased their household task time by 23 minutes from 2000 to 2010, according to the latest time use survey. (See Vaage, 2012)

elderly) comes along with a higher share of domestic work (cleaning, shopping, preparing meals, etc), although there is variation also regarding this point.

Looking specifically at **domestic work**, we see large variations of men's participation. Again, variations between countries are considerable. Yet there are also large differences on the household level, according to which kinds of tasks men engage in.

Men's proportion of the time spent on domestic tasks varies from 50% or more for some formerly 'women-only' tasks to 10% or less for other tasks. (See Aliaga, 2006) This means that, at the task level, some tasks remain very gender-divided or imbalanced, while others have become more balanced.

- Cleaning, still very feminine, and repairs, still very masculine, are examples of still significantly gendered tasks.
- Tasks like preparing meals, cooking, and shopping have shifted towards a more gender-balanced direction over the past decades. These are examples of recently de-gendered tasks, which people do according to their preferences and not based on gender norms.
- Care for small children remains mainly a feminine task, yet the gender balance in care tasks at home has gradually grown.
- In many countries women are responsible for tasks that require most of the time and are less 'optional' and may not be delayed (e.g. caring for elderly in Poland). (See Perek-Białas & Stypińska, 2011)

According to household economic theory (see Becker, 1985), the family is more likely to invest in the woman's education and paid work if there are good public childcare systems, good jobs for women, and a general expectation that a working mother will be good for a child and that men should participate in caring for children.

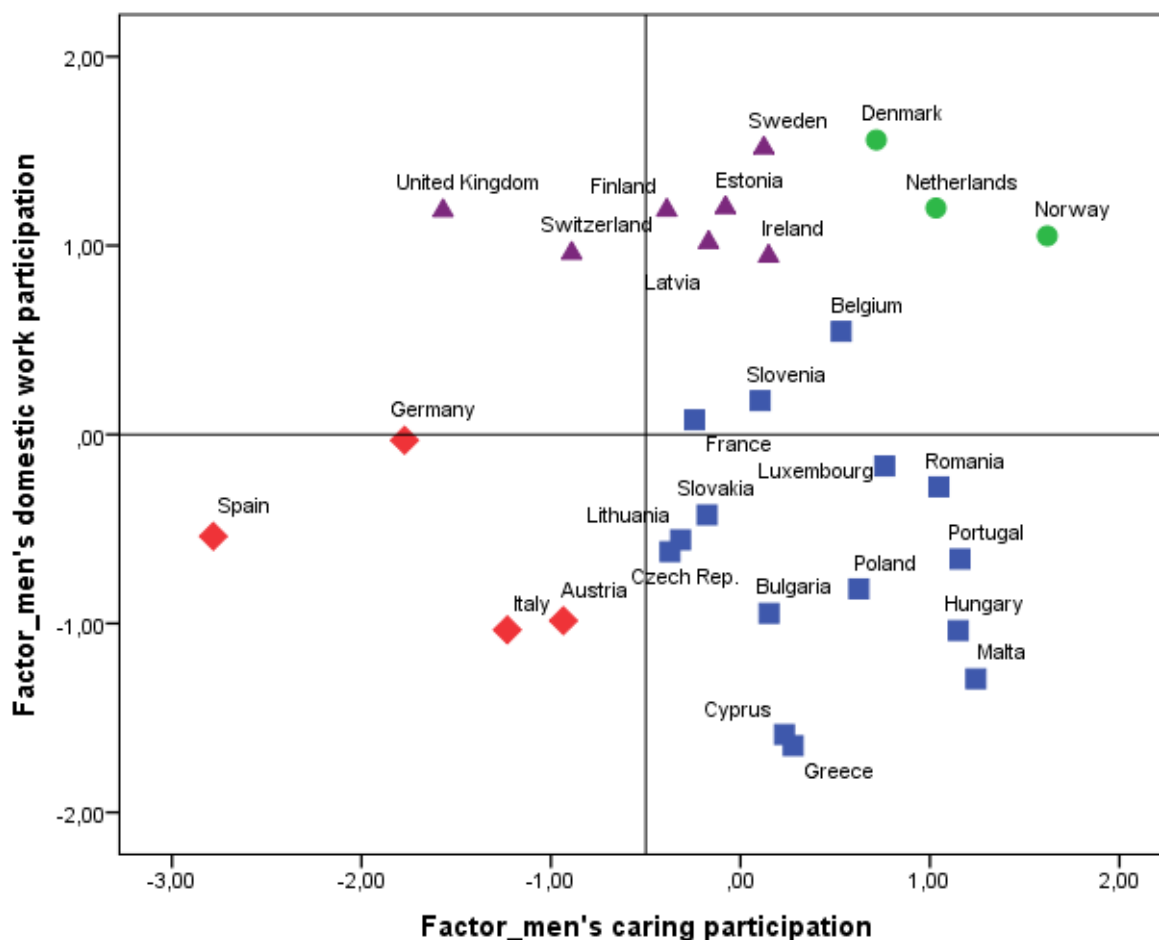
4.2.2 Different patterns of men's share of domestic work and care

Domestic work and care are two different fields of unpaid work, and participating in one field does not necessarily mean that men also participate in the other one. Research has often assumed that these are much the same trends and that they overlap considerably. But is this true?

This is examined at the country level, in the scatter plot of countries in figure 4.2. Two dimensions are presented, that of men's share of domestic work and that of men's share of care. Four clusters emerge:

- The '**most integrated**' (green circles) cluster with a high degree of male participation in domestic work and care includes Northern and Central European countries (Denmark, Norway, the Netherlands), which show a high level of gender equal expectations and emphasis on dual professional careers (paid work).
- The '**domestic work integrated**' (violet triangles) cluster is marked by a high share of men in domestic work accompanied by a lower share of care work in some Northern, Central and Post-socialist countries.
- There is considerable variation within the '**care integrated**' (blue squares) cluster (the cluster with a higher share of care work and lower share of domestic work). Different gender norms and expectations (more traditional than in the other parts of Europe), varying gender equality progress (different level of the progress in certain Post-socialist countries), and labour market differences probably explain this variation.
- The '**low integrated**' (red rhombuses) cluster (with the Southern and Central European countries Germany, Spain, Italy and Austria) is characterised by a low participation rate of men in both domestic work and care.

Figure 4.2 Scatter plot of country groups, men's participation in caring for/educating their own children and in domestic work, 2005



Source and explanation: EWCS 2005; combination of two variables; ef4c,ef4d; The underlying questions were: "How often are you involved in caring for and educating your children?" and "How often are you involved in cooking and housework?" Answers have been classified in the three categories "Every day for 1 hour or more", "Never", and all answers in between (every second day until one or twice a year) were classified as "In-between-participation"; EWCS includes only persons in employment/self-employment; a factor analysis was conducted with the answers "never" and "everyday" and two factors were extracted: factor men's caring/educating participation and factor men's domestic work participation. A cluster analysis was conducted with these two factors: method used: linkage between groups, 4 solutions.

Note that the cluster solution is not very clear – there are large distances within clusters as well as distance between them. However, the analysis shows that there is indeed some variation between caring and domestic work participation, even if the main traditional argument, that these often go together, is not refuted.

A detailed survey in Norway (Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2009)⁸⁶ shows the effect of income and education on men's share of domestic work and care:

- While men with higher education are one third more likely to do a large share of **domestic work**, compared to men with low education, men with high incomes are less likely to share equally, especially if their wives or partners have lower incomes. In other words: a man's tendency to participate in domestic work varies positively with education, but negatively with income.
- Looking at men's share of **care for children**, the tendency is much the same: the probability that the man will do a large share increases with education (by almost 40%) and

⁸⁶ The Norwegian survey material from 2007 was re-analysed for this chapter.

decreases with income (by about 15%), especially if their wives or partners have lower incomes.

- A third dimension, **equally shared decisions among couples**, occurs regardless education and income level.
- The study confirms that men's share of domestic work and their share of care are associated, even if there are somewhat different trends. The correlations between men's participation in the three fields of domestic work, caring work and equal decision-making were quite high, leaving little doubt that there is a strong common theme.
- Further, **gender equal norms** have an impact on sharing patterns. Men with gender equal norms and beliefs (for example, that domestic tasks should be shared equally) showed a one third higher probability of participating in domestic work and a 10% higher probability of participating in care for children, compared to men with less gender equal norms.
- Other variables also influenced men's share of domestic and care work, among them the **balance between paid and unpaid work among couples** (bigger men's share when the woman's contribution to the family income and other material resources was high) and **age** (younger men are somewhat more gender equal).

4.2.3 Men's care and female labour market participation

The *Europe 2020* strategy aims at a 75% employment rate among adults of 20–64 years in 2020.⁸⁷ To achieve this goal, mainly the employment rate of women will have to be increased in the coming years as an important gender employment gap exists (75.1% for men vs. 62.1% for women in 2010) while men's employment rate is close to the 2020 target.

Women's employment rate in 2010 varied from about 50% in Italy, Greece, Hungary and other Southern and Post-socialist countries, over medium values around 65% in Germany, the UK, France and other Central European countries, to high values in the area of 75% in the Northern countries. (See annex 3.1)

In table 4.1 the large variation in the main types of couple arrangements of paid and unpaid work among European countries is shown.

⁸⁷ http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/europe-2020-in-a-nutshell/targets/index_en.htm

Table 4.1 Employment status* of persons living in couple households with children, by country, in %, 2005 and 2010

	2005			2010		
	Both employed full-time	One employed full-time. one part-time	One employed. one not employed	Both employed full-time	One employed full-time. one part-time	One employed. one not employed
EU 27	34.9	24.6	34.7	36.4	25.7	32.1
Belgium	33.4	36.3	24.9	34.9	37.3	22.0
Bulgaria	55.4	3.8	30.4	65.1	1.5	25.7
Czech Republic	55.9	7.2	33.6	53.2	7.8	36.2
Germany	16.3	39.7	37.1	17.4	46.3	31.5
Estonia	56.2	6.4	34.6	47.4	6.7	39.2
Greece	47.1	5.1	44.2	48.5	5.8	40.9
Spain	36.5	15.7	43.1	35.7	14.7	40.5
France	39.7	26.0	29.7	42.8	25.9	26.5
Italy	32.5	18.1	44.3	32.2	19.4	42.1
Cyprus	54.3	10.6	32.7	59.3	10.4	26.9
Latvia	57.5	7.8	30.4	49.8	9.0	33.6
Lithuania	62.7	7.6	26.2	56.2	6.7	29.9
Luxembourg	24.5	33.3	39.4	28.6	34.4	33.9
Hungary	48.6	3.6	39.2	45.8	4.9	39.4
Malta	17.2	10.3	66.3	24.1	15.6	54.8
Netherlands	5.3	64.3	26.4	6.4	68.8	21.5
Austria	25.6	40.5	29.7	23.2	46.6	26.5
Poland	47.0	6.8	37.3	54.6	6.1	34.4
Portugal	63.3	7.8	25.9	63.1	6.3	26.5
Romania	54.1	5.3	31.4	56.1	6.1	29.6
Slovenia	73.9	5.4	18.1	72.0	8.5	16.6
Slovakia	59.2	2.1	32.0	57.2	2.8	34.9
Finland	60.4	9.8	26.0	58.6	11.2	26.9
UK	25.1	41.3	27.5	26.6	38.8	27.9

Source: Labour Force Survey, Eurostat; Online-Code: lfst_hhnhwhct; for some countries: no data available; * not included in table: couples in which both are not employed.

- The proportion of dual earner couples with children (both parents fully employed) varies from 6.4% in the Netherlands and 17.4% in Germany to 72% in Slovenia and 65.1% in Bulgaria. These figures are by themselves clearly not indicative of the state of gender equality.
- Also, the 'housewife pattern' (men employed and woman unemployed) varies, somewhat in line with smaller dual earner proportion, but also on its own, and is generally highest in Southern countries (Malta 54.8%, Italy, Spain and Greece over 40%). Norway, not included in table 4.1, is among the most gender equal countries in Europe, and yet low to middle regarding the two full jobs proportion, with many women having part-time jobs even if the once large housewife pattern is now quite small.
- On average, nearly 60% of couples are now dual earner families. However, dual earner couples with both parents working full-time are not yet a majority in Europe. It covers over 40% of couples with a child under 14 years old in France, Sweden, Italy and Spain, and less than 30% in Germany and the UK. (See OECD, 2011)

Even if income balance is very important for gender equality in the household, full-time job balance is not clearly associated with gender equality at the national level. Economic equality is not enough. The allocation of household is more complex than the rational choices of time availability. There are other factors, such as **politics, culture and family traditions**, that play their own role. Full-time or dual career job balance seems to be associated with gender equality *if* cultural, social and political patriarchy is dismantled or mostly eroded.

4.2.4 Family variations and the price of a child

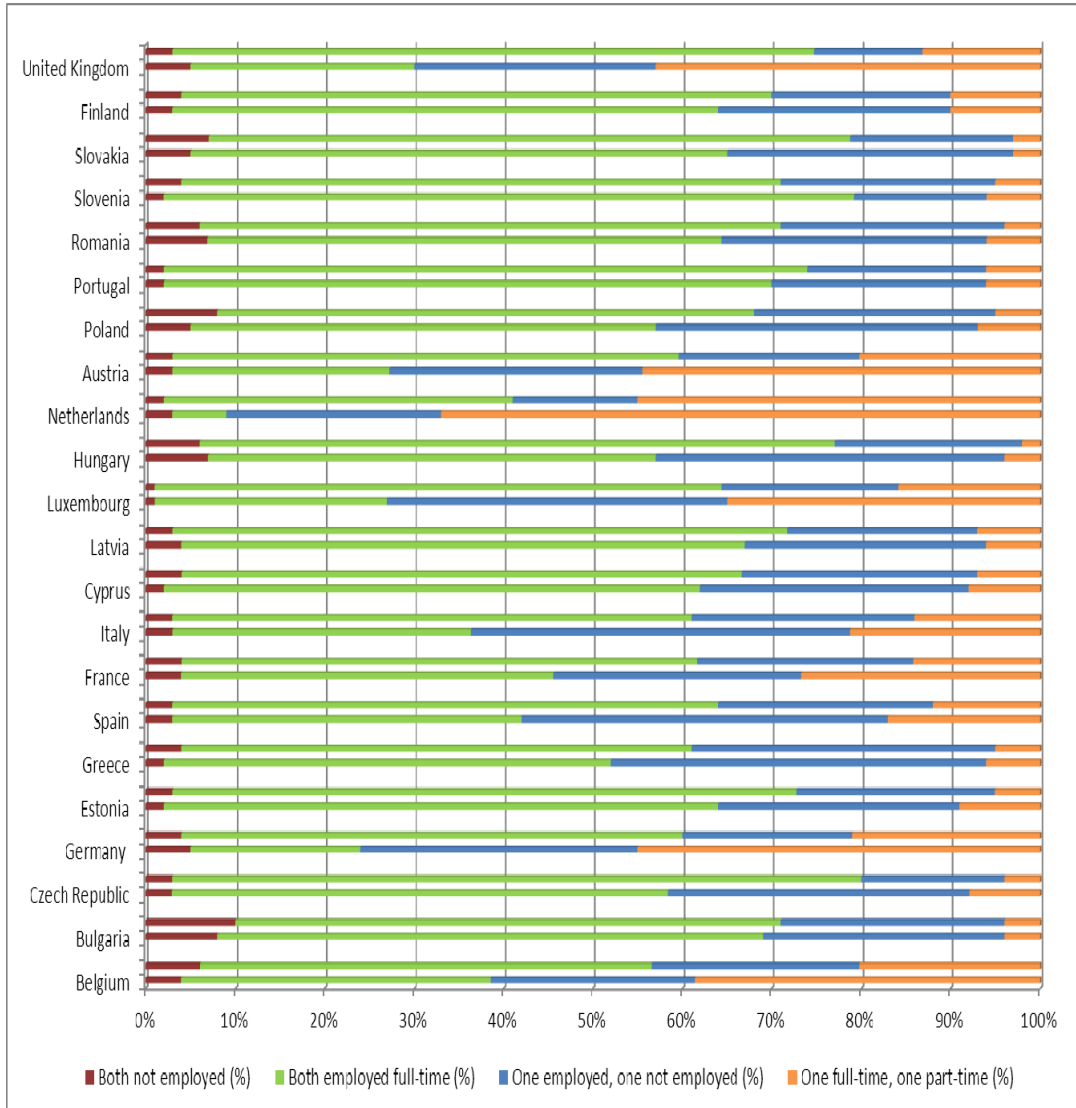
Families are structurally related to the society surrounding them, and state regulations have an impact on the choices and lives of family members. State regulations can increase men's share of care for children, yet the actual use of such reforms differs between families.

The country material variation mirrors the influence of different states' regulations on family lives. At the same time, the influence of family members should not be neglected. Families can be perceived as active social units in societies, which are able to engage or change social structures, through the values, choices and activities of the family members.

The attitudes of European families are sometimes positive towards welfare and gender equality at home, sometimes ambivalent, and sometimes negative. **'Re-traditionalisation'** is the concept used by those having the latter tendency in their country reports. Country reports from the Post-socialist countries often mention this tendency and connect family policy and family trends to nation-building and nationalism. Currently in Lithuania, for example, the amendment which, in 2005, entitles fathers of newborn children to a fully paid month of paternal leave that is non-transferable to mothers is limited only to those married to the mother of the child. Conservative forces justified such regulations as being necessary to preserve a traditional family model. (See Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011) Some authors of country reports describe that many people in Post-socialist countries have the impression that gender equality is a Western myth bringing more damage than good to both men and women.

Figure 4.3 shows the change of household composition in terms of employment, associated with having children. The 'costs' of children, in terms of fewer balanced couple arrangements (green lines) vary between countries.

Figure 4.3 Employment status of persons from 25-49 living in households as couples, by country 2006. Explanation: Upper bar: Without children; lower bar: with children



Source: Labour Force Survey, Eurostat; In: Eurostat (2009): Reconciliation between work, private and family life in the European Union, Luxembourg. Notes: Malta and Lithuania: extremely unreliable data/no data available, Denmark, Ireland and Sweden: No data available.

Some countries, like the UK, the Netherlands, Austria and Germany, show a large change from full-time to part-time work, depending on the presence of children in the household. Others, like Finland, Latvia and Bulgaria, show little difference. These trends partly run across gender equality arrangements. Part-time work for women as a 'Western' pattern has been found over many decades, and it appears here as well. In many countries with a high rate of female part-time work the welfare system is better and the chance to get back into a full-time job is higher than in the countries with a low rate of female part-time work.

There is a tendency for Northern and Central European countries to have a lower proportion of dual full-time earners. (See annex 4.2) This variance seemingly runs against a hypothesis that gender equality is associated with this dual full-time type of couple arrangements. This seeming contradiction can be partly explained by the fact that dual full-time is associated with economic needs (higher levels in poorer countries, especially in Eastern Europe) and not just

with gender equality. Family and welfare variations, as well as particular working patterns (eg. Netherlands gives priority to part-time work), could also explain this contradiction.

4.2.5 The state of paternity leave regulations across Europe

Currently it is very difficult to give a fully accurate picture of how European states implement their family policies,⁸⁸ although, among the barriers against gender equality, parental leave⁸⁹ and paternity leaves⁹⁰ can be singled out. Both leaves vary significantly between countries. They contribute more or less to supporting an equal sharing of parenthood.⁹¹ Paternity leave ranges from no days at all in Italy, for example, to three months in Iceland.

Table 4.2 Paternity leave and father quota systems in European countries, 2012

Country	Paternity leave & father quota systems in Europe, 2012
Austria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No statutory leave, but some private sectors grant 2 days to fathers. ■ The public sector provides up to 1 unpaid month.
Belgium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 10 days. ■ The first 3 days are 100% paid by the employer and the compensation rate of the rest is 82% with a ceiling. The 10 days should be taken before the 4th month after the child's birth.
Czech Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Denmark	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 2 weeks must be taken up by the 4th week following the child's birth; the compensation rate is similar to maternity leave (100%). Everybody is eligible, including homosexual partners.
Estonia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 2 weeks unpaid.
Finland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 18 days + 24 bonus days if the father takes at least the first 2 weeks of parental leave. ■ The first 18 days can be divided into 4 periods; the bonus periods must be taken at once. ■ 70% compensation rate with a ceiling.

⁸⁸ Family policy can be defined as actions undertaken by the governments or other bodies at international and national levels (by using law, rules, codes or other similar mechanisms in public and/or private sector), which influence families. (See Bogenschneider, 2006) The definition of family policy given by Ooms (1990) refers to family creation (marriage and divorce, adoption, etc), economic support, child-rearing and family care-giving (assistance for elderly, etc).

⁸⁹ Parental leave is an individual right to leave for workers, which will give them the possibility to take care of a child after birth or adoption.

(See <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/industrialrelations/dictionary/definitions/PARENTALLEAVE.htm>)

⁹⁰ "Paternity leave is leave granted only to fathers for a limited period around the time of childbirth (not necessarily immediately after birth, but within a short period thereafter)." (<http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=3546>)

⁹¹ Father's share of total parental leave days in Nordic countries (2009): Iceland 34.0%, Sweden 23.0%, Norway 12.0%, Denmark 7.0%. (See <http://www.regjeringen.no/nb/dep/bld/dok/regpubl/stmeld/2010-2011/meld-st-6-20102011/10/1/4.html?id=625786>)

France	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Paternity leave is not compulsory. It lasts 3+11 days (2 weeks) and it can be taken within the first 4 months after the birth. ■ Compensation rate with a ceiling (8.72€ > <77.24€/day) similar to maternity leave. All fathers are eligible.
Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave, but paid parental leave that encourages fathers to take up a minimum of 2 months. ■ Elterngeld (parental allowance) of 67% compensation rate (net wage; decreasing with higher wages).
Greece	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 2 days after the child's birth. ■ Paid by the employer (private sector). ■ In the public sector fathers are entitled to 5 days of a so-called special family leave upon their child's birth.
Hungary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 5 days within the first 2 months. ■ Compensation rate of 100% with no ceiling. No flexibility.
Iceland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The law does not distinguish between separate maternity, paternity and parental leaves, only 'birth leave' of which 1/3 is for mothers, 1/3 for fathers and 1/3 for parents to divide as they choose. ■ 12 weeks are paid for fathers with 80% compensation rate.
Ireland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Italy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Latvia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Fathers can take 10 calendar days paid (100%) leave within the first 2 months after the birth of the child.
Liechtenstein	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Lithuania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 4 weeks and 100% compensation rate with a ceiling.
Luxembourg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Malta	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Paternity leave amounts to 2 working days on full pay and must be taken up at a stretch within 15 days after the birth of each child.
Norway	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Fathers can take 12 full paid weeks. ■ In addition to these 12 weeks they have the possibility to take out 10 days near to birth. But only those working in the public sector have guaranteed compensation rates when the baby is born.
Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 2 days paid by the employer. Must be taken within the first 4 weeks following the child's birth.
Poland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 2 weeks paid leave.
Portugal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Parental leave exclusively reserved for the father (Father's-only parental leave). ■ 10 mandatory days should be taken within the first month, 5 of which have to be taken immediately after the child's birth and 10 days are optional (could be taken in the same time as the maternity leave). ■ 100% compensation rate with no ceiling.
Romania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ a) max. 5 days, b) max. 15 days (5 plus 10) if a child-care certificate is obtained after a child-care course and c) max. 7 days for fathers enrolled in the military service (all these forms to be requested for within 8 weeks after the birth of the child). ■ Payment: 25% (for 5 days) and 75% (for 15 days) from an average of 20 working days.
Slovakia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Slovenia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 90 days paternity leave (63 working days). The first 15 days are not divisible and must be taken at once. These have to be used in the first 6 months after the child's birth. The other 75 days of unpaid leave have to be spent in the first 3 years of the child's life. ■ The first 15 days are paid. 100% compensation rate with a ceiling.

Spain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 15 days (4 weeks in 2012) with 100% compensation rate and a ceiling of 3.198 €/month. The first 2 days must be taken after the child's birth, to have a social security registration and to have contributed for 180 days within the 7 years before the child's birth or 360 days in the whole career.
Switzerland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No paternity leave.
Sweden	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Since 1974 men have been able to take paternity leave and parental leave. Paternity leave and parental leave are paid (80%). ■ 60 days of a total of 480 days are reserved for the father (and 60 for the mother). Fathers also get 10 days at birth. ■ The parents also get a gender equality bonus if they share the parental leave days equally.
United Kingdom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 2 weeks to take up to the 56th day after the child's birth. ■ £135.45 per week or 90% compensation rate of the reference wage with a ceiling. ■ The <i>Optional Paternity Leave</i> (unpaid) possibility to transfer a period of the maternity leave up to six months if the mother is back to work.

Source: Adapted from François-Xavier Chivot, Inventory of different leaves in European and North American Countries. In (Gresy, 2011, and International Review of Leave Policies. Related Research: http://www.leavenetwork.org/fileadmin/Leavenetwork/Annual_reviews/2012_annual_review.pdf). Adaptations based on national experts informations 2011.

According to OCED (2008) and to researchers contributing to this issue (see Méda, 2008), the optimal period for parental leave seems to be around four to six months, and the use of longer leave periods can permanently tarnish people's employment and earnings. The example of Iceland is given as the country which has made the most progress in making fathers spend more time with their children.⁹² (See Gresy, 2011)

Box 4.1 – Iceland: Parental leave as a tripartite model

The parental leave system provides parents with nine months of paid parental leave: three months for fathers, three for mothers and also three months to share, or for one of the parents to use six months. The three months, earmarked for the mother and father, are not transferable. Prior to 1997, the Icelandic parental leave was only six months long and the economic compensation was flat-rate and very low. While the leave was in principle divisible between parents, in reality only around 0.3 percent of fathers made some use of it. In 1997 fathers got the right to a two-week paternity leave immediately after the birth and at least one third of them made use of it. The *Parental Leave Act* from 2000 is one of the decisive steps Iceland has taken in legislation on gender issues during the past decade. The aim of the act has been to ensure a child's access to both parents and to enable the parents to combine work and family life. The payments come from a special fund (*Maternity/Paternity Leave Fund*). In 2001, after the new legislation was introduced, as many as 82.4% of fathers used their right to parental leave, and in 2008 the figure was up to 90.9%. (See Parukoski & Lammi-Taskula, 2012) The average number of days used by fathers in 2007 was 101 days, while women used 181 days. Research has shown that this has had the following effects: fathers are building up closer relationships with their children and women and men are on a more equal footing at the workplace. The challenge during the recession was to protect the structure of the parental leave system and to encourage fathers to continue using their rights. The government has been forced to reduce payments because of severe budget cuts. (See Gíslason, 2011)

⁹² Each parent has the right to a non-transferable three-months paid leave period, with another three-months period of paid leave to be shared among partners.

4.3 Analysis

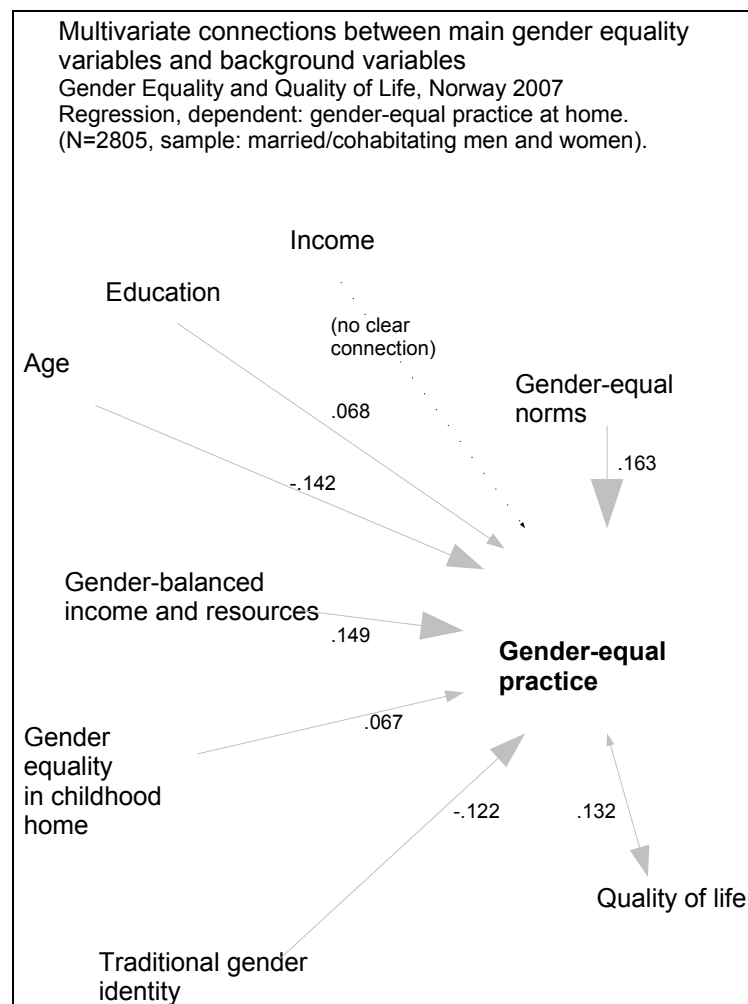
4.3.1 Why does men's share of care and domestic work vary?

It is clear that many factors contribute to the picture, including gender culture, family traditions and labour market conditions. These have recently been investigated by using detailed survey methods with a focus on gender equality variations.

The following figure shows the most significant associations or predictors of men's share of domestic work (equal practices) in a Norwegian 2007 survey on gender equality. (See Holter, et al., 2009) This survey developed a new, detailed method with several dimensions and many variables relating to gender equality.

Figure 4.4 shows the factors that were associated with a gender-balanced sharing of care work, domestic work and decision-making at home (gender-equal practices).

Figure 4.4 Background variables for gender equal practice



The figure shows that there is not one single factor associated with men's larger involvement, but several. The arrows show the range of influences or associations with a more gender equal practice.

The figure was based on running standard background variables (like income) together with gender variables, to explain gender equal practice at home. This is influenced by:

- gender equal norms and opinions
- gender-balanced income and resources
- younger age and
- non-traditional gender identity⁹³.

Traditional gender identity does play a role, but less than one might have expected, when the other variables are included in the analysis. The same holds for education and gender equality at the childhood home – they are significant but not very strong predictors in this larger picture. Quality of life is more strongly associated, but further analysis shows that this association is mainly an effect and not a predictor of gender equal practice.

Compared to traditional thinking, the results show that men's participation in domestic work depends not only on preferred non-traditional gender identities. Although male sex and masculine gender identity play a role, other circumstances seem to be more important (e.g. balanced resources of a couple).

4.3.2 Causes and obstacles of change

Even if men's share of care and domestic work can no longer be dismissed as marginal and unchanging, neither is it the case that the advanced parts of Europe are close to a full balancing of men and women's domestic tasks and family involvement. Europe has not arrived there yet. Currently Europe is in a period of large change in the field of care, socialisation and family arrangements. **Changing expectations** and increasing support for gender equal norms have been main causes of this change over the past decades, together with women's increasing labour market performance. It is also known that norms and ideals often run ahead of actual practices.

Even in the most gender equal parts of Europe, a young man and a young woman deciding to create a family are not faced with the same choices. Typically, investing one more year of education for the man will result in a 15-20% better income for the family than investing one more year for the woman. (See Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2009) **Women's skills are not valued as men's**. Thereby, traditional expectations can be maintained, even in the midst of change.

Even gender equal countries in Europe (such as Finland, Norway or Sweden) continue to be quite gender-traditional in some of their family and care practices. For example, working class women in welfare states⁹⁴ may still prefer cash support for mothers instead of better kindergartens, due to less flexible and rewarding jobs (see below). When **gender balance** is attempted in families but **not accompanied by similar balance in other spheres of society** (labour market and economy), the results may be experienced as being too marginal or burdensome for the family.

Therefore, quite **traditional rules** may be maintained – for example, it is still 'common practice' to give the female more right to take the care-giving role, the man to take the breadwinner role. (See Holter, 1997) When looking more closely at a more advanced region in Europe, the Nordic region, we still find the family pattern with the woman as the main responsi-

⁹³ Non-traditional gender identity is a type of identity not based on the essentialist and biological definition of masculinity and femininity, male and female roles, which is typical for traditional sex role theory.

⁹⁴ According to Cousins (2005) the definition of welfare states is based on three main statements: (a) governments undertaking responsibility for ensuring the social and economic protection of the citizens by (b) providing unemployment insurance, old age pensions and other social protections and finally (c) 'welfare state' is a "[...] social system characterised by such an approach." (Cousins, 2005, p. 5)

ble for organising the family and – somewhat less strongly than elsewhere in Europe – the **man as the main responsible for the provider role**. A survey showed that even if 80% of men agreed that domestic work and paid work should be shared equally, and 30-40% actually achieved a considerable balance, most respondents still described a traditional division of main responsibilities. (See Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2009)

From a wider perspective, the existence of traditional care and gender patterns in today's Europe is not surprising. A major feature in Europe, uncovered both by the statistics and the country reports of this project, is the **large variation in the gender division of labour**. Although domestic work and caring have become more 'gender-neutral' activity fields, the family still re-creates gender divisions. For example, the fact emerges that the **partner having the most labour market experience**, measured in terms of economic gain, remains **in charge of the provider role**.

Clearly, gender equality and **welfare factors influence the gender division of unpaid care work**. As pointed out by comparative studies between the US and some European countries (see Gornick & Meyers, 2004), existing policy packages (such as public family leave, working time regulation, childcare systems, etc) support parent's time for care and foster gender equality regarding the division of labour. Those countries with an emphasis on gender equality and a good welfare system generally have the most gender-balanced division of care work.

Generally, studies and statistics show that men's share of care and domestic work increases if gender equality measures increase, although these are not identical dimensions. Differences in gender equality, welfare arrangements and couple arrangements are main parts of the background of the variation in men's share of unpaid care work and domestic work.

4.3.3 Causes for variations of men's share between countries

One important background reason for the large variation in men's share of care is the **uneven nature of gender equality progress**. Different national policies and arrangements of the division of labour between the genders appeared in the country reports of this study. These different responses were related not only to a country's economic and social history, but also to the standards and values that underlie attitudes and behaviours of women and men on the labour market.

It is well known that many gender differences are linked to 'welfare state regimes' and couple arrangement models, stretching from a traditional male breadwinner/female carer arrangement to a dual earner/dual carer model. (See Smith, 2004) As shown above (figure 4.1) those countries with high male share-rates of unpaid work in today's Europe show a two times higher share-rate than those with the lowest share-rates. The variation is dramatic, especially compared to the belief that the gender division of labour is fairly static across societies.

It is important to recognise that different families and gender (in)equality tendencies exist in each country, characterised by more or less democratic partnership and work balance. It is possible to focus on variations between European countries, since these are now well mapped and emerge more clearly than in earlier research. However, the **uneven pattern characterises regions and countries also internally**. One major reason, as outlined in chapter 3, is the work and labour market situation, influencing how families adapt and evolve. For example, a working class family situation has common elements across European countries, compared to a middle class situation.

In other words, the variation runs both between and within countries, with **socio-economic position** as one important variable. Men in different parts of the labour market and the social

class structure experience the demands for greater male involvement at home in different ways. They are more likely to emphasise the provider role if the work prospects for their partners are poor or if the family context is traditional. On the other hand, working class fathers with traditional roles may also participate in domestic work, but mainly with respect to care work rather than domestic work (see below).

Additionally, there is a marked **socio-geographical variation** in Europe. This appears as a South-East (SE) to North-West (NW) diagonal pattern, from lowest to highest degree of **male involvement in unpaid work**. A historical perspective is useful for understanding this.

- The South-North variation in gender roles and family patterns in Europe has been known in research for many decades, especially in Western Europe. Gender equality ideals have been stronger and have had more impact on politics and state developments in Northern European countries compared to Southern countries.
- The East-West variation is historically somewhat similar but has developed differently. In the Post-socialist East there was a reaction against the ‘gender equality’ notion of the regimes, while similar post-dictatorships in the West developed from a more family-traditional type of dictatorship.

The research on the South-North variation has provided a picture of a family traditional South, a mixed Centre, and a less traditional North. The East-West variation is less well understood and in some ways more complex. Even if some Post-socialist countries score quite low on many variables associated with gender equality compared to Western countries, others score relatively high, and higher values can be found for Post-socialist countries also on other variables, especially related to economic participation (see below).

4.3.4 The ‘gender contract’ and its conditions and impacts on care

Country reports often show the simultaneous influence of social, cultural, economic and political factors on the division of work among the genders. There is not just one factor that can explain men’s higher investment in domestic work. The degree of investment is better seen as a net outcome of a group of factors. Thus, when individuals change, the organisation or system they are rooted in will also change. (See Bandura, 1986)

The project material, especially the comments by scientific experts and the evaluations in the country reports, often highlights the **couple arrangement** as a key to understanding the variation. The situation for men, especially care-giving and pro-equality men, is typically interpreted in close connection with the situation for women.

The ‘**gender contract**’, defined as a typical couple arrangement which is associated with professional and job arrangements, is a more or less **balanced** link **between the home sphere** and the **professional sphere**. It varies from a contract with the man as the main provider through intermediate forms to the man and woman as equal providers in contemporary Europe. ‘Gender contracts’ include the **active distribution of care tasks executed by the couple**, especially after the birth of a child. Some couples prefer a high level of income on the man’s side, with a longer parental leave period for the mother, while others give more priority to the woman’s job and career, with the man taking advantage of more parental leave benefits.

The **economic aspect** of ‘gender contracts’ (from ‘male provider’ families to ‘dual provider’ families, with many adaptations in between) has been shown to be a key variable in research. In most countries the male provider household has now been replaced by dual provider couples. The employment patterns among families with children under 14 years of age include:

- both parents full-time

- one parent full-time – one parent part-time
- one parent full-time – one parent not employed and
- neither parent in employment.⁹⁵

In most European families today, the man has a better paid job, even if no longer he is better educated than the woman. (See Eurostat, 2008) The **better labour market conditions for men** compared to women play a large role for how a family life is structured.

Opinions and attitudes

According to the survey *Perceptions and attitudes of the Romanian population to the phenomenon of discrimination* (see Anemtoaicei, 2011), as far as the **sharing of domestic tasks** is concerned, there are four dimensions where the differences between men and women's opinions differ little:

- *“the man is the head of the family”*,
- *“it is more men's duty to bring money home”*,
- *“it is more women's duty to take care of household's tasks”* and
- *“the woman is the mistress of the house”*.

This pattern - identified in Romania - exists in different European countries, in varying proportions. In some countries there is a gap between the 'public rhetoric' and the reality of men's share of work in the household. Research shows that women and men have **different views of men's share of domestic tasks** (see annex 4.3), and they have different perceptions of the gender gap in the contribution to domestic tasks. (See Lee & Waite, 2005)

Across Europe, opinion is split according to **gender roles at home**. Half of the respondents do not think that it is normal for men to participate less than women in household tasks, but 48% consider it quite normal. (See Eurobarometer, 2010) However, European citizens are optimistic; in fact, 61% believe that men will increase their contribution to household tasks over the next twenty years.

Satisfaction

In many countries, people living in **modern couple arrangements** with both parents working and having equal income are more satisfied with their private lives and partnerships (women also with their professional lives) than those living in rather traditional arrangements. According to research in Spain, the most egalitarian families are young couples, cohabiting partners without children and those where women who have a relatively high income. Between these partners, little difference between the time spent in paid and unpaid work is visible. (See Abril Morales & Romero, 2011)

Box 4.2 – Example of research on men and care

France

According to the survey conducted by Equilibres (2008), with a sample of 400 fathers (between the age of 30 and 60 years, all managers and senior managers with one child to four children), different categories of fathers were found:

- The father as the male breadwinner (15% of the sample): Their identity is connected to work. They work a lot and share a few domestic responsibilities. They feel that their lives are bal-

⁹⁵ For instance, in France nearly 24% of families are 'one parent full-time - one part-time'; this ratio is nearly 36% in Sweden.

anced, even if it is dominated by work. They justify their sacrifices, but they are the most unsatisfied with work-family reconciliation. Furthermore, they think that this issue is a personal one and not the responsibility of companies.

- The ‘tightrope artists’ (52% of the sample): Fathers who try to balance work and family. They show more equal sharing in domestic and care work, often they have children under three years. They experience paternity and feel more satisfied with family-work balance than the ‘breadwinners’ but they experience work-family conflicts as well. They play it by ear and believe that one day they will have a serious dilemma: to leave the company or to re-organise parental roles.
- The ‘egalitarians’ (33% of the sample): Fathers who are very sensitive with work family balance and have already made choices. They have a very clear vision of their transformed life choices, and they act as they say. They may refuse a promotion or leave a company if they feel that too much is demanded from them. They want cultural revolution, work time flexibility and real organisational action. They support ‘family friendly’ policies and express their points of view as often as they can.

In this study there is a generational breakpoint between managers in their thirties and forties and those being older than 50. According to the authors, the younger ones are more likely to be ‘egalitarians’ and ‘tightrope artists’. 48% of them have taken the whole period of paternity leave, and 12% have taken it partially.

55% of fathers who did not make use of paternity leave are senior managers. 37% said that they did not make use of it “[...] *not to give up a project in process.*” 35% were motivated by financial reasons (their salaries being relatively high), and 32% said that it was not common for people with their responsibilities to take paternity leave.

In short, the interviews with the manager fathers revealed three kinds of barriers:

- prejudices and stereotypes that lock men into an obsolete identity;
- a culture of organisational commitment;
- parental leave, part-time work and breaks to recover are still considered as a taboo.

The birth of a child

Regarding care, it should not go unmentioned that the issue is **contextual**. According to the new research in the context of this project, the large variation in the gender division of unpaid care work is very sensitive to political measures, the state of the labour market, and other context variables connected to family. This variation also characterises family policies and regulations – like parental leave systems, with arrangements that give different and even contradictory signals regarding family life and gender equality.

According to OECD (2008), and looking across OECD countries, birth rates, work and parenthood seem to be particularly difficult to combine in many Southern and Central European countries. In most European countries the **birth of a child** increases the imbalance in the sharing of domestic tasks between men and women, and adjustments mainly affect women, considering that they are those who leave the labour market and who are also taking more responsibility for domestic tasks. (See Klammer, 2012; Oechsle, Müller & Hess, 2012) Despite the ideal of equality, the division of labour among a couple remains highly unbalanced, even among the most educated couples.

Box 4.3 – Examples of the situation after the birth of the first child

Lithuania

Data from the population survey demonstrate that more women (69.8%) than men (30.2%) experience a work-family conflict. More women than men indicated that the birth of a child influenced the reduction of their working hours, change of job, termination of job, reduction of career opportunities, increase of

physical and psychological stress at work and increase of tensions with co-workers. Men usually indicate that the birth of a child made them look for an extra job to satisfy family needs. Research also demonstrates that compromises such as part-time work or giving up education because of family were more common for women than for men. (See Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011)

Spain

Different quantitative studies done in Spain indicate that the first child has a significant impact on inequality. These studies have highlighted the difficulties of reconciling paid work and childcare, especially for women. The data of women's labour market withdrawal for family reasons verifies the impact of domestic responsibilities and care. In 94.7% of all cases in 2007 it was the woman who left employment for this reason. (See Abril Morales & Romero, 2011)

Germany

With the birth of a child, the breadwinner position of employed men increases, while women who have left the traditional domestic worker pattern return to it when they become mothers. In a study with couples in which both partners wanted to share childcare equally, a 're-traditionalisation against intentions' was found. In the interviews both partners gave several reasons for this process, particularly gender specific interpretations of childcare and domestic work among partners, a naturalised 'caring capacity of women', but also institutional and welfare state regulations, with the lack of childcare facilities and the German tax system being the most prominent ones. (See Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

The variation of *gender contracts* is linked to labour market conditions and politics as well as to family and gender role traditions, culture and religion. These structures cannot be considered in isolation. Some countries manage both progress towards a more equal sharing of care and domestic work and increased utilisation of women's talents in professional life. It is no longer possible to consider these issues a cost factor or a luxury, as will be further discussed in the conclusion of the chapter.

Outsourcing domestic work

The increased participation of **women with a migration background in domestic and care work** at home raises the question of how much this demand is part of a general trend towards an outsourcing of domestic and care work. In some countries (e.g., Greece or Italy), support by one's family compensates for deficits of the welfare system.

In relation to **childcare**, Spain, UK and France have all introduced some kind of **cash provision** for obtaining such help, which points to a clear connection between these policies and migration flows. In some countries (e.g., Malta, Greece, Italy), in light of the general gender division of labour and domestic work/childcare model, the opportunity for women to pursue careers often depends on such an outsourcing possibility. At the same time, emerging research on outsourcing, care-related migration and **global care chains**⁹⁶ shows many problematic consequences and effects. (See Anderson, 2000; Hochschild, 2000)

According to a UN report, "[...] *it is the privileged social groups who are able to escape the precarious care forced on the rest of the population*". (Orozco, 2010, p. 27) Generally, the underlying premise of the debate on outsourcing, besides the obvious issues related to social class and economic possibilities, is **men's lack of involvement**.

⁹⁶ The term, introduced by Arlie Hochschild (2000), refers to global relations based on the distribution of paid and unpaid care work: women in rich countries, participating in the labour market, employ women from a poor, often migration background in order to do the domestic work. These women themselves need support from other women (with an even poorer background) to substitute for their absence in domestic work and care. The value of domestic work decreases along the chain and it results in unpaid work at the end of the chain.

Social class differences

Gender contracts often differ along different socio-economic positions. Some studies put much weight on this difference. (See Bustreel, 2007; Wuiame, 2011) Others find the differences more gradual.

A tendency towards **working class family traditionalism**⁹⁷ was found already in the 1960s in European studies. (See Holter, 1970) In recent studies it is replicated also by a 'mother-familistic' attitude⁹⁸ that seems common for the lowly educated working class throughout Europe. This attitude is also created by the existing types of job alternatives, like the lowly paid and non-qualified job which is typically available for women in these cases. Middle class couples, on the other hand, where typically education has more value, more often prove to be gender egalitarian and dual career oriented, yet again this may not be so much due to norms or standards but to practical circumstances. The 'mother-familistic' attitude among some couples, especially those with a lower educational level, may be based on a feeling of inferiority on the labour market (low educated women may fear less valued work in the labour market) more than on any active ideological choice. (See Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2009)

Family research does not support a picture of gender equality and democratisation coming from one social class only. Nevertheless, it is relevant to analyse how labour market and social class experiences accumulate over time and contribute to different family cultures.

4.3.5 The impact of leave regulations

The first months of the child are crucial for father's involvement in care. As Kimmel (2007) wrote, it is not a question of time quality that will create the deep and intimate relationship with children, it is time quantity. Fathers who take a longer leave are more involved in care-giving activities. (See Nepomnyaschy & Waldfogel, 2007; Tanaka & Waldfogel, 2007) Fathers who provided more support to their partners took longer leaves, were more preoccupied with their infants, and adapted better to work following the birth of the first child. (See Feldman, Sussman & Zigler, 2004) In this study, the father's physical and emotional support to his partner was found to be the most consistent predictor, uniquely related to the length of both maternity and paternity leaves and to the work adaptation of both mother and father.

Concerning the impact of paternity leave on fathers' involvement in parenthood, Salmi et al. (2009) conducted a study which showed that **mothers are often present during the daddy month**. These results raise the question if it is not necessary to provide time off for the father during which he would be alone with the child. A Norwegian study indicates that paternity leave has a more sustainable effect if father-child time is provided. (See Brandth & Kvande, 2003)

⁹⁷ The idea of a connection between members of the working class and traditionalism has been present in sociology since the beginning of the discipline. (See Weber, 2003) According to Goldthrope, "*the concept of traditional workers encompasses not only the most class – conscious and most radical sections of the working class (...) but also its socially most conservative elements.*" (Goldthrope, et al., 1969, p. 74) In this context working class family traditionalism reflects certain attitudes and preferences in family models such as: traditional gender role divisions ('men's work in public sphere' and 'women's work at home' and/or approval of vertical segregation on the labour market), acceptance of (gender) hierarchies and paternalistic attitudes. (See Giddens & Held, 1982)

⁹⁸ 'Mother-familistic' attitude refers to the contrast between employment of women and their childcare obligations, which leads to the fact that women resign from professional career and paid work when they become mothers and by that consolidate the traditional gender role division. (See Dalla, Zuana & Micheli, 2004)

Reforms and structural regulations clearly have an impact on family choices. For example, father quota⁹⁹ and paternity leave give fathers more of a choice to participate in caring for a small child. Some types of reform have a larger positive effect than others in terms of increasing men's share of care. Studies show that collective regulations that clearly involve fathers have more impact than individual or diffuse arrangements. (See Puchert, Gärtner & Höyng, 2005)

At the same time, the **actual effect of a reform depends on wider social and cultural factors**. Very similar reforms may yet have quite different outcomes, due to these wider contextual differences. For example, variations in the actual usage rate of paternity leave regulations. Currently, Germany's two-months paternity leave has a usage rate of almost 30% (see Klammer, 2012), Sweden and Norway have a similar arrangement, but with a usage of more than 70%. The difference is probably due to the reform being older and better established and known as well as to different national cultures and family norms.

Iceland has the most **gender-balanced parental leave system** so far, with the mother and the father being treated as equally responsible for the care and well-being of the child. This was followed in the first months of 2012 by Norway. Afterwards, this was followed in Sweden, with two months of parental leave plus a bonus for more equal sharing.

Furthermore, the UK introduced the **Optional Paternity Leave** in 2011. It provides the possibility to transfer a period of the maternity leave of up to six months if the mother goes back to work.

Southern and Post-socialist countries are those most probable to have **maternal leave systems**, even if they have recently been re-named 'parental'. It means that even when there is a possibility for the father to take part of a parental leave, in many cases it still will be the women who will use the whole leave. This is connected to the traditional concept of a maternity leave which is intended only for women related to pregnancy, childbirth and the first months afterwards and is considered a health measure. Under this approach the maternal presumption, in the context of which the mother is seen as the main care-giver, as a principle of family and socialisation regulations, is typically larger.

Box 4.4 – The impact of social policy

Austria

In 2004 a new law for parental part-time work was implemented in Austria. A parent is entitled to parental part-time work if he/she has been working for the company for at least for three years and if the size of the company is more than 20 employees. Based on the parental part-time work regulation, a parent may reduce weekly working hours to any extent and he/she may change working hours (specific days or day times) until the child is seven years old or starts school. Evaluations have shown that 6% of all parents who were eligible made use of parental part-time work in 2007. 14% of parental part-time work users were men, which is rather high compared to male participation rates of other family policy measures, such as the parental leave regulation. Parental part-time work users were predominantly tertiary educated (university graduated). Among them, a remarkable rate of parents were employed in leading positions and had a comparable high income. Men tend to make use of parental part-time work for a short period of time (shorter than women) accompanied by a higher amount of weekly working hours (average rate of 25 hours a week). Therefore, men seemed to have fewer disadvantages (e.g. less career possibilities or worse working conditions) after parental part-time work than women. (See Scambor & Scambor, 2011)

Canada

⁹⁹ Father quota can be defined as a part of parental leave which can or must be used by fathers.

In Canada, ten weeks father quota was introduced in 1990. Yet, by 1990 only 3% of fathers took paid leave under this policy. In 2001, leave was increased to 45 weeks which could be split between the father and the mother. By 2006 11% of fathers took parental leave paid for by the state. Since 2006 the policy in Quebec has included fathers who are self-employed. Because of this regulation (alongside ongoing social changes) father's participation in paid parental leave has jumped from 32% to 56% (compared to 11% in the rest of Canada.) This development shows how a social policy can have a powerful effect. (See Kaufman, 2012)

4.3.6 Do gender contracts and men's care affect fertility?

Iceland, Ireland and France have the highest fertility rates, with over 2.0 points¹⁰⁰. Sweden, UK, Norway and Finland are also at the top of the list. The lowest rates appear in Latvia, Germany, Spain, Hungary, Romania, Poland and Portugal, which are below 1.5 points.

Table 4.4 Fertility rate by country, 2001*, 2005 and 2010**

	2001*	2005	2010**
EU 27	:	1.51	1.59
Belgium	1.67	1.76	1.84
Bulgaria	1.21	1.32	1.49
Czech Republic	1.14	1.28	1.49
Denmark	1.74	1.80	1.87
Germany	1.35	1.34	1.39
Estonia	1.34	1.50	1.63
Ireland	1.94	1.86	2.07
Greece	1.25	1.33	1.51
Spain	1.24	1.35	1.38
France	1.90	1.94	2.03
Italy	1.25	1.32	1.41
Cyprus	1.57	1.42	1.51
Latvia	:	1.31	1.17
Lithuania	1.30	1.27	1.55
Luxembourg	1.66	1.63	1.63
Hungary	1.31	1.31	1.25
Malta	1.48	1.38	1.38
Netherlands	1.71	1.71	1.79
Austria	1.33	1.41	1.44
Poland	1.31	1.24	1.38
Portugal	1.45	1.40	1.36
Romania	1.27	1.32	1.38
Slovenia	1.21	1.26	1.57
Slovakia	1.20	1.25	1.40
Finland	1.73	1.80	1.87
Sweden	1.57	1.77	1.98
United Kingdom	1.63	1.78	1.94
Iceland	1.95	2.05	2.20
Liechtenstein	1.52	1.49	1.40
Norway	1.78	1.84	1.95
Switzerland	1.38	1.42	1.50

Source: Labour Force Survey, Eurostat; Online-Code: demo_find; * Belgium: 2000 instead of 2001; ** EU 27, Belgium, Italy, Cyprus, Romania, UK, Switzerland 2009 instead of 2010.

Research on low fertility rates, especially in the early 2000s, concluded that “[...] lowest-low fertility in Southern Europe has occurred in a context with a very low compatibility of child-

¹⁰⁰ Fertility rate is calculated as the mean number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime.

bearing with women's labour market participation, which is due to the difficulties in entering and re-entering the labour market and the limited flexibility of working hours." (Kohler, Billari & Ortega, 2006, p. 16)

The **highest fertility level** in Europe has been achieved by **Iceland**, the country with the most gender-balanced parental leave arrangement – and this pattern has persisted despite the country's economic problems.

Men's lack of involvement in family work is one factor contributing to low fertility, according to some researchers. (See de Laat & Sanz, 2004) Several studies show that **gender inequality** increases the risk of family conflict and divorce (see Holter, Svare & Egeland, 2009) and reduces the probability that a couple will have more than one child (see Olah, 2003). Women placing great value on achieving their individual oriented goals (e.g. professional career) will seek to **limit family-oriented demands**; one way of doing so is decreasing fertility. (See McDonald, 2000)

McDonald (2000) suggests that gender inequity (unfairness or injustice) at the home together with gender equity (impartial and fair) in non-family institutions (labour market and education) may explain the low levels of fertility in many industrialised countries because women who have a chance for a successful professional career (equity in non-family institutions) and at the same time do not have support from their partners at home (inequity at the home) may not decide to have children or decide to have only one. (See Miller, Torr & Short, 2004) Such **institutional incongruity** forces women to make a choice between having family or work, not both. McDonald (2000) found a connection between the share of domestic tasks and the probability of having a second child in the United States.

Qualitative analyses of fertility decision-making in different political economies in Europe¹⁰¹ (Rossier, 2011) suggest that **gender roles with references to women's paid employment, men's involvement in family work, and childcare systems are the key elements for the decision of a couple to have a child**. Several studies have linked the 'sub-replacement fertility trends' (rates below approximately 2.1 children born per woman) observed in many industrialised countries to women's employment, the lack of affordable childcare, and men's lack of involvement in family work. (See Brewster & Rindfuss, 2000; McDonald, 2000; Mills, et al., 2008; Miller, Torr & Short, 2004) Lower fertility in some groups in more gender equal countries has been linked to a 'gender equality deficit' in these groups (Skrede & Rønsen, 2006). Family policies may reduce the incompatibility of work and family life which can affect fertility. (See Esping-Andersen, et al., 2002)

4.4 Conclusions and recommendations

What does explain the variations in European men's share of care? Our analyses of different dimensions, including gender contracts, family traditions, working life and culture, related to men's care, show a contribution of different variables. Generally these dimensions have a large impact on structural variation.

Some member states have a social structure that supports men's larger involvement in care. Others do not. According to our analysis, this structural variation (e.g. existence and length of paternity leave/father quota) is more important than family tradition, culture or religion, in today's European family life.

¹⁰¹ Work package 5: fertility intentions and behaviours in context: a comparative qualitative approach. *REPRO Project - 7th Framework European Commission*.

The issue is not to import best practices that work somewhere else but rather to find configurations that respond to equality requirements, taking into account the historical and cultural aspects of each country as well as its strengths (and weaknesses).

The general state of gender equality in a European country as well as the specific family policy has a large impact on men's choices regarding care involvement in the family. Improved policy-making over the past decades, especially in parts of Europe, has mainly started out from the **needs of the better educated and more professional young couple** (with better educated women) and the need for more involvement of fathers in the child's first year. Today, other starting points are important too. The increase of men's share of care, in society at large, is a principal issue.

Much of the **variations depend on national structures, policies and laws**. The project material indicates a "*you get what you ask for*" rule of national(istic) family policy in Europe. The result also includes a large dose of ambivalence, ambiguity, and – possibly – family conflict. Clearly, fertility has now become part of this issue, with recent data indicating a more robust fertility development in the more gender equal parts of Europe.

The '**road signs**' that are set by the national states, telling a young family with a child how to adapt, vary a lot, not just according to the country but also internally (for example, a country can have both a road sign towards equality, like a father quota of parental leave, and a family cash system pointing towards traditional motherly care-giving).

Recommendations

Support involving men in childcare

Increasing men's share of care for small children is one way of reaching a more general goal towards strengthening men's care-giving role. It is the most central single variable of all the variables analysed in this chapter. A first strategic priority for a new gender equality policy including the active involvement of men in care-giving may therefore have its starting point in focussing on men as active fathers and care-givers for children.

Initiatives at national level should include:

- Establish **more gender-balanced parental leave systems as a main matter**. A gender-balanced leave system should include a compulsory 'fathers quota' to ensure men's participation in childcare – for example a parental leave system in which at least 20% of the time is set off for the father – or a 'three thirds system' as it is established in Iceland and now approached in Norway and Sweden. This 'three thirds system' dedicates one third of the leave period to mothers, one third to fathers and one third to parents to divide as they choose. In a long-term perspective, the goal should be a 'two-halves' system.
- Member states should be obliged to **fulfil minimum requirements in this respect** and to report results on uptake rates by annual progress reports.
- In addition, possible negative effects of taking parental leave should be compensated. Taking parental leave is likely to come along with financial losses for the household income. Encouraging men to go on leave has to go hand in hand with **compensation schemes** to counterbalance the salary losses. Taking care for children and the elderly should be highly valued for example in terms of pension contributions and other transfer payments (e.g. the time spent with care for children or elderly could count as much as the best contribution years to pension insurance).
- Initiatives at companies (like counselling services or campaigns) to support men taking parental leave are recommendable.

- Develop incentives and measures to **reward parents of preschool children for a gender-equal balance of care** after the parental leave period, like:
 - work time reduction for a certain period of time for both partners over the two years following the birth of a child, provided that both parents reduce their work time, without wage losses,
 - tax bonus for parents whose gender pay gap narrows, like a tax free gender equality bonus which is given to parents sharing the caring work (parental leave days),
 - extra leave for sick children if parents take it evenly-distributed in the first year after the birth of a child.
- Make **benefits of men's care involvement visible** to encourage more men to be involved in care as well as to encourage companies to support active fathers via campaigns, like introducing new role models, showing the benefits of male care work for men and for organisations, etc. The media should be addressed as partners for campaigns which present a new model of masculinity.
- Establish the support of **gender-balanced caring** within couples and families as a **primary target of policy reforms**, to avoid pursuing contradictory directions through reforms in different fields (labour, family, taxes, education, etc).
- Conduct **research** to reveal (unintended) impacts of reforms in different policy fields on division of paid and unpaid work within families.
- Expand the provision of **kindergartens** especially for small children.

In the long-run a European wide strategy should be initiated and implemented, with the aim to overcome the current situation that contemporary families in the EU meet contrasting and even contradictory regulations and rules with regard to shared caring responsibilities. This includes giving more priority to men's share of caring and care work and improving gender equality in family life, as well as a better recognition of non-hetero family forms.

These measures should be matched with other measures that create equal opportunities for women in the labour market and should also include men's care in other private life contexts, including single-person households and non-hetero families, as well as increasing men's share of professional care work.

Encourage the involvement of men in domestic work beyond childcare

Most policy now focuses on the involvement of men as 'active fathers' and neglects other unpaid work fields, like household responsibilities. Since in these areas the gender division of work is even more unbalanced than in child care, a stronger impetus should be laid on other household activities than caring.

Initiatives at national level should include:

- Counteract the stereotype that domestic work does not fit to a traditional picture of masculinity, by using **authentic gender-balanced role models**:
 - conduct **campaigns** for example with popular male athletes shown completing domestic work or blue collar workers bringing home the groceries, etc.
 - implement **special lessons at school in 'domestic work'** for both genders to re-value these tasks and to establish the norm that both genders are responsible for this kind of work.

5 Overall Topics

The need to involve men in gender equality is one of the most fundamental issues of contemporary discourses on social justice. As already underlined in previous chapters, men are affected by culturally and socially constructed notions of male social roles, men's obligations and rights. These notions can be framed in a triangle of 'privileges', 'costs' and 'diversity' of masculinity.¹⁰² Consequently, the debate on men and gender equality has to be set on the most visible topics which practically reflect all vertices of the triangle. Among them there count the most meaningful issues, and therefore the here presented chapter covers aspects such as health, violence, political representation and men's involvement in gender equality. All of them seem to be determined by a set of factors which allow for analysing them in connection to usually more than one angle of Messner's concept. Concerning 'costs', health seems to be the most meaningful one; particularly health hazards seem to be strongly related to men's social positions and socialisation pathways shape the identities of men towards risk-taking and less self-care. Violence issues can be considered a mixture of 'costs' and 'privileges' connected to the traditional male role. Finally, political representation and men's involvement in gender equality can be seen as a field where men's privileges and the diversity of masculinities can be observed. Men's proportions in political bodies across the EU and EFTA countries are higher than women's, which confirms the existence of men's privileges. At the same time, the institutionalisation of men's politics (sub-departements in ministries, governmental committees, panels, etc) as well as a large number of different men's initiatives (counselling centres, research networks, father's rights groups, etc) dealing with gender issues confirm the diversity of men's issues on different levels (counselling, research, politics, etc).

5.1 Gender-based violence, men and gender equality

5.1.1 Introduction

Violence (physical, sexual and psychological) is a gendered behaviour and therefore, it is nearly impossible to analyse violence without connecting the topic to gender. The term 'gender based violence' is used more often in connection to violence with the man as the perpetrator and the women as the victim. In fact, this form of violence, prevalent throughout all contemporary societies, is unbearable.

However, a huge number of the victims of violence perpetrated by men are other men and many of them can be considered as victims of gender-based violence, since there is a highly relevant connection between man-to-man violence and the way in which the genders are organised in our society:¹⁰³

- In one of the most influential books on men's studies in the last decades, Connell (1995) has introduced the concept of 'hegemonic masculinity' as a pattern of male social behaviour that serves as an ideal norm of what it means to be a man in a given society at a given point of time. Often, these ideals are presented in commercials (like young, sporty, wealthy, white heterosexual managers) or in sports (aggressive, strong

¹⁰² Messner, M. A. (2000). *Politics of masculinities. Men in movements*. Lanham: Altamira Press.

¹⁰³ For a proposal to connect cases of women-to-men violence to gender questions and hegemonic masculinity by the concept of 'gender cross-over', see Fjell (in press).

men who are making their way and defeat their opponents). One of the main characteristics of hegemonic masculinity is the subordination of women – and of all forms of masculinities which do not correspond to the ideal picture of masculinity (e.g. gay men, men with a migration background, etc). For men who strive for the hegemonic masculinity ideal, one way among others to subordinate women and other men is the use of violence.

- Pierre Bourdieu (2001) considers violence as one of the various ‘serious games of masculine competition’ which men have learned to play as a part of their socialisation process. Bourdieu shows how these ‘games’ help reproducing masculine domination.
- Antony Whitehead (2005) asserts that ‘heroism’ is a central aspect of masculinity in contemporary societies, implying that men who face conflicts or danger have to transcend their fear in order to prevent themselves from being placed in the socially precarious position of a ‘non-man’. Therefore, also many forms of **man-to-man violence** contributes to the reproduction of masculine hegemony and gender inequality and by that in many cases should be considered as **gender-based violence**.

Much of men’s violence against women, including violence against intimate partners, indicates a **masculine sense of being entitled to power and privilege**. (See Kimmel, 2002) This does not at all imply that men who beat women are always particularly powerful men. Kimmel points out that many men who have exerted violence say that they didn’t feel powerful but rather powerless in the respective situation. It means that most boys and men learn (from the media, their parents’ relationships, politics and various kinds of everyday observations and interactions) that they *should* be ‘in power’, *should* be privileged over girls and women and can use violence just because they are men.¹⁰⁴ In other words: the existing gender inequalities and stereotypes are the main sources of men’s sense of entitlement.

Men also learn that **violence is a ‘natural’ masculine resource** for dealing with difficult situations and enforcing their masculine entitlement to privilege and power.

Since the victims of this kind of violence are also men, supporting actual or potential male victims of violence should be also considered as an important step on the pathway towards gender equality even if the connection between gender equality and a reduction of men’s violence against women may be more obvious than the connection between gender equality and a reduction of violence against men. It is important to underline once again that both connections exist and matter. Within the analysis of gender-based violence we are not only talking about men’s violence against women but also about some forms of man-to-man violence.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰⁴ According to the authors of the report *Men, Male Roles and Gender Equality* one of the most important factor which influences boys’ and men’s tendency to use violence is the so called commercial violence: “A survey made for the ministry asks, among other things, if the respondents like to watch violence in films, on television or the Internet. The study of media consumption by the Ministry of Church and Culture shows that boys use games or the Internet in such a manner that violence plays an important part, to a much greater extent than girls. The National Institute for Consumer Research concludes that toys directed towards boys often focus on violence, while this more or less does not occur when directed towards girls. Studies of boy’s media consumption (Internet, games etc.) show that the element of violence is of great significance.” (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Menn%20og%20likestilling/White%20paper%20men%20and%20gender%20equality/8_Masculinity_and_violence.pdf)

¹⁰⁵ There are two general reasons why many incidents of violence against men are incorrectly not perceived as violence and thus not considered problematic. (See Jungnitz, et al., 2004) First, certain incidents of violence against men are perceived as normal behaviour. This is particularly true for cases of the so-called ‘inclusive’ or ‘reciprocal’ man-to-man violence. (See Whitehead, 2005; Meuser, 2002) This may also be true for some cases of woman-to-man violence. If a violent act is perceived as normal, it will probably not be mentioned when one of those involved is asked to report acts of violence. Second, certain incidents of violence against men that are assumed to violate the victim’s ‘male honour’ and identity are perceived as extremely shameful. This is probably also true for many incidents of women’s violence against men, since (according to traditional gender im-

Violence against boys and men must not be trivialised as ‘normal male behaviour’ but be taken serious; the male victims need support (see Hagemann-White, 2004). However, in many countries funding is scarce and appropriate services are missing to date for women and children who have become victims of gender-based violence. Nevertheless, it must always be made clear that supporting all victims has to be a priority and additional funding is needed to support male victims of gender-based violence as well.

At a glance

- The majority of perpetrators of interpersonal violence are men. This is connected to the fact that aggression and violent behaviour are part of a traditional, hegemonic masculinity concept. (See Connell, 1995)
- While one of the most common and well-known forms of gender-based violence is men’s violence against women, some forms of man-to-man violence can be also considered as gender-based violence because it is part of the ideal norm of the male gender role to dominate other men and to create and maintain within-gender hierarchies by using violence.
- Men are more likely than women to be exposed to physical violence committed in public places (including streets, public transport, supermarkets, clubs, schools, play grounds, etc) and at the workplace. Women are more often victims of physical violence committed in the private sphere. At the workplace, women are more likely to be exposed to other forms of violence (to sexual harassment, bullying, verbal abuse, etc).
- The most common form of violence is man-to-man violence where both perpetrators and victims are men. Certain groups of men are more likely to be victims of violence. Among them, young men as well as men from marginalised groups (immigrants, LGBTQ¹⁰⁶ people, ethnic and religious minorities, homeless and disabled people) can be singled out.
- Across Europe, anti-violence initiatives and programmes for men and boys have increasingly emerged in the last decade. The most important ones are:
 - violence-preventing projects addressing perpetrators,
 - projects providing help for female and male victims of gender-based violence.
- One of the main recommendations is to promote non-violent masculinities by changing gender models and promote a concept of ‘caring masculinity’ in contrast to the traditional, hegemonic masculinity model which is strongly connected to violent behaviour.

In this subchapter, violence committed by men is the main issue. The most important characteristics of men’s violence (types of violence, fields where violence occurs, specific groups of men exposed to violence) are discussed. Male perpetrators of violence (both against women and men) and male victims of violence (both committed by men and women) are discussed separately. Violent crimes, workplace violence, *Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)* as well as violence in public spaces are concerning both, men as perpetrators and men as victims. Furthermore, good practice examples of combating the problem and finally further recommendations are presented.

ages) women are not considered worthy opponents in a fight between equals, and thus being beaten by a woman is perceived as being eminently humiliating for a man. Thus, male victims might be too ashamed to talk about (or even admit to themselves) such cases of violence.

¹⁰⁶ LGBTQ stands for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer.

5.1.2 Main features of men's violence

- Although research on violence is carried out in many different ways, including significant methodological differences, a distinction between three **forms of violence** is meanwhile quite well-established: physical violence, psychological violence and sexual violence.
- Another important yet vague distinction refers to the **phases of life** during which violence occurs: childhood, youth/adolescence, adulthood and the older age. Both perpetration and victimisation are dependent on age.
- It is also important to consider the **societal fields where violence takes place**. Thus public spaces (which include streets, public transport, supermarkets, clubs, schools, play grounds, etc), the workplace and the private sphere of family and intimate relationships are often distinguished in violence research. It is a well-established finding, for example, that women more often than men are exposed to physical or sexual violence in their private spheres, while men more often than women are exposed to physical violence in the public space, including the workplace.

During childhood, the most relevant fields of violence are family and school. Later on in life, there are a number of **specific institutions where the risk of being exposed to violence is considerably higher than elsewhere**, although violence occurs in (almost) every sphere of society. These institutions include, among others, the military,¹⁰⁷ prisons, hospitals, asylums, children's homes, etc – mostly hierarchical institutions that are rather 'sealed off' from the outside world, thus impeding intervention.

Finally, members of **marginalised groups** run a more than average risk of becoming victims of violence. Among others, these groups include people with a migration background (notably refugees and people with uncertain residence status), LGBTQ people, ethnic and religious minorities, homeless and disabled people. All in all, violence research needs an intersectional focus to include multiple relevant social categories like gender, age, class, ethnicity, nationality, sexual identity, disability, etc.

5.1.3 Basic results

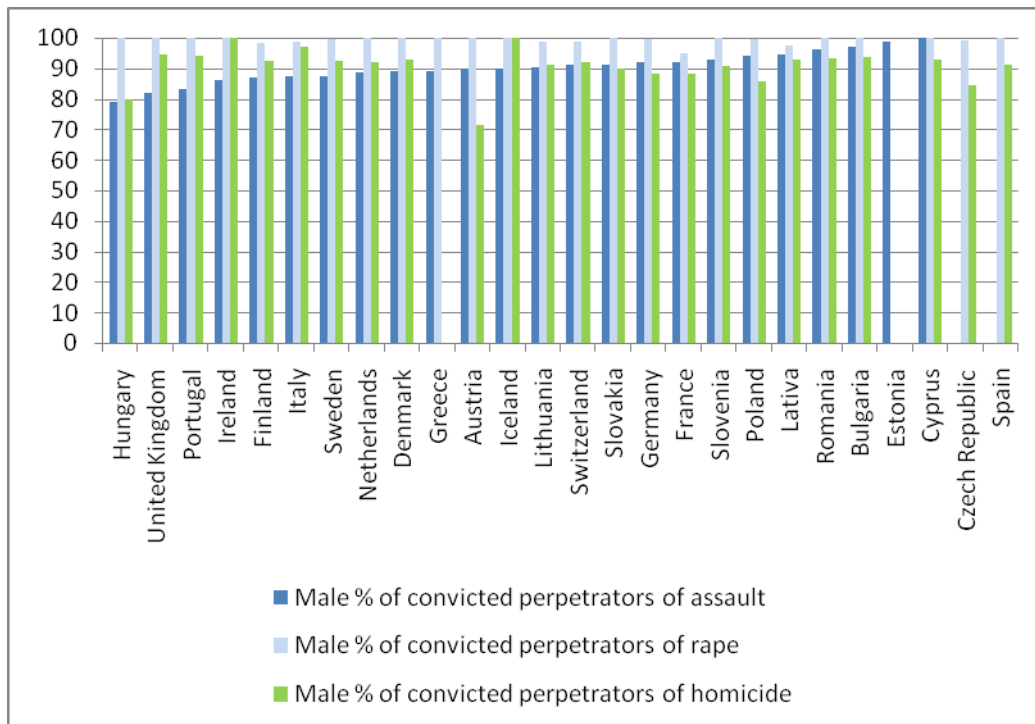
Unfortunately, due to different data sources, it is not easy to get a realistic overview of gender-based violence. Therefore it is important to distinguish between data from criminal statistics on the one hand and from prevalence studies on the other hand. Prevalence studies try to estimate the number of unknown cases of which the number is still very high. Criminal statistics show reports to the police or convictions and thus often underestimate the real situation.

5.1.3.1 Men as perpetrators of violence

As mentioned above, the majority of cases of physical and sexual violence are committed by men. The **male percentage of convicted perpetrators of assault** in Europe ranges from 79.2% in Hungary to 100% in Cyprus. The male percentage of **convicted rapists** ranges from 95.2% in France to 100% in Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Denmark, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia as well as Spain. Finally, the **male percentage of perpetrators of homicide** ranges from 71.4% in Austria to 100% in Iceland and Ireland. (See figure 5.1.1)

¹⁰⁷ For men's experiences of violence in the German military, see Jungnitz, et al., 2004.

Figure 5.1.1 Male percentage of convicted criminals by different types of crimes by country, 2008*



Source: UNECE Statistical Division Database; Code: c000026; * Assault: Cyprus, Greece 2007, Iceland 2006, Portugal 2005, Estonia 2001; Rape: Cyprus, Greece 2007, Iceland 2006, Czech Republic, Portugal 2005; Homicide: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Greece 2007, Iceland 2006, Portugal 2005; not all figures are available for all countries.

The finding that violent crime is primarily a men's issue is consistent in international empirical research. (See Hall, 2002) This is especially evident for **sexual violence**: as shown in figure 5.1.1, the **male proportion in perpetration** is higher for rape¹⁰⁸ than for homicide and assault.

Another important issue is violence at the workplace. Through the *European Working Conditions Survey* (EWCS), carried out in 2010 with employees and self-employed people, at least some comparable data on workplace violence across Europe are now available. (See Eurofound, 2012) Regrettably, however, the EWCS did not include any questions on perpetrators. The results of some national studies on workplace bullying suggest that there are significantly **more male than female 'main perpetrators' of bullying**. (See Meschkutat, Stackelbeck & Langenhoff, 2002; Zapf, 1999) This might partly be due to men frequently occupying higher positions at work. (See Leymann, 1993; Milczarek, 2010)

The picture becomes more precise, however, if the victims' gender is considered as well: **men tend to be bullied by men** (see Milczarek, 2010; Meschkutat, Stackelbeck & Langenhoff, 2002; Zapf, 1999), while **women are bullied either equally often by women or men** (see Milczarek, 2010) **or more often by women than by men**. (See Meschkutat, Stackelbeck & Langenhoff, 2002; Zapf, 1999)

¹⁰⁸ It cannot go unmentioned that rape is not only violence committed in the public spaces but also in the domestic sphere. The majority of rape cases are committed by perpetrators known to the female victims. Among them there are many partners and husbands of the victims. Consequently, in many countries the definition of rape has been extended to forced sexual contacts within marriage and within couples. Unfortunately, there are still European countries which do not adopt this definition.

5.1.3.2 Men's violence against women

Men's violence against women is strongly connected to gender inequalities: men's dominant position in the society and discrimination of women play a role, as well as the existence of certain types of social norms regarding men as powerful and women as vulnerable and depending on men.

One of the most common forms of men's violence against women is **intimate partner violence (IPV)**. This type of violence is the result of a specific power relation between men and women, in which men demonstrate their power and dominance to women who are very often the dependent part of the couple (mostly economically, but also according to specific cultural requirements) and therefore have problems with withdrawing from a particular relationship. As a consequence, many women cannot break the chain of *IPV* and stay in the relationships with the perpetrators. Therefore, the majority of anti-violence actions, programmes and interventions should combat this type of violence and focus both on male perpetrators and female victims as this is the most frequent constellation of *IPV*.

Detailed information about the dimension of *IPV* is complicated to draw for the whole European Union (see Schröttle, et al., 2006) but possible for specific countries. For example, according to the German representative study on violence against women, "*around 25% of all women resident in Germany have experienced forms of physical or sexual abuse, or both, from current or previous male or female partners*" (Müller, Schröttle & Glammeier, 2004, p. 9). Less than 1% of women interviewed in this study stated that they were living or had been living in an intimate partnership with another woman. Thus, in the vast majority of the cases the perpetrators were men.

According to national data, **men are consistently more likely to be perpetrators of *IPV* than women** in various countries. In Bulgaria and Romania, according to research from 2003, 66% and 83% respectively of victims were women who declared to have been victims of physical violence committed by men. (See Kambourov, 2011; Anemtoicei, 2011) In Denmark in 69% of the reported cases of domestic violence against women, men are perpetrators while in Poland this numeral is even much higher (96%). Similar numbers are also found in Slovakia (94.5%) and Slovenia (90.8%). (See Nielsen, 2011; Wojnicka, 2011; Hrženjak, 2011; Szapuová 2001)

However, in some cases, *IPV* can also be committed by women. In some relationships men are physically abused by female partners although the dimension of this problem is not comparable to the acts of men's violence against women. (See Puchert & Scambor, in press) As the frequency and severity of experiences of violence is much higher if women are abused by men, there is **no symmetry between female and male victims of *IPV***.¹⁰⁹ The experiences and consequences of being victim of *IPV* are different for men and women.¹¹⁰ In particular, the following table shows that more women than men die of *IPV*.

¹⁰⁹ Although acts of violence committed by women occur in every European country, still the scale of this problem has not been properly researched. National data provide fragmentary information about this problem, and in many cases research on this topic is conducted by bodies with a gender biased background, such as men's rights movements, organisations which might supply unreliable and exaggerated results. Moreover, in some countries (Poland, Czech Republic) there is also the problem of the media exaggerating the real share of men becoming victims of domestic violence. (See Wojnicka & Struzik, 2011; Šmídová, 2011) According to data supplied by national experts, the percentage of male victims of violence in intimate relationships ranges from 0.8% in Iceland (see Gíslason, 2011) to 27% in Latvia (see Novikova, 2011).

¹¹⁰ Another type of domestic violence against men is psychological violence. According to national data, this type of abusing male partners or relatives is rather common. In Germany, „*psychological violence within relationships was reported [by men] with far greater frequency than physical violence. What is striking here is that far more incidents related to social control [for example inability for some men to perform care-giving roles in cer-*

Table 5.1.1 Mortality estimations, victims of IPV in EU 27, 2006¹¹¹

Country	Homicides women	Homicides Men	Homicides collateral	Perpetrator suicides ¹¹²	Suicides women ¹¹³	Total	Total per million inhabitants
Austria	12	2	2	7	19	42	5.08
Belgium	35	8	10	30	46	129	12.27
Bulgaria	42	7	4	13	13	79	10.23
Cyprus	3	1	0	1	0	5	6.52
Czech Rep.	80	8	8	24	20	140	13.66
Denmark	14	2	1	4	12	33	6.08
Estonia	22	7	2	7	3	41	30.49
Finland	21	6	3	2	23	55	10.47
France	137	31	14	46	232	460	7.30
Germany	278	21	28	83	160	570	6.91
Greece	16	5	2	5	6	34	3.06
Hungary	64	6	6	19	43	138	13.70
Ireland	17	3	2	5	8	35	8.32
Italy	94	9	16	42	62	223	3.80
Latvia	50	9	5	15	5	84	36.61
Lithuania	18	13	6	19	14	70	20.57
Luxembourg	2	0	0	1	2	5	10.66
Malta	2	0	0	1	0	3	7.41
Netherlands	46	6	5	14	44	115	7.04
Poland	139	24	14	42	70	289	7.57
Portugal	31	7	4	11	39	65	6.15
Romania	71	38	19	39	33	200	9.25
Slovakia	18	4	2	5	5	34	6.31
Slovenia	3	1	0	1	7	12	5.99
Spain	68	18	13	40	53	192	4.39
Sweden	31	3	3	9	31	77	8.51
UK	95	33	17	51	87	283	4.69
Total	1409	272	186	536	1010	3413	6.92

Source: Daphne III Project No JLS/2007/DAP-1/140 (http://www.psytel.eu/inc/download.php?file=2:IPV%20EU_Mortality/IPV%20EU_Mortality%20Synthese_En.pdf).

5.1.3.3 Men as victims of violence

According to all available data both at national and international level, one of the **most common form of violence is violence committed by men against other men**. Men's violence – whether against female partners or against other men or children – is rooted in male socialisation and patterns of dominance, but also often driven by previous experiences of violence. Therefore, a separate analysis of men as victims of other men's violence is worthwhile.

tain social groups] were mentioned than direct psychological abuse, humiliation, belittling, disparagement and insults.” (Jungnitz, et al., 2004, p. 11)

¹¹¹ “Explanatory note: The data presented include direct femicides in which the perpetrators were or have been the intimate partners (husbands and current or past partners), ex-boyfriends/girlfriends, boyfriends/girlfriends and persons dating (without having necessarily an intimate relationship). Not included are deaths due to honour crimes, as yet not quantifiable. Death refer to persons 15 years and older, and for all ages concerning collateral homicides which mainly comprised children.” (Crepaldi, et al., 2010, p. 92)

¹¹² Male perpetrators of violence who committed suicide. (See Crepaldi, et al., 2010)

¹¹³ Female victims of violence who committed suicide because of their unbearable life situation. (See Crepaldi, et al., 2010)

While **women are much more at risk of becoming victims in the domestic sphere** where perpetrators are usually people they know, **men are the majority of victims in public spaces** (streets, public transport, supermarkets, clubs, schools, play grounds) where perpetrators are very often strangers.

Box 5.1.1 - Violence against men in public spaces

Denmark

For Denmark, a report prepared by the *National Institute of Public Health* shows that men run a higher risk than women to be exposed to violence, although there are some differences in the nature of violence against women and men. In general, the majority of violence against men is committed in the street or at other public spaces. (See Wojnicka, 2011; Nielsen, 2011)

Estonia

A study carried out in Estonia, assessing the incidence of violence in all contexts during the previous year, indicates that physical and psychological violence against men occurs more frequently in public spaces (82%) than at home. (See Karu, 2011)

Germany

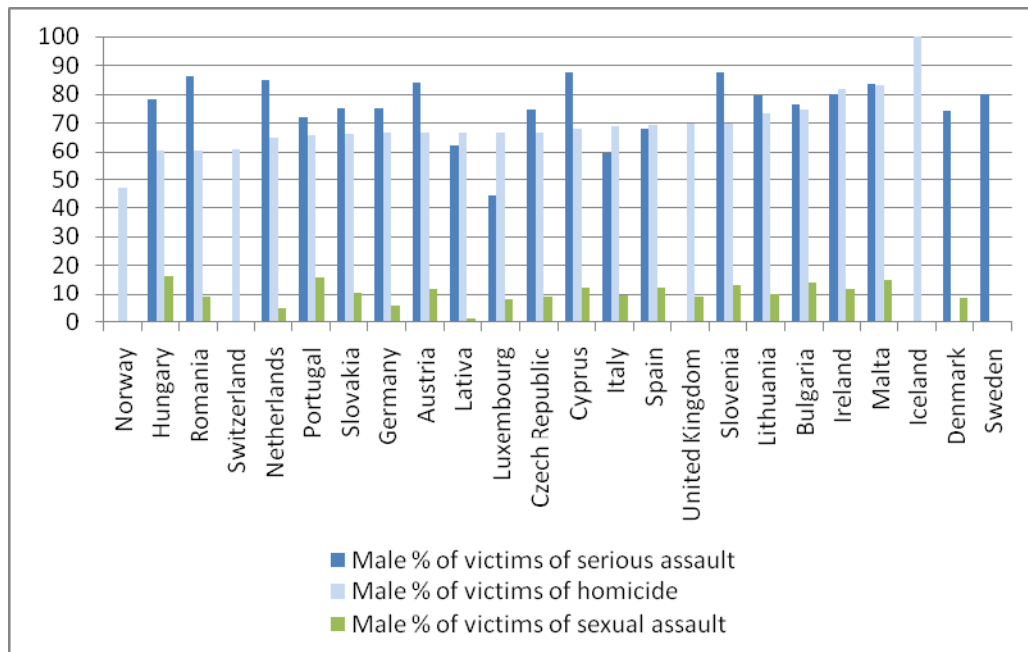
The pattern described for Denmark and Estonia is typical for other European countries as well, for example Germany where findings of a study on men as victims of violence “[...] indicate that the majority of physical violence against adult men occurs in the public sphere” (Jungnitz, et al., 2004, p. 7).

Figure 5.1.2 shows that **men are usually more likely to become victims of other serious assaults** than women (from 87.5% in Slovenia, 87.4% in Cyprus and 86.3% in Romania to 59.5% in Italy)¹¹⁴ **and homicides**¹¹⁵ while **women form by far the majority of victims of sexual assault**. (See Crepaldi, et al., 2010)

¹¹⁴ The only exception is Luxemburg with 44.2% male victims.

¹¹⁵ The only exception is Norway with 48.2% male victims.

Figure 5.1.2 Male percentage of victims of crimes by different types of crimes by country, 2008*



Source: UNECE Statistical Division Database; Code: c0000269; * Serious assault: Cyprus 2007, Latvia 2002, Luxembourg 2006, Netherlands 2003, Portugal 2005; Homicide: Cyprus, Iceland 2007; Latvia 2002, Luxembourg 2006, Netherlands 2006, Norway 2001, Portugal 2005; Sexual assault: Cyprus 2007; Latvia 2002, Luxembourg 2006, Netherlands 2006, Norway 2001, Portugal 2005; not all figures are available for all countries

National data show that men from so-called **marginalised groups** run a higher than average risk of being exposed to violence. Thus, LGBTQ men are much more likely to become victims as they more often challenge the norms of hegemonic masculinity. In the majority of European countries, such as Poland, Portugal, Spain, Germany or the UK, **homophobic acts of violence are more often directed against gay men than against lesbians**: “A YouGov survey commissioned by Stonewall in 2008 (Dick, 2008) found that on the whole around one in five gay men had been insulted/harassed because of their sexual orientation. It was further reported that gay men were over 2.5 times more likely than lesbians to be the victim of an incident involving a physical assault. Moreover, gay men were more likely to become victims of a hate crime committed by someone they didn’t know.” (Raine & White, 2011)

The situation is similar for other marginalised men, such as immigrants, members of ethnic and religious minorities, disabled men and homeless men.

Marginalised groups are also exposed to **violence committed at school**, where the most common form is bullying. In Portugal, a qualitative study on both non-heterosexual and immigrant men of African origin shows that most of the interviewees suffered from discrimination as well as physical and sexual abuse perpetrated by other boys at school. (See Aboim & Vasconcelos, 2011) According to the German study *Violence Against Men*, the risk for men to become a victim of violent acts is far higher in childhood and adolescence than in adult life. (See Jungnitz, et al., 2004) This means that for young people **schools, other educational institutions and public spaces are places with a very high risk for violence**.

Some researchers argue that the risk of becoming a male victim of sexual assault is higher for boys **living at boarding schools, reformatories and orphanages**. This might be connected to the special type of power relations between young inmates and their guardians, where the first group is strongly dependent from the second, as well as the specific nature of

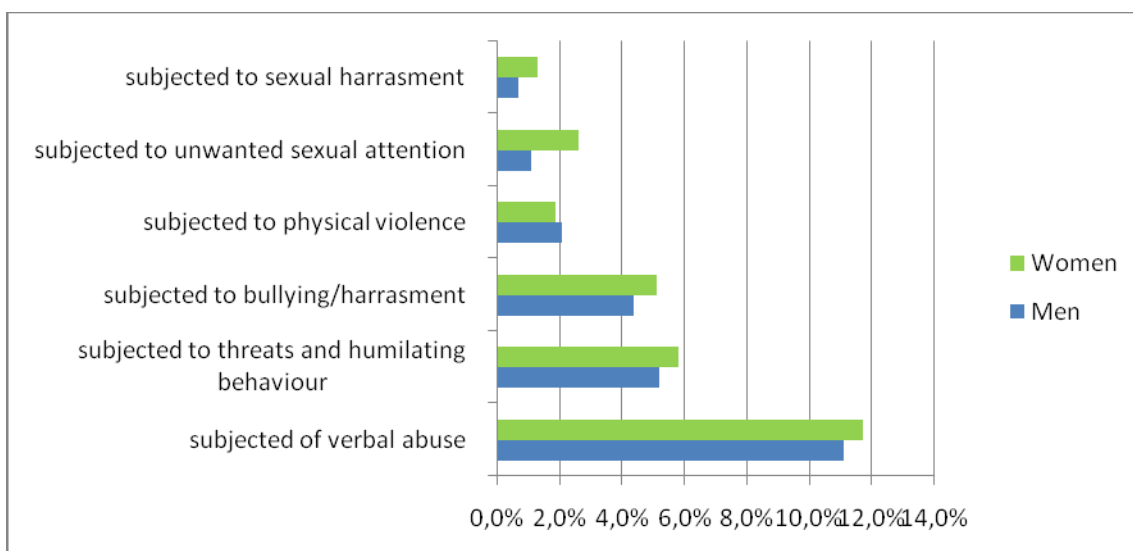
relations among boys and young men which are typical for homo-social groups where one group attempts to dominate the others by using physical or sexual force. “*Sexual violence against men and boys is a significant problem. With the exception of childhood sexual abuse, though, it is one that has largely been neglected in research. Rape and other forms of sexual coercion directed against men and boys take place in a variety of settings, including at home, the workplace, schools, on the streets, in the military and during war, as well as in prisons and police custody.*” (Krug, et al., 2002, p. 64)

Among institutions with a high level of violent incidents against young men perpetrated by other men, **the military** must be singled out. According to a German pilot study, “[...] *three out of five men who did military service reported to have been bullied, demoralised, insulted or humiliated and one third stated that they had been forced to do or say something completely against their will. Every sixth man had been actually locked up, tied up, or had their freedom of movement restricted in some other way.*” (Jungnitz, et al., 2004, p. 13) Although the connection between men’s violence and the military system seems to be obvious, there is a lack of information about the issue.

While physical violence is the most typical form of violence against men in the public space, at the **workplace men are more often victims of psychological forms of abuse, although acts of physical violence happen there as well.** According to the *European Working Conditions Survey* (2010), 2.1% of men in the EU 27 and in Norway suffered from **physical violence** at their workplace,¹¹⁶ 0.7% were victims of **sexual harassment**, 4.4% suffered from **bullying and harassment**, while 11.1% of them became victims of **verbal abuse**. In the case of male victims, usually the perpetrators are other men.

Women are more likely to be exposed to sexual harassment, and have somewhat higher rates of experiencing bullying and verbal abuse. (See figure 5.1.3)

Figure 5.1.3 Employed and self-employed persons who reported to have experienced different forms of workplace-related violence, men and women, EU 27 and Norway, 2010



Source: EWCS 2010; EWCS includes only persons in employment/self-employment

¹¹⁶ According to the *World Report on Violence and Health, in the "[...] European Union, an estimated 3 million workers (2% of the labour force) have been subjected to physical violence at work.*" (Krug, et al., 2002, p. 18)

Some groups of men seem to be exposed to violence in the domestic sphere. Data show that both **boys and older men are more likely to become victims of physical violence than ‘men in their prime’**. For example, in Austria boys are more affected than girls, concerning physical abuse by their parents. Boys (33%) are more often heavily slapped in the face than girls (23%), and 10% of girls but 14% of boys reported being heavily beaten by their parents. (See Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft, Familie und Jugend 2009, p. 45; see Scambor & Scambor, 2011)

The problem of **violence against elderly people**, on the other hand, has been raised in the *World Report on Violence and Health*: “With most developing nations only recently becoming aware of the problem, information on the frequency of elder abuse has relied on five surveys conducted in five developed countries in the past decade [...] The results show a rate of abuse of 4–6% among older people if physical, psychological and financial abuse, and neglect are all included [...] However, according to community-based prevalence studies, it appears that older men are at risk of abuse by spouses, adult children and other relatives in about the same proportions as women.” (Krug, et al., 2002, p. 129 et seq.)

Box 5.1.2 - Good practice examples of helping male victims

Netherlands

Since 2008 there is a pilot scheme of ‘men shelters’ meant for male victims of domestic violence or honour related violence. (See Verloo, v.d. Haar & v. Huis, 2011)

Switzerland

In 2010 a private organisation opened the first men’s shelter in the Canton of Aargau. It is financed by private donations and run by men who have been personally aggrieved by domestic violence. It still lacks professional staff such as social workers or psychologists, which would be a precondition for receiving public funds. (See Fuchs, 2011)

5.1.4 Analysis and good practices: the role of men in combating violence

There is a growing awareness and activity in Europe regarding the necessity of programmes targeting perpetrators of domestic violence, including *IPV*. The country reports show that **perpetrator programmes** have recently been established in a number of EU countries.

Box 5.1.3 - Good practices in preventing violence at European level

Work with Perpetrators of Domestic Violence in Europe

The *European Commission’s Daphne II Programme to combat violence against children, young people and women* and the *German Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth* funded the project *Work with Perpetrators of Domestic Violence in Europe*. Project partners of seven European countries ran the project from 2006 to 2008. Beneficiary target groups of the project were victims, direct target groups were perpetrators. “The main goal of the project was to increase the safety of the victims of domestic violence by fostering a European exchange about good practice in the work with male perpetrators of domestic violence. As an important step to reach this aim, the project established an Internet database with detailed information about programmes working with male perpetrators of domestic violence in the EU [...] As a second step, the project intends to stimulate the debate at European level about methodological and ethical requirements for responsible work, particularly with regard to the protection of victims of domestic violence and about necessary measures of documentation and evaluation. For these reasons, the project prepared guidelines for the development of standards for programmes working with male perpetrators of domestic violence and important aspects regarding documentation and evaluation [...] The main target group for using the collected information are practitioners working with male perpetrators of domestic violence and professionals

who are confronted with domestic violence in the context of their daily work, such as police, prosecution authorities, women's shelters, helplines, counselling centres and others. Beyond that, results should support decision makers and policy to foster domestic violence intervention strategies and to improve the framework conditions for the work with perpetrators/perpetrator programmes.” (<http://www.work-with-perpetrators.eu/en/project.php>)

At the same time, combating men's violence – and violence in general – is a task that includes extended societal change. A very important contribution of men to gender equality is the fight against their own and other men's affinity to violence. **Men themselves should be motivated to act against gender based violence**, since their voice can be more audible for other men who are likely to use violence. As Martin Jura from Czech League of Open Men is quoted: *“The best strategies to get men involved in the discussion on masculinity is to choose appropriate means to address them, either directly (through group work and counselling) or via media campaigns and open space discussions. The most effective approach seems to be men speaking to men. It seems to be more effective than having women try to explain what is the best for men and why gender stereotypes are hurting men as well.”* (Ruxton & v.d. Gaag, 2012) Therefore, the number of initiatives by men targeting other men should definitely increase, and the good practice examples presented below should be implemented broadly and transferred to countries where such initiatives are still missing.

Box 5.1.4 - Good practices in preventing men's violence at national level

Ireland

MOVE (Men Overcoming Violence) provides counselling for men to help them overcome violence and change their attitude to women. There is some evidence also that domestic violence intervention programmes in Ireland have been effective and a potential lead for other countries to follow but their low participant numbers mean that should not be considered a lone response. (See Hanlon, 2011)

Germany

In 2007 the *HEROES* project was started by *Strohalm e.V* in Berlin. Young men with a migration background from areas with a 'culture of honour' engage against honour-related oppression and support equal rights and equality between women and men. The main aim of the project is to improve the situation of women and girls. The project consists of two parts: a nine months 'awareness training' for young men between 17 and 23 is followed by practical work, for example workshops at schools, training centres and youth clubs where they share their awareness with other young people. The workshops are based on role-play methods. After the role-play the participants are encouraged to explain the scenes and discuss to which extent they represent daily violence and suppression. Young *HEROES* provide an example for other young men and demonstrate also towards girls that they think critically about the role men play towards women in cultures of honour and that they want to support gender equality. (<http://www.heroes-net.de/>)

Malta

A perpetrators' programme was set up in January 1999 and is run by *Agenzija Appogg*. The programme assists men who are abusive in intimate relationships with becoming aware of the situation as well as with understanding and taking responsibility for their behaviour. This is done through attendance in a group programme running over 22 weeks. Prior to acceptance to the programme, perpetrators are individually assessed by a professional as to their suitability for the group. It is hoped that through attendance in the programme perpetrators will be helped to change from being abusive to being respectful in their beliefs and, subsequently, in their behaviour towards women. Service users are also provided with a social work service, if required. After the group programme, participants are also encouraged to receive continued support through an open support group. The service liaises with *the Domestic Violence Unit* in cases when social workers from the Unit are working with the perpetrator's partner, so as to provide a feedback loop regarding the progress of the perpetrator. Support on

an individual basis is also provided in times of crises and in containing a difficult situation. (See Camilleri-Cassar, 2011)

Norway

Norway's anti-violence policy has included treatment for violent men already since the 1980s, with 'Alternatives to Violence' (ATV) centres offering treatment (established in 1987, now this foundation has 8-9 centres around the country). This policy was at first controversial but has been generally accepted as positive. Today's ATV centres offer treatment to women as well as to male violators and have developed cooperation with shelters for victims of violence. (See Holter & Blindheim-Andersen, 2011)

Poland

Members of the *Mężczyźni na Rzecz Równości* [Men for Equality] informal group, in cooperation with *Towarzystwo Interwencji Kryzysowej* [Society for Crisis Intervention], have organised workshops for men who wanted to start changing traditional male roles, attitudes and behaviours and thus fighting male violence against women in Poland. As a founder of *Towarzystwo Interwencji Kryzysowej*, Anna Lipowska-Teutsch wrote: "*The Mężczyźni na rzecz zmiany project aimed at creating culturally adequate modules which were supposed to appeal to Polish experiences, Polish history, tradition and customs. These types of workshops are supposed to help boys/men with breaking free from patterns of behaviour combining masculinity with aggression and self-destruction.*" (Lipowska-Teutsch, 2006, p. 94) During the project, several workshops with groups of boys and men were conducted. The team of educators consisted of both the members of the *Mężczyźni na Rzecz Równości* group and of professional psychologists. Workshops were "[...] conducted for different groups of participants (boys only, coeducation groups, high school students, vocational school students, community home members, residential facility for boys with learning and/or emotional difficulties) and with different complements of educators (two women, two men, man and woman). The workshops took place by groups of 15 people and lasted 90 minutes." (Lipowska-Teutsch & Rytko, 2006, p. 104)

Slovenia

The *Association against Violent Communication* is the first and the only non-governmental organisation in Slovenia which, from 2004 on, has been offering counselling to perpetrators and social skills trainings for men who commit violence against women. They stress that the existing system of sanctioning does not provide opportunities for perpetrators to take responsibility for their violent acts, analyse their behaviour and attitudes and become informed by the principles of equality between women and men. (See Hrženjak, 2011)

Sweden

There is, for instance, *Män för jämställdhet* [Men for gender equality] working for equality and against male violence. The organisation has initiated projects on men and equality, funded by the government. Other Swedish organisations focussing on men are *Crises Centres for Men*, which are established in six cities. At the centres men can get therapeutic help from professional therapists with a focus mainly on men experiencing situations of crisis but also on men and violence. There are shelters focussing on men, but on a non-professional basis. Unlike those for women, which focus on victims of violence, they focus on men in different kinds of relationship crises. (See Balkmar, 2011)

5.1.4 Conclusion and recommendations

Violence plays an important role in male socialisation, in the shaping of male identities by society and in the establishment of ideals of masculinity which include dominance over women and other men. One of the most visible evidences of this fact is intimate partner violence (IPV), where the vast majority of perpetrators are men, and the vast majority of victims are women and children.

But also many men are experiencing violence, mainly perpetrated by other men and mainly in the public sphere. The use of violence by men in order to subordinate other people also hits men, and to work against violence is therefore also in the interest of many boys, male

youngsters and men: those who have become or are at risk to become victims of violence, and the majority of men who do not use violence and reject it. It has to be underlined that although the majority of all acts of violence (physical, psychological and sexual) are committed by men, most men are not violent. (See Kaufman, 2001; 2012)

In this respect, particular attention must be paid to the prevention of violence. Especially primary prevention is better served if programmes and policies acknowledge that boys' and men's use of violence – whether against girls and women, children or other boys and men – is often driven by previous experiences of violence.

As the previous chapters in this report have shown, the contemporary gender order favours men over women in society, generally speaking. Nevertheless, the benefits of being a man are complemented by the costs of masculinity, and man-to-man violence can be considered as such costs.

Recommendations

Promote non-violent masculinities

Combating gender-based violence requires fundamental changes in gender perceptions. Thus, masculinity should be disconnected from heroism and dominance, and caring masculinities need to be promoted. At the same time, femininity needs to be disconnected from weakness and helplessness in order to strengthen women's resilience against violence. Measures should include an **intersectional perspective** in order to recognise different alternative masculinities and femininities and their resources.

Initiatives at national level should be taken:

- Develop violence prevention work in **child care centres and schools** by offering more knowledge about gender sensitive work with boys and girls.
- Conduct **workshops and courses** which present alternative models of masculinities and femininities. These should be carried out at schools, the workplace, at the community level (for example in social and cultural clubs which exist in certain districts of the cities), and via the media, including social media. These should also build on the existing evidence base of effective gender based violence prevention.
- Support and develop **empowerment programmes**. Develop awareness-raising activities **involving role models** which are significant for young people (such as charismatic social activists, sportsmen, celebrities, etc) who represent non-hegemonic ways of being a man.
- Produce **materials** such as comic books, cartoons or art performances which present alternative gender roles.
- **Develop** projects aiming at integrating boys and **men in care professions**, like day-care and nursing practices and promote these activities, to foster new public images of caring masculinities, as an alternative to traditional pictures which often incorporate violence.
- **Develop gender-sensitive teacher training** on violence prevention.
- Develop programmes at national level that identify children exposed to violence and provide specific psycho-social support to them, for instance, **voluntary counselling groups at schools**, in the context of which children are referred to by teachers, guidance counsellors and self-referred.
- Foster **parents' education** to prevent violence against children.

Foster, improve and extend work with perpetrators

Perpetrator intervention programmes require **minimum standards, regular training** of facilitators and **impact evaluation** to assess outcomes and to continue their improvement. Such programmes should also **dialogue constantly with shelter or protection programmes**, so that the needs and perspectives of victims of violence are included and understood.

Programmes should also **seek means of restorative justice (the ways of rehabilitation for perpetrators)** in which those who have used violence can assume responsibility for their actions in ways that allow them to re-connect to their networks of support.

The most elaborated programmes of working with perpetrators exist in the field of domestic violence. European standards for this work are developed in European networks. (See box 5.1.3)

Further specific needs that should be addressed at EU level and national level:

- Existing programmes for perpetrators of gender-based violence need **evaluation** to improve their effectiveness and quality.
- Promote **good practice** related to work with perpetrators, **including female perpetrators and perpetrators of gender-based violence against men**. Special attention should be put on *IPV* and violence against children in the domestic sphere, as well as on juvenile offenders as part of an early intervention approach.
- Develop **perpetrator programmes in countries where they do not yet exist** (e.g. Post-socialist countries where such programmes are incidental).
- Address not only domestic violence but **all forms of gender-based violence** in the context of work with perpetrators.
- Provide additional and sufficient resources for these projects. Perpetrator programmes must be implemented, but **in addition** and not on the expense of **victim-related services**.

Foster, improve and extend support for male victims of gender-based violence

When experiencing violence, often men do not seek for help, and there is not enough competent help system for them. This is especially true if violence is considered unmanly or particularly shameful, for example domestic and sexual violence against men, forced marriage, etc. Therefore, there is a need to ensure that also men and boys are supported when they face gender-based violence.

Initiatives at national level should be taken:

- Create **help desks and information centres** for men who have experienced violence.
- Create **structures** at schools, the workplace, trade unions, universities, and social media where men are informed about existing sources of support in case of experiencing violence.
- **Develop materials** aimed at male victims of gender-based violence and make them available at high risk places.
- Enable **existing services** to address crises and to offer help to men and boys.
- Integrate an intersectional perspective by taking into account not only gender, but also cultural background, class issues, age, sexual orientation, etc in order to differentiate specific needs and to develop **specific support services**. Also transgender victims of violence must be considered.

- Foster approaches of **empowerment** of vulnerable groups (by special workshops, school programmes, media campaigns, etc) in order to enable people to oppose male violence (more capability of acting both at individual and at societal level).

Raise public awareness and create better knowledge

- Develop **awareness-raising activities** directed at those types of violence that are either most shameful for the male victims (like sexual violence) or appear as being too 'normal' to be perceived as violence (like reciprocal physical man-to-man violence).
- When developing **campaigns**, raise awareness of the (often overlooked) relationships between traditional masculinity, gender inequality and violence. The *White Ribbon Campaign*, for example, has already led to a decrease of violence in the country where it was first implemented (Canada). (See chapter 5.3)
- In any activities, attention has to be paid to **avoid labeling and stigmatising young men with low incomes** as a main perpetrator group – these men are, in turn, the most likely victims of violence in the public sphere. While it is vital to identify and link violence to economic injustice, prevention programmes that target at-risk or low income young men can end up with creating stigmatising approaches (such as racial profiling) that should be avoided.

Improve research

Finally, ensure funding for research on the following topics:

- How masculine identity is affected by **economic stress**, what effects this stress has on the use of violence and what kinds of social support can reduce the negative effects of economic and other crises.
- How **homophobia, militarism, conflict** and other factors affect men's use of violence, and how this understanding can help promote non-violent masculinities.
- How a focus on masculinities can be incorporated in **delinquency prevention and public security approaches**.
- Very little is known about violence against transgender people. Foster research on this topic to increase specific knowledge about perpetrators and victims, to inform practical development of preventive and supportive measures.

5.2 Men's health

5.2.1 Introduction

Apart from an androcentric medicine¹¹⁷ throughout the last centuries, 'men's health' as an approach to take men as gendered subjects is a rather young topic. Nevertheless, what we have now come to understand as 'men's health' has developed considerably over the past 15 years. It is fair to say that much has been learned from the growth of women's health, but there are a few significant differences that need to be recognised. Feminist emancipation had health at its core, with control over the female body and the ability to make choices a cornerstone of activity around women's health. (See O'Sullivan, 1987) This same level of political

¹¹⁷ Androcentrism is a biased perspective on men as the centre and norm in all societal fields. In medicine, androcentrism resulted in understanding the male body as the norm and the female body as the exception from this norm.

drive for change in men's health has not been seen at the public or indeed academic level and certainly not at the level of the 'man on the street'.

Early theorising on masculinity was primarily focussed onto many aspects of men's lives but ironically health was not seen as an area of interest and remained unexplored. In the mid 1990's this began to change: a number of academics started to explore the relationship between men's experiences of health and their usage of services from a gendered perspective. But it is only since recently that men's health has become a wider recognised topic. Today, greater attention is placed on the inter-relational nature of masculinity with age, ethnicity, socio-economic factors, disability, and with other men and women.

In 2006, during the *Finnish Government's Presidency* of the EU, a working group at the *Conference on Men and Gender Equality – Towards Progressive Policies* in Helsinki (see Va-ranka, Närhinen & Siukola, 2006) focussed onto *Gender Mainstreaming in Health Policies and Practices*. During this session the marked differences in the health of men and women were outlined and, importantly, the case was put that gender inequalities existed both regarding the health of men and the configuration of health policy and practice with regard to meeting the needs of men. Since that meeting two important events have happened:

- The *Men and Health Conference* as part of the *Portuguese Presidency* in 2007 was the first time men's health as an entity had been officially recognised in the context of a presidency.
- The subsequent commissioning of the *State of Men's Health in Europe Report* by *DG Health and Consumers (SANCO)* was launched in the summer of 2011.

The *State of Men's Health in Europe Report* covers the 27 member states of the European Union, the four countries of the European Free Trade Association (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland) and the three candidate countries at that time (Croatia, Turkey, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia). (See European Commission [EC], 2011a, 2011b) It sets the baseline data against which future generations of men will be mapped. The information provided should help the European Commission, national governments and local health strategy development (e.g., city-wide weight management provision) to take a more informed look at how their current policy meets the needs of men and to think seriously as to how to tackle men's health in the future. The interested reader is referred to the extended (see EC, 2011a) or the short version (see EC, 2011b) of the report to find an abundance of topics and data there.

The timing of this scrutiny is important, as the male and female population are seen to be changing, and this will bring new challenges for the health and social care sector. Thus, generally speaking, investing in health is of vital interest for the EU, as working age men and women are needed to be in the best possible health to be productive and to avoid an old age limited by chronic illness.

This is closely connected to the *EU 2020* strategy under the challenge of "[...] *promoting a healthy and active ageing population to allow for social cohesion and higher productivity.*" (EC, 2010, p. 18) The same line of thinking is emphasised in the forthcoming *Health for Growth Programme* (the programme of EU action in the field of health for the period 2014-2020; see EC, 2011c; EC n.d.), which is striving to keep people healthy and active for a longer time to retain productivity and competitiveness.

At a glance

- After centuries of androcentric medicine with an unquestioned view on men as the human norm, the perspective changed when women started to claim their rights. With the sec-

ond wave of feminist movement¹¹⁸, women's health has become an important topic in research and practice over the last decades. There has not been a comparable development of our understanding of how masculinity, male socialisation and men's experiences within society influences the health of men, which means that the perspective on men as gendered subjects in connection to health has remained underdeveloped. However there have been some promising developments since recently.

- The health problems of men and women are not identical, which results in different challenges for *Public Health* and all policies that have an effect on people's health. In the same way as we have seen with women's health, men's health is complex and challenging and vulnerable to inequalities and inequities.
- Large numbers of men die prematurely, with more than twice as many deaths a year as women throughout the working ages (15-64 years).
- Life expectancy of men is lower than that of women across all the countries and regions of the EU 27. Men's and women's life expectancy varies greatly by socio-economic status. Stronger effects of socio-economic variables on life expectancy have been found for men, especially in the Post-socialist countries, resulting in high gaps between men and other men depending on their social circumstances.
- It is important to understand how men are socialised and which role the various forms of masculinity play for men's health. From this perspective, men's health problems have been interpreted as 'costs of masculinity', as opposed to the advantages men gain from the current gender relations (e.g., higher income and less unpaid work).
- A variety of concrete short- and mid-term examples of good practice improving men's health have been found, which focus on different levels of health determinants, e.g.:
 - enforced road traffic legislation,
 - including well-being as well as health and safety measures at the workplace,
 - improved health service provision,
 - targeted health education.
- Although each country needs its own tailored gender health strategy, good practice examples concerning men's health can provide stimulations for transferring ideas from one country to another.

5.2.2 Basic results: What do we know about men's health in Europe?

Until recently, there had only been a fragmented view on men's health. A few country reports on men's health had been published, for example in Germany and Austria, or in the context of analyses in white papers¹¹⁹ and similar documents (e.g. *Norwegian Ministry of Children and Equality, 2009* and the *Irish Men's Health Policy*).

This situation was comparable to the situation in countries **outside the EU**, for example Canada, where "[...] in terms of a real discussion about the gender determinants of men's health – the fact that men don't ask for help, go to doctors less frequently than women, smoke more and drink more than women, commit suicide more often, live far shorter, and so forth – we've had little discussion of such things with a clear, gender analysis." (Kaufman, 2012)

¹¹⁸ The women's movement from 1960 onwards is referred to as 'second wave of feminist movement'. The 'first wave of feminist movement' is the period from the second half of the 19th century to approximately 1930.

¹¹⁹ White papers in politics contain proposals for common action in certain policy field.

Also in countries like Brazil or Mexico basic data on men's health show a similar pattern, and there is a growing recognition that further research and action is needed: “[...] *men have far higher occupation injuries, external causes of death, whether that's traffic accidents, homicides, suicides, other injuries. Men are much more likely to suffer those, so we need some attention to this.*” (Barker, 2012; see also White & Holmes, 2006)

The **State of Men's Health in Europe Report** gives, for the first time, a complete picture of the variety of issues affecting men's health in one report. (See White, de Sousa, et al., 2011) The report covers a detailed examination of the male population; of lifestyles and preventable risk factors; men's access to health services; health status; cardiovascular disease; cancer; accidents, injuries and violence; mental health; problems of the male reproductive system; communicable diseases; dental and oral health, and other conditions affecting men. The **headline finding** from the report is that there is a persistent trend of higher rates of premature morbidity and mortality not just with men as compared to women but also when comparing men from other socio-economic and cultural backgrounds.

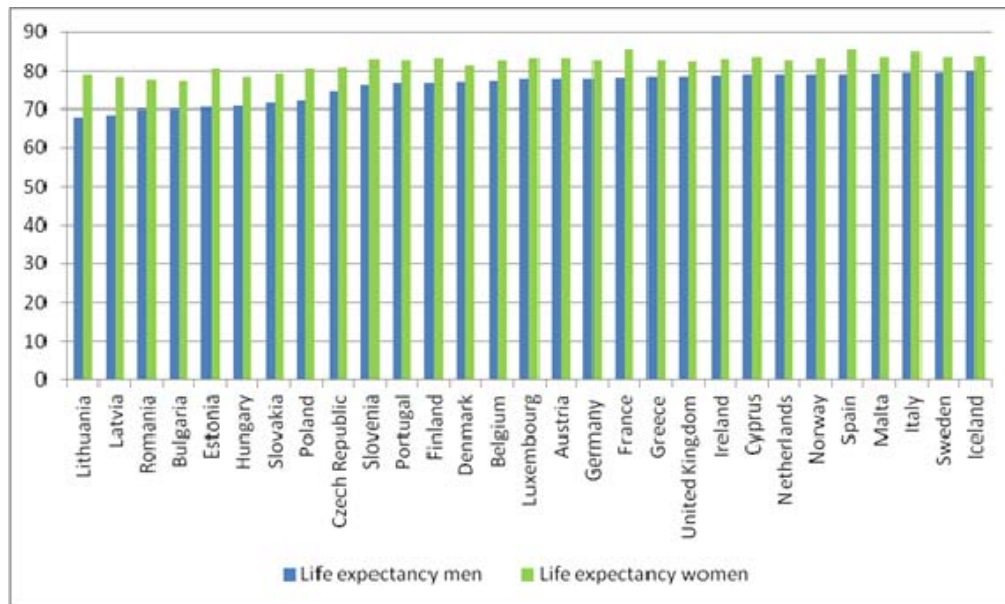
An important part of the analysis was the examination of the effect of premature death on the male working age population. In the European member states there were over 630,000 male deaths between the ages of 15 and 64 as compared to 300,000 female deaths. (See EC, 2011a) Across the European member states, deaths in this 15-64 age group accounted for 26% of total male deaths, compared to 13% of female deaths. However, these proportions varied considerably between countries: ranging from nearly 44% of total male deaths occurring in this age group in Lithuania to 18% in Sweden.

Men, clearly, have a higher rate of premature death than that seen with women. A closer look at these deaths reveals that men seem to be more vulnerable to the majority of health conditions that could be seen to have no link to sex-specific diseases. For example, there is a relatively well known problem of men having higher rates of cardiovascular disease and accidents, but it is not so well recognised that men tend to die earlier from digestive problems; respiratory disease; neoplasms; infections; and many other conditions. (See annex 5.2.1)

However, such different rates do not mean that any of these diseases and health problems can be labelled as a 'male' or a 'female' problem. In fact, different segments of the population are affected by various health problems in a different manner. As will be outlined below, not only gender but also other categories of social inequality (e.g., socio-economic status, migration, age) can have a combined effect on differences in people's health status.

In all countries **the life expectancy of women is higher than that of men**, with higher differences across countries for men, and with the lowest values for men living in the Post-socialist countries. (See figure 5.2.1) Life expectancy is increasing for men as for women, and the gender gap is narrowing in many, but not in all countries. (See annex 5.2.2)

Figure 5.2.1 Life expectancy in absolute values at birth by gender, 2010



Source: Eurostat (online data code: hlth_hlye); extracted on March 12th, 2012; own calculations.

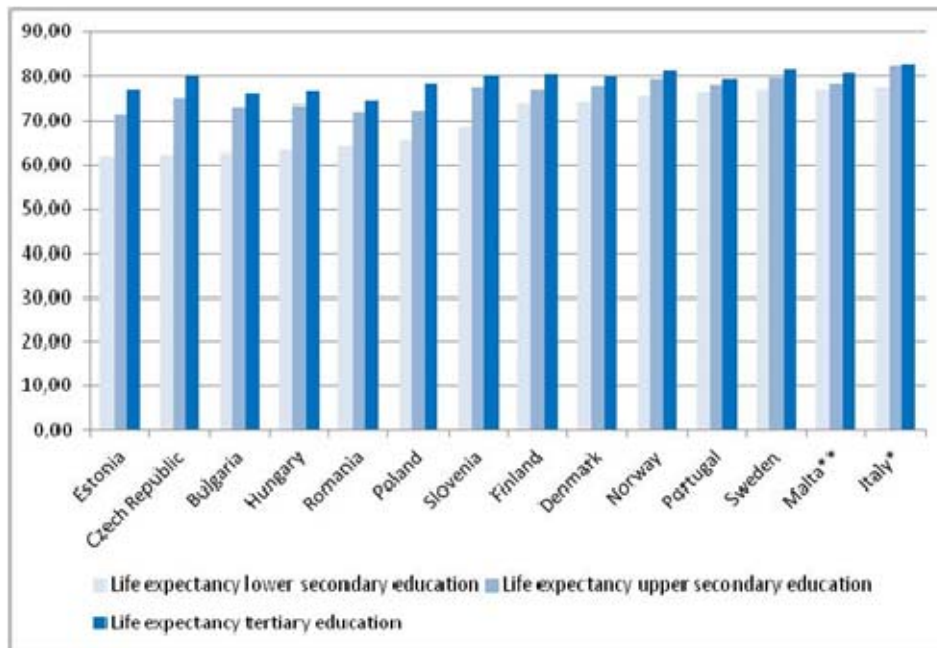
When men's life expectancy across countries is connected to socioeconomic variables, such as the **level of education**, a consistent pattern emerges (see figure 5.2.2; annex 5.2.3): The higher the level of education, the higher the life expectancy; the lower the level of education, the lower the life expectancy.

This influence of the educational level on life expectancy holds for all countries under analysis, for men as well as for women. However, the influence is much **stronger for men** than for women, in all countries that have been analysed. The most accentuated differences between higher and lower education groups can be found in the Post-socialist countries.

If only **men and women with tertiary education** are compared, the gender gaps in life expectancy are below five years in most of the countries. Gender gaps below four years can be found in the Czech Republic, Italy, Malta, Denmark, Sweden and Norway.

On the other hand, the biggest gender gaps in life expectancy (ten years and above) can be found for the gender groups with **lower secondary education** in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovenia. The life expectancy of men with lower secondary education in the Post-socialist countries is the lowest of all groups, with values below 70 years (from 62.1 years in Estonia to 68.7 years in Slovenia), while the life expectancy for women with lower secondary education is ranging from 72.6 years in Bulgaria to 79.6 years in Slovenia. (See annex 5.2.3)

Figure 5.2.2 Life expectancy in absolute values for men by highest level of education attained, 2010*,**



Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_mlexpecedu); extracted on March 12th, 2012; * data Italy, Romania, Slovenia 2009; ** data Malta 2007.

As can be seen in figure 5.2.2, men's overall low life expectancy in Post-socialist countries is a problem of men with lower education in the first place, as the life expectancies of men with tertiary education are relatively high and show less variation across the countries.

It can be concluded that "[...] there is much variation in health and life expectancy between men living in different contexts (for example different countries within Europe) and between men living in the same context (for example age-related or socioeconomic differences within the same country)." (EC, 2011b, p. 10)

The combined effect of gender and socio-economic position points to the need for differentiated gender-specific approaches to prevention and health promotion. For example, while the need to prevent premature deaths is a clear priority regarding certain segments of the male population, poor health status and poor quality of life is highly relevant regarding women of higher age and of lower socio-economic position.

This also means that an approach to the analysis of health data is recommended which will not only take gender into account, but also other aspects, especially educational level, occupation and income level, ethnicity and race, sexual orientation, and a deeper analysis of socio-economic status (Griffith, 2012; Hearn & Kolga, 2009; Mackenbach, 2006), to detect relevant health differences between various population groups, and to address them in an appropriate way. However, data for this so-called **intersectional approach** are often lacking.

There is a higher **risk behaviour** of (especially young) men, as can be interpreted from statistics regarding fatal traffic accidents. (See annex 5.2.4) Although progress has been made in the last decade, differences between countries remain high, with deaths from road accidents being 1.5 times higher in lower and middle income countries than in higher income countries and also being higher among men with lower socio-economic status and less education. Among women, no clear differences have been found. (See EC, 2011a)

Risks for men also result from hazardous occupations, with men accounting for 95% of fatal accidents and 76% of non-fatal **accidents at the workplace**. (See EC, 2011a) The highest

proportions of fatal as well as non-fatal accidents are observed in the fields of construction, manufacturing and transport, storage and communication which are typically male-dominated sectors.¹²⁰

Also in other fields of life men tend to accept a higher level of all kinds of risks and risky behaviour, for example **smoking, alcohol consumption, sexuality or sports**. This high level of risk-taking is seen as one of the major causes for men's high prevalence concerning accidents as well as their relatively low life expectancy and high rate of life-threatening illnesses. (See Faltermaier, 2008)

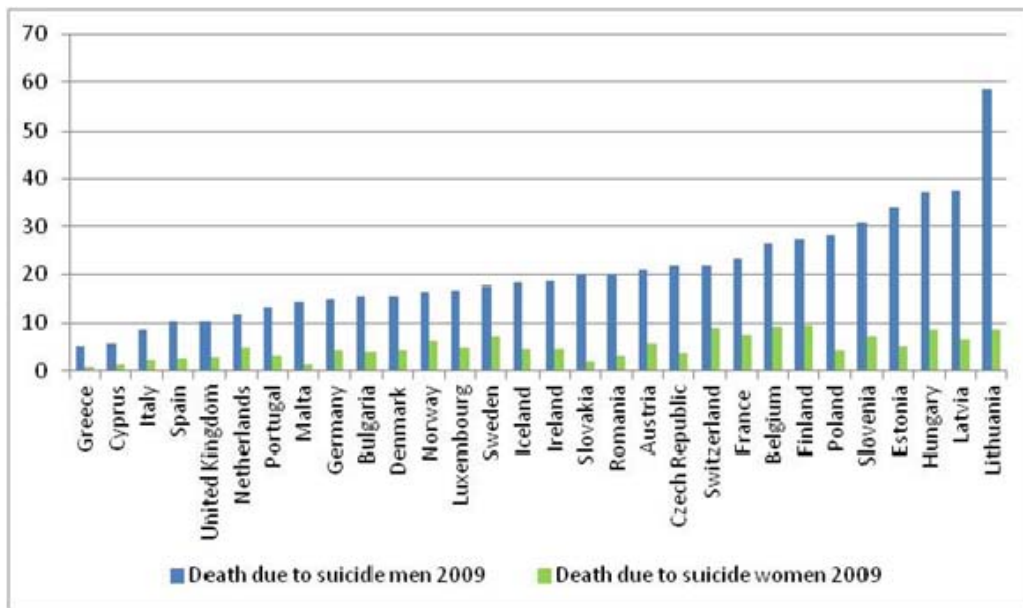
The rate of men committing **suicide** is much higher than that of women (figure 5.2.3), which also contributes to the higher number of premature deaths among men. The differences between countries are high: some of the Post-socialist countries as well as Central European countries (Belgium, France, Austria, Switzerland) and Finland show the highest rates for both men and women.

Most countries show reductions in standardised suicide rates from 1999 to 2009, and some of the countries with the highest rates in 1999 also show the most progress, although they remain on a high level: Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary and Slovenia. On the other hand, there are some countries with almost no change or even increases of standardised suicide rates from 1999 to 2009, namely Belgium, Ireland, Greece, Malta, Poland, Portugal and Iceland. It is noteworthy that to this group there belong countries that have been hit hard by economic crisis and recession. The effects of the economic situation on suicide rates of men need to be explored further. Analyses of current data on suicide rates from Greece and Ireland suggest that a rising number of suicide incidents can be seen as a consequence of the recession. (See Stuckler, Basu, Suhrcke, Coutts & McKee, 2009; 2011) However, comparisons between countries should be made with caution.¹²¹ Comparisons within countries and developments of countries may be considered more reliable.

¹²⁰ Due to methodological differences in surveillance of workplace accidents (see EC, 2011a), a comparison between countries can be misleading. Comparisons between men and women within one country are not affected by this problem, as a possible surveillance bias would affect both genders.

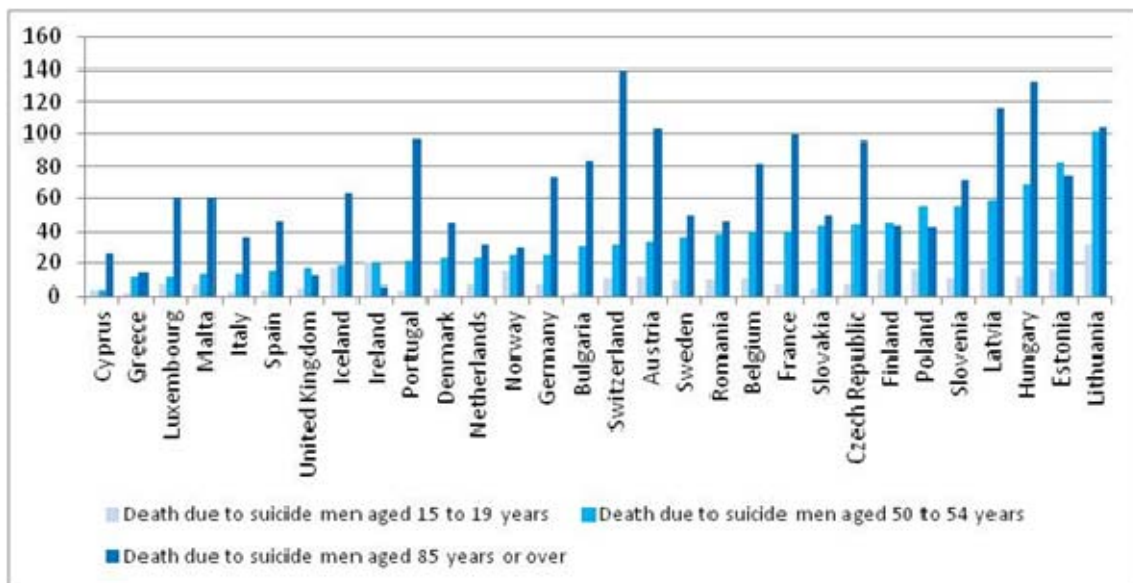
¹²¹ "Although there have been efforts to try and reduce the underestimation of deaths by suicide due to the lack of standardisation of registering the 'manner of death', there are still differences in the occurrence of suicide among the European countries, which may be attributed to shortcomings still to be overcome. Examples include countries where death certificates are used for insurance purposes, and perhaps the most important reason for underrecording might be where cultural and religious beliefs result in suicide being a taboo." (EC, 2011a, p. 318)

Figure 5.2.3 Death due to suicide, by gender, standardised death ratio by 100.000 inhabitants, 2009



Source: Eurostat (online data code: tps00122); extracted on April 12th, 2012; * data Belgium 2006, Switzerland 2007, France, Italy 2008

Figure 5.2.4 Death due to suicide: men, standardised death rate by 100.000 inhabitants, by different age groups, 2009*



Source: Eurostat (online data code: tps00122); extracted on April 12th, 2012; * data 85 years or over: Belgium, Malta 2005; Ireland, Luxembourg 2008; Iceland, Switzerland 2007; from 50 to 54 years: Belgium 2005, Switzerland 2007; from 15 to 19 years: Malta 2004; Belgium 2005; Luxembourg 2007; Cyprus, Iceland, Switzerland 2007

Clearly, **age** plays an important role. As shown by a comparison of selected age groups (figure 5.2.4), suicide rates are highest among old men in most countries, compared to younger men. However, this effect of age does not hold for women. Men at the age of 70 years and older have five times higher rates of suicide than women. (See EC, 2011a)

Depression and suicide can serve as related examples for men's **mental health** problems: hospital admission rates and attendance at surgeries in case of depression are higher for

women than for men, and so are the rates of suicide attempts (often by drug intoxication), but the rates for completed suicide are higher for men (often by more aggressive methods like hanging or shooting). (See Winklbaaur, Ebner & Fischer, 2008) It has also been proposed that male depression is under-diagnosed and under-treated. As a consequence, the concept of a specific **male depressive syndrome** has been introduced (see Brownhill, Wilhelm, Barclay & Schmied, 2005; Möller-Leimkühler, Bottlender, Strauß & Rutz, 2004; Rutz, v. Knorring, Pihlgren, Rihmer & Walinder, 1995; Winkler, Pjrek & Kasper, 2005;), which includes symptoms like acting out, low stress threshold or alcohol abuse, among others (instead of a subdued and inward directed reaction of self-deprecation and feelings of guilt, which is currently the common definition of depression).

The concern that men's mental health is being under-reported was also recognised within the *European Mental Health Report*, where it is noted that whilst women have higher levels of internalising disorders (e.g., depression, anxiety) men have higher levels of externalising disorders (e.g., antisocial disorder) (EC, 2004) which can be detrimental for men, their friends and family, and their community (Kupers, 2005; Stewart & Harmon, 2004; Winkler, Pjrek & Kasper, 2006).

A relatively **low uptake rate** of medical and psychosocial help by men, compared to women, is another factor that is detrimental to men's health. Recent data show that a higher proportion of men than women agreed to the item "*I wanted to wait and see if the problem got better on its own*" in case of unmet needs. (See annex 5.2.5) The rate of men reporting unmet needs covaries with educational level and income; the higher the educational level and the income, the lower is the proportion of men with unmet needs for medical examination. (See annex 5.2.6 and 5.2.7) Again, the combined effect of gender and socioeconomic position becomes apparent.

Concerning **consultations of a physician** during the past 12 months, there are also clear differences between men and women as well as between countries. (See annex 5.2.8 and 5.2.9)

5.2.3 Analysis

It is widely accepted that the bigger part of **health differences between the genders** – as well as differences within gender – are not due to biological and genetic factors but **arise from social and psychosocial conditions**. (See Sihto, 2006) In *Public Health*, the factors which influence the health status of individuals and communities are summarised as **social determinants of health**, including the physical, social, economic environment as well as a person's individual characteristics and behaviours. (See World Health Organisation [WHO], 2012) The circumstances and ways in which people are working, consuming or living their relationships and private lives determine their health status.

As becomes evident, these conditions and behaviours are different according to socio-economic position and according to gender. For individuals as well as for segments of the population the situation is different, concerning the resources and constraints, in terms of developing and maintaining a good health status. For example, men with a low socio-economic position or men with a migration background often face health disadvantages.

Box 5.2.1 Socio-economic status, gender and health

It has been argued that the socio-economic status is indirectly linked to the health status (see Mackenbach, 2006):

- by **material factors**, for example low income and poverty, which can result in bad housing conditions, poor diet and reduced access to health-promoting facilities; occupational risks like exposure to chemicals, accident risks, or physically strenuous work;
- by **psychosocial factors**, like daily hassles, high demands and low control at work, or work strain leading to psychosocial stress, which can be detrimental to health;
- by **behavioural factors**, such as higher rates of alcohol consumption and smoking among populations with lower socio-economic status.

These factors are interacting: “[...] for example, the higher frequency of material disadvantage in lower socio-economic groups may partly explain their higher frequency of psychosocial stress or lack of leisure time physical exercise.” (Mackenbach, 2006, p. 32)

Finally, these factors affect men and women in different ways, leading to complex patterns of explanation for gender differences in morbidity and mortality. For example, the exposure to occupational risks is distributed very differently among the genders, according to the labour market segregation in each country, and consequently accidents at the workplace are distributed differently.

The differences in life expectancies of men in the old EU-member states versus Post-socialist countries can be explained in a similar manner:

“Since the political transition, mortality rates have changed dramatically in many countries in Eastern Europe, sometimes for the better (e.g. in the Czech Republic) but often for the worse (e.g. in Hungary and Estonia), particularly among men. This is probably due to a combination of (interlinked) factors: a rise in economic insecurity and poverty; a breakdown of protective social, public health and health care institutions; and a rise in excessive drinking and other risk factors for premature mortality.” (Mackenbach, 2006 p. 10)

Various **explanations** are given for the lower life expectancy of men compared to women, for the related health problems of the male population and their subgroups, especially according to socio-economic status. As outlined above, men’s higher risk behaviour and risky lifestyles are named, their different help-seeking behaviour, and different conditions of work and life, among other factors. (See e.g., Dierks, 2008)

The reason for the higher level of all kinds of **risks** and **risk-taking behaviour** among men is seen in **male socialisation**. (See EC, 2011a; Scambor & Scambor, 2008) following the **ideology** of “[...] the man as the hard, outgoing instrumental type” (Holter, 2003, p. 25), ready for self-exploitation, reckless competition and a working life as an “*expendable*” (Holter, 2003, p. 25) performer. Being ready to accept a high level of risks is part of this pattern, also in **working life**, where dangerous and unhealthy working environments continue “*to be taken for granted as normal and expected masculine practice, as ‘men’s work’*” (EC, 2011a, p. 277).

However, the ‘cost’- (also in economic terms) or disadvantage side of socialising men in such roles and environments includes high rates of accidents, violent behaviour, attitudes towards work and life that could be described as “*the ‘go till you drop’ syndrome*” (Holter, 2003, p. 25), with a one-sided orientation towards labour and non-caring, and the establishment of a male identity by ‘undoing health’ (Balkmar, 2011). Attitudes and behaviours that are detrimental to health and linked to male identities, such as poor diet and obesity, alcohol consumption, smoking, etc (see White, McKee, et al., 2011), take their gender-specific, detrimental toll.

The way in which boys are raised as well as men’s roles in society are also seen as reasons behind the specific shape of male **depressions**, which can result in extreme behaviour like **suicide**: “[...] there is not much room for giving oneself permission and space to be sad, to be ambivalent or, on the whole, to attempt to feel states within oneself ... Reactions to conflicting or painful conditions are therefore often actions whose objective is to avoid or to quickly get over doubts and pain. Such actions can, in the case of mental health, be extreme

behaviour [...]” (EC, 2011a, p. 311). While women prevail as far as suicide attempts by ‘softer’ methods are concerned, which can be interpreted as a ‘cry for help’ in many cases, the higher rate of completed suicides by men is interpreted as *“a way of escaping a problem”* (EC, 2011a, p. 311) and as a gender-specific reaction to conflicting or painful conditions.

The high rate of suicides among old men is seen in connection with men’s retirement, being single, widowed or in ill health, which suggests a strong social and economic impact on this phenomenon. (See EC, 2011a) A large older male population is a relatively new phenomenon, and there is little provision focussed onto their needs. Though it has long been recognised that women often suffer significant social isolation in old age new studies are showing that a growing proportion of older men are also living alone and isolated, not only as a result of divorce, widowhood or having never married, but through a lack of provision aimed at men and through their relatively poor social capital to call on in times of difficulty. (See Davidson, Daly & Arber, 2003; Holwerda, et al., 2012; Williamson, 2009)

The relatively **low rates of accepting medical and psychosocial help** by men compared to women can partly be explained by **male socialisation**. What makes a boy a ‘real’ boy and a man a ‘real’ man is still connected to ideals of hardness, toughness, physical strength and invulnerability¹²² which leads men to overestimate their health status and to refrain from accepting health services (see Faltermeier, 2008). The idea that helpseeking behaviour and gendered **socialisation** are linked is expressed in a variety of country reports, for example from Lithuania: *“While implementing the EU funded project on Gender Equality in Local Governance one local municipal administration did small scale research about heart and vascular diseases prevention programme in Ukmerge town. This small-scale research suggests that cultural norms about masculine identities and gender stereotypes prevent boys and men to seek for help and care of their health.”* (Pilinkaite-Sotirovic, 2011)

But there are also barriers to the **use of health services** by men due to the **organisation** of these services, for example: *“cost of services, services only being available during traditional working hours, lack of flexibility in many men’s working hours, excessive delays for appointments, rushed consultations, [...]”* (EC, 2011b, p. 33; see also Hearn & Kolga, 2009).

5.2.4. Conclusions and recommendations

As Sihto (2006) points out, **gender** itself is one of the **key determinants** of health. Together with socio-economic position or ethnicity, being male or female shapes *„[...] people’s experience of and exposure to virtually all psychosocial, behavioural and environmental risk factors for health, and these in turn operate through different mechanism to influence causes of diseases.”* (See Sihto, 2006, p. 119)

As outlined above, a range of men’s health problems and their premature mortality rates can in large part be seen as a combination of social inequality and one-sided socialisation patterns towards toughness, paid labour and non-caring. It is worth noting that it is the combination of low socio-economic position and male gender that has the most worrying effects. On the other hand, it is also men who have the highest positions and most resources in society. This has led to the notion of men as the **‘extreme gender’**: *“In this respect men might be viewed as the ‘extreme gender’ of which a small part dominates the top of society and who for the big majority feel well when things go well, but who on the other side are the majority of the homeless, of the criminals, of alcohol and drug abusers, of people who commit suicide, of having violent behaviour, and subject of violence, imprisonment, divorces etc, when things go wrong.”* (See EC, 2011a, p. 304)

¹²² See also the remarks on ‘boy code’ (Pollak, 1998) and ‘guy code’ (Kimmel, 2008) in the chapter “Education”.

From this perspective, men's health problems have been interpreted as '**costs of masculinity**', as opposed to the **privileges** men gain from the current gender relations, for example higher income and less unpaid work. (See Messner, 2000) However, it has to be noted that these costs and privileges are distributed in a very uneven manner among men.

Good practice examples on different levels and based on different approaches have emerged across Europe. In the following part of this subchapter, these actions and good practice examples will shortly be described.

Box 5.2.2 Good practice examples on the level of laws and national policies

Currently, many different models of tackling men's health are emerging. At the population level we continue to see huge savings in men's lives when effective **road traffic legislation** is in place and enforced. This is noticeable in the new members to the EU, where deaths as a result of accidents are decreasing. This is aided by more rigorous **health and safety measures at the workplace** and also through **smoking bans**. Sweden has been successful in all these areas, with the average life expectancy of men in Sweden now being close to that of women, as a result of lower death rates from accidents and suicide as well as falls in alcohol and tobacco consumption. (See Balkmar, 2011)

Ireland is a good example of a member state having developed their thinking about the benefits of a healthy male population into a full blown **Men's Health Policy**. (See Richardson & Carroll, 2009) Other countries, such as Norway and the UK, are relying on **equality legislation** on the basis that health policy, strategy and practice should meet the needs of both men and women. This requires a careful consideration of how services should differ and, if audited, could be shown to be responsive to the particular requirements of men and women. For example, cardiovascular services have been seen to miss out women (Lockyer & Bury, 2002) and weight loss services seem to miss out men, even though we know that women have high levels of under-diagnosed and under-treated heart problems and more men than women are overweight.

Box 5.2.3 Good practice examples on the level of health service provision

Around Europe, regarding positive examples of where **male focussed services** are emerging, one of the earliest examples was in Vienna in 1999, where a *Men's Health Day* was seen to be a huge success. (See Schmeiser-Rieder, et al., 1999) In 2002, the *M.E.N.* health centre was founded in Vienna, providing comprehensive health services for men in an urban area and closely cooperating with the women's health centre *F.E.M.* Also in Austria, a network of organisations has developed that provide psychosocial counselling for men in difficult situations, such as divorce, custody conflicts, problems at work or social isolation, thus contributing to the **mental health** of men. Most of these organisations provide **gender-reflective work** with boys and male juveniles at schools or youth centres, with workshops and other activities in the fields of relationship, sexuality, male roles, working life and other topics that address men's health in a broad sense. (See Scambor, 2010) Similar work is done in other countries as well, for example Germany or Switzerland.

In the UK, examples are now emerging of where **community services** have been developed with a male focus in mind. One example is the case of the *Bradford Health of Men initiative*, which was a five years funded programme of activity around men's health and saw the development centres for young men, work with schools, health initiatives in the workplace – including health checks and weight loss groups for men and sexual health outreach work. (See Conrad & White, 2007) The *Preston Men's Health Project* took a different approach and worked with existing services to develop initiatives for disadvantaged groups, such as homeless men. (Kierans, Robertson & Mair, 2007) In Scotland a large project was undertaken by the Scottish Assembly who invested £ 4 million to develop male services, mostly as a result of the success of the Camelon Centre, which offered health assessments to local men and offered services to those who attended the centre. (Leishman & Dalziel, 2003; Leishman, 2007)

Concerning **fathers' issues** and the work on **postnatal depression with men** (a disorder related to becoming a parent, not restricted to any sex; approximately 7% of new fathers suffer from it; see EC,

2011a; Madsen, 2007) promising developments can be found in Denmark: Madsen and Burgess (2010) have described how men with postnatal depression can be identified by health professionals in clinics as well as the specific aspects in psychotherapeutic work with these fathers.

Web-based services are also now being developed to reach out to boys and young men. One of the most successful of these in the UK is the *Campaign Against Living Miserably* (CALM) whose posters and websites use messaging and imagery that can get serious messages across. (See Powell, 2009)

Box 5.2.4 Lifespan approaches

There is also recognition that different approaches concerning **lifespan** are required that can reach out to boys, young men, adults and older men. Engaging **boys** early in their lives with effective health messaging can help to enable them to a better management of their physical and emotional health. Skilling boys to be more caring for their health may also improve their early help-seeking behaviour. Examples of work with boys include more effective sex and relationship sessions, helping boys to deal with bullying and providing a design of information that is more appealing to boys.

For **young men** the situation is different according to having work, and those groups who tend to be classified as 'hard to reach' require initiatives that buy into their interests or culture. The *Premier League Health Initiative* is using the power of football to get young male supporters engaged with their physical health. Importantly, the ongoing evaluation shows that 67% of their baseline sample had three or more cardiovascular risk factors, but that 69% of them reported that they had no health problems. (See Pringle, et al., 2011) Other opportunities have been used to reach men through football, these include those aimed at men's mental health, including *Imagine Your Goals* which is run together with the *English Premier League*, and *MIND*, the mental health charity, and *It's a Goal* which is a longer running mental health service using a football setting to attract young men. (See Pringle & Sayers, 2004)

The workplace is another key setting for addressing **adult men's** health. The majority of men are employed full-time and often in vulnerable jobs with no access to flexible working, which has implications for access to health care services that are only available during the day. Much of the current focus is on health and safety at the workplace, but examples are emerging where a more proactive well-being approach has been taken. Examples include teaching self-care skills at the workplace (White, et al., 2009), and running weight loss sessions for men at work. (See Deacon, 2007; Harrison, 2007) A large scale example of health improvement for men includes the Royal Mail in the UK, which invested £ 46 million in health and well-being services for their predominately male workforce and made an estimated £ 227 million in savings by reducing absenteeism from 7% to 5%, along with improved morals and productivity within the workforce. (See Marsden & Moriconi, 2008)

Concerning **older men** and an inter-generational approach, one initiative that originated in Australia and is now spreading is the use of *Community Sheds*. These come in a variety of different forms, but most commonly are buildings with equipment, tools and seating, with the underlying principle of enabling men to engage in physical work in a male setting.

Box 5.2.5 Thematic approaches

Policy initiatives that are also starting to recognise the role of men in **sexual health** are also having beneficial effects. Few countries have a national chlamydia screening programme that involves men, perhaps on the premise that men will not wish to engage in screening. In the UK, following a successful two years research project into how to engage young men with self-testing for chlamydia (Men's Health Forum [MHF], 2005), there was a change made to the *National Chlamydia Screening Programme* in England, and there is now a 35% or higher proportion of males being screened. In numeric terms, there has been an increase from 505 men (9.554 women) screened in 2003 to over 326.800 men (1.7 million women) screened in 2010.¹²³ Similar successes are seen when men are more actively engaged in teenage pregnancy initiatives. (See Blake & Lloyd, 2010)

¹²³ See www.chlamydia-screening.nhs.uk

A good practice example of a health initiative that addresses **boys, girls and their relationships** stems from the area of **HIV-prevention**. In the Austrian province of Styria, workshops were held with male and female pupils at vocational schools about sexuality, HIV and social aspects of HIV/AIDS. As the evaluation of the project showed, boys profited more than girls from the workshops, because boys had started from a lower level of knowledge. In the end, both gender groups were at the same level of knowledge. (See Hutz-Sicher & Scambor, 2005; Hutz-Sicher, Scambor & Wolf, 2005) In such workshops, both genders profit from learning about and discussing sexual relationships, an area where the gender groups are clearly connected to each other. The workshops also deal with topics like homosexuality, thus fostering pupils' positive attitudes towards sexual diversity among men and women.

Recommendations

Increase differentiated knowledge and experience in the field of men's health

Across Europe, still much effort is needed to create a broader knowledge base in the field of men's health and its relation to gender equality. Statistical information and research related to this topic as well as information about experiences in practical work are needed in this respect.

Initiatives at European and national levels should include:

- Integration of an **intersectional approach in men's health statistics** and improved research on men's health in this respect. It is important to recognise that the health status of men (as also that of women) differs and that social, economic as well as environmental factors are key aspects of men's health. Especially the socio-economic position has clearly turned out to be a health determinant that is closely related to men's health (and women's health). As far as research is concerned, data to break down health statistics to a variety of influencing factors are often missing. However, thorough analyses at EU level are necessary to inform meaningful practical developments which are addressing the right populations.

Strengthen the link between men's health and gender equality

Gender relations in European societies, as elsewhere, are generally characterised by structural inequalities that favour men and disadvantage women. However, men's structural privileges (for example in the field of work) come along with disadvantages and 'costs' in other fields like men's health – figuratively as well as literally.

Initiatives at European and national levels should include:

- Support **critical analysis**, which refers to '**costs**' of **inequalities for men's health** and show the impact of men's oppressive social practices on their own health and well-being as well as on women.
- **Promote measures towards gender equality** which **highlight the benefits in regard to improvements of men's health**: for example, gender equality measures aiming at dismantling horizontal segregation on the labour market may also improve the health situation of male employees as workplace accidents have found to be highest in certain segments of the labour market that are male-dominated (for example, construction work). With more women entering these segments on the labour market, the stereotype of a 'real men's work' is questioned. The improvement and acceptance of additional safety measures and reduced levels of 'normal' risk-taking in such segments of work will go hand in hand with reducing the horizontal segregation of the labour market. Such links between men's health and gender equality measures should be elaborated and used in public communication at EU and national level, to promote the acceptance of gender

equality among men, by pointing to the advantages of the measures in terms of improving men's health.

- **Counteract simplistic public communication concerning men's health** to avoid an anti-feminist framing: as the country reports in the context of this project show, the topic of men's health must be handled carefully in terms of public communication. Parts of the public debates throughout various European countries are worryingly framing 'men's health' in an anti-feminist, male entitlement-oriented way, mixing it up with other perceived disadvantages of men in society (such as custody after divorce and boy's underachievement in the schooling system, etc) as a proof of discrimination against men. Policy makers at national level must be aware of that danger and counteract the misuse of the topic of men's health by putting the emphasis on the 'big picture' of gender equality, whilst at the same time not ignoring legitimate claims that men may experience disadvantage and discrimination in various ways.

Address health determinants at all levels to improve men's health

According to the *State of Men's Health in Europe Report*, men's health is linked to equity and is influenced by social and economic determinants. Reducing socio-economic differences, measures towards redistribution of work and care, and working with youngsters towards changes in gender identities will increase men's health in the **long run**.

In the **short-run** tailored **approaches and projects** are important to tackle immediate health problems, for example through health care or the improvement of service provision. Additionally to tailored approaches a comprehensive approach in *Public Health* is still missing, which takes men's health, women's health, gender relations, and social inequality into account simultaneously. Such models should be developed in the long-run.

Short-term initiatives at EU and national levels should include:

- **Tailored approaches addressing men** as a first step to improve men's health, to counter the negative effects of men's health problems upon women and children, to counteract male stereotypes as tough, hard, outgoing and to contribute in this way to a change of the social construction of men. Examples for tailored approaches addressing men are:
 - use male-dominated settings (e.g. football) in order to engage young male supporters with their physical health,
 - focus on the role of men in sexual health (for example screening programmes, educating boys in health issues and sexuality),
 - connect men's health to legislative practices such as effective road traffic legislation, smoking bans, more rigorous health and safety measures in the workplace,
 - increase men's up-take rate of medical services by improving service provisions along their needs and initiate campaigns for specific target groups.

It has sometimes been argued that approaches which reach out to men or try to address men and male youngsters in a way that meets their current lifestyles (for example see above: linking with leisure practices such as football) may result in reinforcing gender stereotypes. The answer is that such approaches are only a first step in reaching out and getting into contact; in the medium and long run, activities will inevitably have to dismantle stereotypes and broaden the attitudinal and behavioural scope of men and male youngsters.

- Improve the **exchange of knowledge and good practice on men's health**. Although each country needs its own tailored measures to improve men's health, learning from good practice examples is recommended. Concrete examples have been given above, and many more are given in the *State of Men's Health in Europe Report*.

- Develop a coherent framework for gender health approaches and **promote an extended understanding of health**. One of the main recommendations from the *State of Men's Health in Europe Report* was that gender equality initiatives should have a positive impact on the way men's needs are taken into account in the context of government health strategies. For without such political pressure it is unlikely that the resources needed for the development of policy, practice and also the necessary research agenda will be realised. As soon as health is understood in a broader (not only medical) sense and the health determinants as formulated in *Public Health* are taken into consideration, many key concepts relevant for the gender equality discourse can be identified: labour market, education system, social and health care systems, social status, living and working conditions, behavioural factors, and others. Addressing such inequalities will have a positive effect, not only on men but on the wider economy and on their families and society as a whole. Men have been seen as the problem, they are also part of the solution!

5.3 Political representation and men's involvement in gender equality

5.3.1 Introduction

Do men lose power and privileges if they support gender equality processes in a proactive way? Do they lose societal advantages when gender systems change and more equal conditions emerge? Empirical research shows how gender equality in organisations is hindered by men (see Höyng & Puchert, 1998) or how gender equality processes are contextualised in a way in which 'gender means women' (Holter, Riesenfeld & Scambor, 2005). The possible loss of privileges may be one of the biggest barriers for men's involvement in equality processes, and it may lead to high pressure towards conformity among men and against men's engagement in gender equality issues. (See Meuser, 2000)

The focus on men regarding gender equality always includes women at the same time. The term gender implies its relational characteristic, and "[...] *patterns of masculinity are socially defined in contradistinction from some model (whether real or imaginary) of femininity [...]*" (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005, p. 848). New configurations of men's or women's identities, new practices and life styles have a specific effect on gender orders and hierarchies. The increase of women's participation (e.g. in work, education, politics, etc) in Western societies in the last decades can be taken as an example. Consequently, the role of men is changing too, and special attention should be put on proactive processes as well as pitfalls, as gender relations are continuously "*arenas of tension(s)*" (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005, p. 848). These 'arenas' shape the aspects and arguments for the involvement of men in gender equality processes.

At a glance

- Across Europe, institutionalised policy is predominantly managed by men. Consequently quota systems have been implemented in some countries in order to foster an equal representation of women and men in politics.
- In comparison to former equality strategies, gender mainstreaming has given way to the involvement of both, women and men, in order to reach gender equality in all policy fields. Nevertheless, men and issues connected to men's lives have often been neglected and gender mainstreaming has very often been a synonym of strategies which mainly concerned women issues.

- Men's involvement in gender equality strategies predominantly appears in countries
 - with a longer tradition of gender equality approaches,
 - in which an advanced institutionalisation of gender mainstreaming is reported.
- Especially Northern and Central European countries show different possibilities of institutionalised men's politics (governmental committees or working groups, special departments in ministries, advisory boards or panels as well as informal counselling structures, networks and forums).
- In recent years, an explicit focus on and naming of 'men' in gender equality policy has become obvious. The most relevant issues addressed are the involvement of men in care activities, health and violence (for example in research, media discourse and social campaigns).
- Men's initiatives have increasingly emerged all over Europe in the past decade. These initiatives are characterised by different approaches:
 - The 'balanced' approach focuses on dismantling men's privileges while, at the same time, tries to minimise costs of masculinity without neglecting diversity among men.
 - The 'unbalanced' approach focuses on costs/disadvantages, while privileges and differences between men are ignored.
- A critical reflection on the gender approach is recommended, in order to avoid an unbalanced approach (anti-feminist discussions and a one-sided focus on men as victims) in gender equality. Therefore, a close connection between evidence based research results and policy development should be fostered.

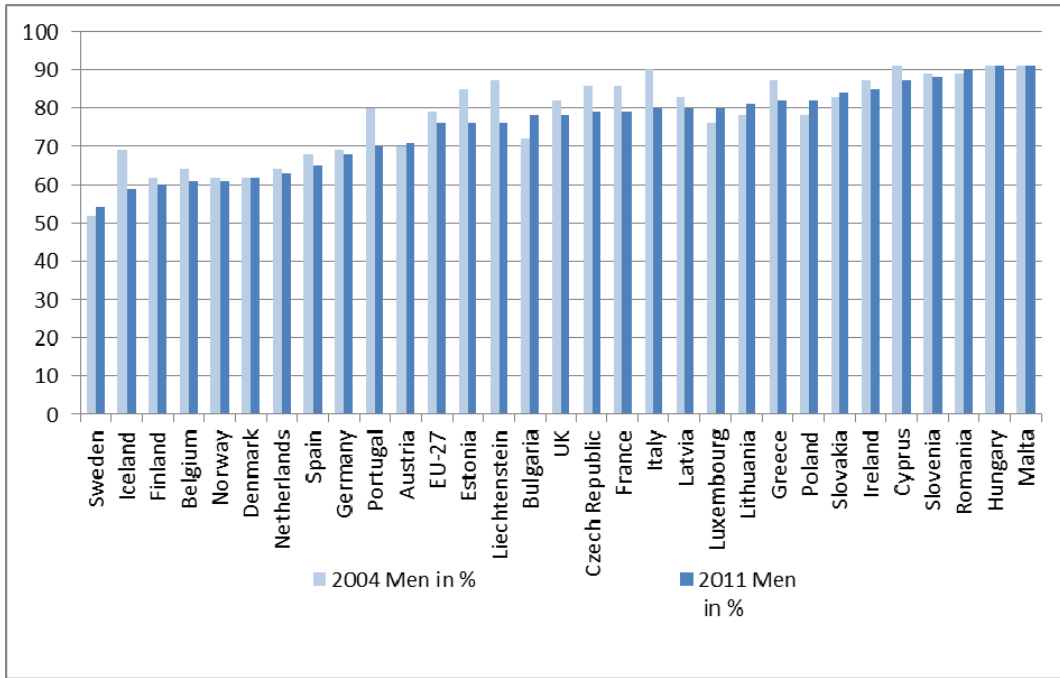
This subchapter focuses on men's involvement in gender equality policies and political representation of men. Men do not just seem to have become more interested in gender equality in recent years; men are increasingly addressed and named in the process of gender equality policy development. Therefore, an overview of institutionalised practices, men's involvement in gender equality strategies, like gender mainstreaming, and on policies of masculinities in Europe – between privileges, costs and differences – is provided in the following part of the report. Important conditions for developing policies on men and gender equality are discussed. The discussion centres on the process of framing and understanding gender in the political context and outlines good practices examples and initiatives. Recommendations, given in the final part of this subchapter, based on the study results – mainly addressing the EU but also national and regional authorities – take these principles into account, and also the differences between the European countries on their way towards gender equality.

5.3.2 Basic results and analysis

5.3.2.1 Political representation and quota systems

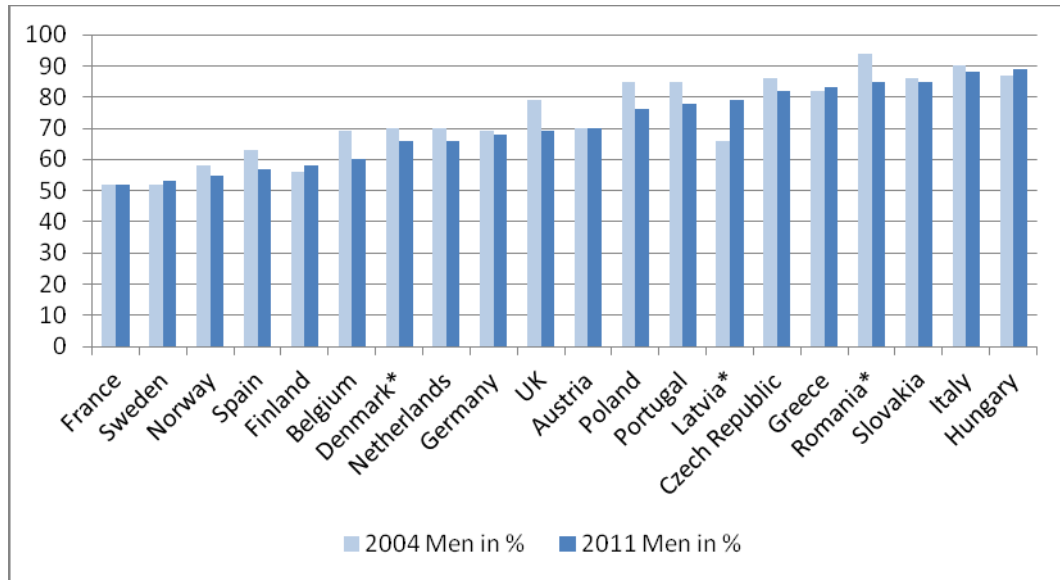
Referring to various data, privileges of men can be found in many fields throughout many countries. As an example for privileges, data on **political representation** are given below (figure 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 below; annex 5.3.1 and 5.3.2). In all countries, **men's proportions are higher than women's**. Although slight changes can be noted in most countries, political representation is still far from being gender equal (with exceptions mainly in the Nordic region, but also France, Spain and Belgium).

Figure 5.3.1 Male members of parliament (%) single/lower house and upper house, 2004 and 2011



Source: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making; extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011

Figure 5.3.2 Male members of representative assemblies of regional authorities that are endowed with self-government (%), 2004* and 2011



Source: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making; extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011; * Definition: Representative assemblies of regional authorities that are endowed with self-government. Regional authorities are territorial authorities between the central government and local authorities but this does not necessarily imply a hierarchical relationship between regional and local authorities; regional authorities are not existing in all countries, therefore some countries are missing; ** Denmark and Romania: figures 2003; Latvia: figures 2007

Country reports show that many countries holding a more favourable position concerning gender parity have established different **quota systems** to support a more equal representation of women and men.

Box 5.3.1 – Examples of quota systems

Belgium

In 1994, the Parliament passed a bill prohibiting political parties to include more than two-thirds of the members of the same sex in their electoral lists. The use of a quota system has emerged as the most effective way to balance the participation of men and women in political life in Belgium. However, it is obviously dedicated to an increased participation of women. Article 11bis of the Constitution provides that within any public executive authority not all members may be of the same sex. Electoral legislation (at federal and local levels) provides that parity of sexes must be assured for all lists of candidates; moreover, as the whole electoral system is proportional, the first two candidates on every list must be of different sexes. (See Wuiame, 2011)

Germany

The political parties have different voluntary regulations. The *Green Party* was the first one to establish a quota in 1979. A minimum of 50% of party functions shall be held by women. The *Left Party* also introduced a 50% quota; the *Social Democrats* have a 40% quota. The *Christian Democrats* have a 'quorum' for a third of all party functions. (See Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

Greece

Law 2910/2001 stipulates the participation of 1/3 of each gender on electoral lists for local and regional governments (Municipal and Prefectural elections). Act 3636/2008: quota for candidates for national elections. This provision requires that every party will present a number of candidates of each sex which corresponds to one third of the total number of its candidates in the country. The new law was applied for the first time in the October 2009 elections. (See Alipranti-Maratou, 2011)

Poland

In 2011 gender quotas on local parliament, Polish parliament, European Parliament and electoral lists have been implemented. The electoral list of each party or the electoral committee must include at least 35% of each gender representatives. (See Wojnicka, 2011)

Norway

The parliament representation is beneath the rule of at least 40% women. 38.5% of all the representatives in parliament are women. (See Holter & Blindheim-Andersen, 2011)

5.3.2.2 Men's involvement in gender equality strategies

Gender mainstreaming has been implemented by the *Council of Europe* in order to "reach the goal of gender equality". (Directorate General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, 2009, p. 1) In contrast to former equality politics with their focus on inequality on the labour market and the promotion of women, **gender mainstreaming explicitly includes women and men**, embracing all kinds of policy fields.

"Gender mainstreaming (...) means assessing how policies impact on the life and position of both women and men – and taking responsibility to re-address them if necessary. This is the way to make gender equality a concrete reality in the lives of women and men creating space for everyone within the organisations as well as in communities – to contribute to the process of articulating a shared vision of sustainable human development and translating it into reality." (European Commission, n.d.)

The actual **implementation of gender mainstreaming varies between countries**. A recent report (see European Commission, 2012) has identified four groups of countries in this respect, which corresponds very well to the evaluation of the country reports in this project:

- Countries which are in the first phase of gender mainstreaming implementation, mainly consisting of 'new member' states (including the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia, Es-

tonia, Lithuania, but also Malta and Cyprus), have started to implement gender mainstreaming in strict relation with EU equal treatment directives and have little infrastructure for the implementation of gender mainstreaming. The integration of gender equality issues in the context of national policies is mainly associated with EU membership.

- Similarities to this first group can be found in the second group, mostly consisting of Southern European countries such as Italy, Greece, Portugal and Spain, but also Ireland. In these cases the *EU Structural Funds* constituted the driving force to start implementing gender mainstreaming. Equality legislation started in a limited number of policy fields and is mainly 'confined' to labour market issues.
- A third group of Central European countries, for example Austria, Germany, France and the UK to some extent is characterised by a rather early institutionalised approach to gender mainstreaming. However, gender mainstreaming seems to require further implementation now and a new impetus to build on efforts made in the past.
- The fourth group consists of the Northern European countries. This group is characterised by a strong and long history of approaching gender equality and introducing gender mainstreaming, supported by strong institutionalisation and dedicated commitment.

An evaluation of the country reports illustrates that most scientific experts stressed the fact that gender mainstreaming and/or gender equality strategies are **contextualised mainly as 'women's issues'** in their respective countries (in accordance with research conducted, for example, by Hearn, 2001; Holter, 2003; Scambor & Scambor, 2008).

Although the concept of gender mainstreaming actively emphasises the involvement of 'both genders', **men have often been neglected**:

- Most evidence for institutionalised men's involvement can be found in the Nordic countries and some Central European countries, like Austria or Germany – **countries with a longer tradition of gender equality approaches** and/or a stronger institutionalisation of the gender equality machinery (countries belonging to the above-mentioned more 'advanced' country groups regarding gender equality).
- Another important factor, which is derived from analysing the country reports, is the fact that gender equality must be **actively supported by governmental policy (top-down)** and not only carried out by NGOs (bottom-up). Also a certain degree of established gender equality institutions at regional levels has been observed.
- Additionally, men's institutionalised involvement in gender equality strategies – in a proactive and pro-feminist sense – seems to be linked to a **specific stage of gender equality development**. A certain belief in the necessity of gender equality in society seems to be an important prerequisite, as it is the case in the Northern European countries, or, as Holmgren and Hearn (2009) put it: "[...] a qualified consensus on the value of gender equality as a political goal and general norm, which tends to generate a broadly positive place for men in and around feminism."(p. 404)

Institutionalisation of men's politics

It is therefore no coincidence that countries which conduct certain types of institutionalised policy concerning men's involvement in gender equality strategies can be found amongst the group of Northern and Central European countries. The country reports show different possibilities of how institutionalised men's politics are structured:

- **governmental committees**, such as *Men's Subcommittee* as a part of the national, governmental gender equality machinery in Finland, *Men's Committee* as a part of the *Council for Gender Equality* in Iceland (1994-2000 and starting once again in 2011) or the

Working Group on Men's Equality as a part of the *Government Council for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men* in the Czech Republic;

- **special (sub-)departments in ministries** like the *Department for Men's Politics* in Austria;
- **boards** appointed by governments like the *Panel of Men* in Denmark as kinds of governmental advisory boards;
- **informal counselling structures** like the *Gender Dialogue* in Switzerland as regular but informal meetings of women's and men's organisations or like the *Federal Gender Equality Office* and the *Federal Forum of Men* in Germany which were established as an official contact of the federal government. (See Fuchs, 2011; Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011; Gislason, 2011; Nielsen, 2011; Niemi, 2011; Scambor & Scambor, 2011; Smidova, 2011; for a more detailed description of the examples see box 5.3.2 below and annex 5.3.3).

Some national experts point to the **regional level**, where some possibilities of institutionalising men's involvement in gender equality strategies could also be found: Abril Morales and Romero (2011) have mentioned regional institutional programmes (*Men for Equality*) in the Basque country and in a city in Andalusia (Jerez), Spain.

In addition to the examples, involving men in gender equality strategies is strongly linked to carrying out **single projects** supported by EU funds, governmental and/or regional authorities, but not with a 'mainstreaming' approach (many examples of different projects are integrated in the report in the different sub-chapters, like *Boys' Day*, health programmes for men, etc).

All in all, the **inclusion of men's perspectives in gender equality discourses and structures is quite limited** until now and is often connected to only a handful of dedicated men (who might be called pioneers' in this respect) rather than the necessary change of structures, as many national experts stressed when evaluating the situation in their countries.

Concerning the topics addressed, it is obvious that in recent years attention has been paid to the focus on men and gender equality policy. This is not new, as policies related to men have already been stated in the past. "So what is newer is the **explicit naming of men as men in policy development, whether in relation to gender equality or more generally.**" (Hearn, 2006, p. 25) National experts have provided some evidence of how men are successfully addressed in the gender equality discourse. The most relevant topic, raised by nearly all experts, seems to be the involvement of **men in child care activities, paternity leave or 'active' fatherhood**. As one expert has put it "the 'nice' and 'classy' things are much easier to promote." (Smidova, 2011) Two other relevant issues that have been brought up by many experts are **health and violence**.

Box 5.3.2 – Examples of institutionalised men's politics

Czech Republic

In 2010 the Czech Republic launched a working group on *Men and Gender Equality* as part of the *Government Council for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men*. The group includes representatives from the public administration sector, NGOs and academia, invited to participate in the working group. (See Šmídová, 2011; Zachariasova, 2011)

Denmark

Early in 2011 the *Danish Minister of Equality Opportunities* formed a *Panel of Men*. The panel consists of 19 men from top Danish businesses and universities. Their goal is to add new perspectives and solutions to the gender equality debate. (See Nielsen, 2011)

Finland

Finland has a long tradition of men's involvement in state and governmental gender policy development. A 'historical point' can be seen in the commissioning of the first *Subcommittee on Men's Issues* by the *Council for Gender Equality* in 1988. The Council is an advisory body which makes suggestions to politicians and raises issues.

Since the Subcommittee was established (in 1988) it has looked at the relationship of men and gender equality in almost all the typical fields of interest (fatherhood, violence, divorced men, etc). One of the most important impacts of the *Subcommittee on Men's Issues* has been its lengthy (24 years) and successful struggle for paternity leave quotas. Men are involved in close historical connection to gender politics. The specific form of Nordic 'social democratic' welfare politics emphasises 'gender neutrality' (developed in Finland).

The coalition¹²⁴ government's *Governmental Programme for 2003–2007* stated that "[...] *gender equality issues will also be assessed from the male point of view*". This resulted in the inclusion of a men and gender equality section in the government's gender equality programme, and it became one of the priorities during Finland's EU presidency, including a European expert policy conference on men and gender equality. (See Hearn & Pringle, 2006; Niemi, 2011; Varanka, 2012; Varanka, Närhinen & Siukola, 2006)

Men's involvement in gender equality strategies, especially in gender mainstreaming, has also been discussed quite critically.

The Australian expert Pease refers to one of the main dangers when he reflects about the situation in his country. Gender mainstreaming and the discussion about gender equality in Australia has led to an unintended consequence, as it has opened up a **place for anti-feminist discussions** where **men describe themselves as victims** on issues of family laws and child custody. In this sense, the equality strategy has helped to frame and construct a scenario of disadvantaged men. Furthermore it has legitimated the existence of men's rights and anti-feminist men's groups. (See Pease, 2012) Why did this happen? According to Pease, it has probably to do with the way in which gender was framed and understood by government policy in the Australian context, namely within certain terms in traditional sex role theory. Sometimes gender mainstreaming was used synonymously with sex differences. A close **connection between the critical studies of men and masculinities and policies** was neglected. A process of **transforming critical theory into practice** on the level of programmes and interventions would be helpful in order to avoid these unintended consequences. Similar trends like Pease outlines for Australia appear in some European countries as well. Therefore a **critical reflection on the underlying gender approach** and on the connection between research and policy is recommended.

Focussing on men within gender equality strategies might include the danger that **resources** actually designated for promoting women's interests are **re-allocated to promote men's interests** (see Scambor & Scambor, 2008; Pease, 2006) instead of providing additional funding. In the beginning of the gender mainstreaming process, especially stakeholders in women's institutions argued that resources should be exclusively used for women's promotion and were worried about men being involved in gender equality processes. Therefore men were left out – however, with big differences between European countries.

5.3.2.3 Politics of masculinities - privileges, costs and differences

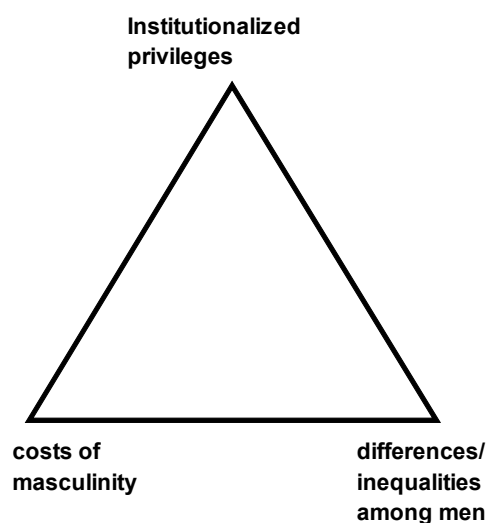
Men and women are in relation to each other in all societies, still with structural advantages on the men's side, although developments and changes can be observed. To adequately address gender related disparities, to include men in gender equality policies, and to find

¹²⁴ After the parliamentary election in 2003, a coalition government was formed of the *Social Democratic Party*, the *Centre Party* and the *Swedish People's Party* (a minor coalition partner).

good ways of public communication regarding men and gender equality, an appropriate **framing** of facts, figures and messages to the public is needed. A model that can be used for this purpose is outlined below. (See Holmgren & Hearn, 2009)

In order to **classify and assess men's groups and initiatives** in the United States, Messner (2000) proposed a model consisting of a triangle with the corner points of **'tackling men's privileges'**, **'the negative sides/costs of masculinity'** and **'differences among men'**. Men's organisations, their positions and arguments can be located within this model, depending on their orientation, mission statements and activities. Progressive men's politics have to take all three aspects into account, in order to develop constructive arguments and to foster coalition building with other political forces.

Figure 5.3.3 Triangle model: Terrain of the politics of masculinities (Messner, 2000)



Source: Messner (2000, p. 12)

Holmgren and Hearn (2009) have used this model “[...] for locating men's diverse gender-conscious positionings in gender debates” (p. 404). Men's organisations and initiatives laid more or less emphasis on each of the three aspects, and Messner has located US groups in this model, according to their positions. In the same way, the three aspects of classification can also serve as a structure for systematising men's groups and movements in Europe:

First, a **'balanced' approach** would be located in the middle of the triangle. Therefore, all three aspects are important for the discourse. 'Balanced' organisations try to dismantle (at least some of) men's privileges and act for gender equality, as much as they are trying to minimise the costs of masculinity (for example concerning health). In general, they are aware of the fact that men are not a homogenous social group. Relations between costs and privileges show big varieties, due to differences between men (health conditions are strongly influenced by social class and education). Consequently, bodies with balanced approaches are more keen to dialogue with political actors (or discourses) representing different perspectives. Therefore connections and alliances between these actors are possible. In this view, the majority of men may be interested in changing existing gender systems and stereotypes which are based on inequality and dominating masculinity concepts.

Second, the **'unbalanced' approach** emphasises only one aspect of the triangle: costs/disadvantages are centred upon, while privileges and differences/inequalities are ignored. In these kinds of public discourses or organisational approaches various actual prob-

lems are combined to prove that men are discriminated in general and that women are over-privileged. Fathers' rights groups in various countries are interesting examples of this type of approach, as the majority of these groups focus on discrimination against men, neglect privileges and diversity among men and can be considered as anti-feminist groups.¹²⁵ However, it has to be underlined that there are also fathers' rights initiatives which, instead of men's disadvantages, focus on children's rights and sometimes gender equality. As a consequence, child custody is a terrain of conflict, political struggle and public debate in many countries.

Messner (2000) pointed out that balanced approaches usually lead to **complex debates about privileges, costs and differences of men in societies**. It is a big challenge to develop coherent gender equality strategies under these conditions.

International and national networks on men and men's groups in Europe

International networks

Europe is an active terrain of men's groups and organisations, with a more or less strong focus on gender equality and men's issues. Among **international network initiatives**, a balanced and pro-feminist approach seems to be rather meaningful. „*Since the early 1970s there have been in various Western countries anti-sexist men and pro-feminist men followed in the 1980s, by the media creation of 'new men'.*” (Hearn & Pringle, 2006, p. 4) In the majority of EU countries, national groups have been or still are parts of **global alliances and networks**, such as the *European Men Profeminist Network (EuroPRO-Fem)*¹²⁶ and *MenEngage*, in the context of which a meeting with representatives from 25 European countries was organised in 2009. The aim of the meeting was “[...] to take forward the initial development and formal formation process of *MenEngage Europe*”.¹²⁷ Apart from the mentioned networks, many European organisations and initiatives are engaged in conducting the *White Ribbon Campaign*, which is a **global initiative** founded by men willing to combat violence against women. From the side of research and academic institutions, Europe is also a terrain of scholars who organise themselves in research networks focussing on men's and masculinities issues and studies. One example of this is *CROME: Critical research on men in Europe*.

Box 5.3.3 – Examples of international pro-feminist networks

MenEngage

MenEngage is a global network of NGOs and UN agencies. Its main goal is to promote gender equality and activism connected to the issue of men and boys. The alliance was founded in 2004 and since then has been actively operating in every region of the world. *MenEngage* has an International Steering Committee which “includes Sonke Gender Justice Network, Promundo, EngenderHealth, Family Violence Prevention Fund, International Center for Research on Women, International Planned Parenthood Federation, Men's Resources International (United States), Salud y Género (Mexico), Save the Children-Sweden, Sahoyog, White Ribbon Campaign, WHO, UNDP, UNFPA and UNIFEM. At the national level, members include more than 400 NGOs from Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, North America, Asia and Europe.”¹²⁸

¹²⁵ Some of the fathers' rights groups generalise personally difficult situations and argue that feminism had gone too far, resulting in structural disadvantages for men in general. (See Šmídová, 2011; Wojnicka, 2011)

¹²⁶ The project was founded in 1998 by the EU and for several years was one of the most active networks for promoting gender equality among men. For some years now the activity of *EuroPRO-Fem* has stopped (<http://www.europrofem.org/>).

¹²⁷ <http://www.menengage.org>

¹²⁸ http://www.menengage.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=7&Itemid=8

White Ribbon Campaign (WRC)

The WRC is one of the most recognisable global initiatives of men, initiating men's action to stop violence against women. The campaign was initiated in Canada in 1991 and within years has spread over 55 countries. Today the campaign is led both by men and women, NGOs and informal groups as well as official governmental bodies. The aim of the campaign has been described by Michael Kaufman, who was one of its initiators: "*We decided we have a responsibility to organise men to speak out against violence against women.*" (2001, p. 46) The main goal of the network is to stop any kind of violence against women. Members of the network educate young men and boys and try to raise public awareness of the problem. The campaign is conducted in cooperation with women's movements, the corporate sector, the media and social partners who are interested in making an end to violence against women.¹²⁹

CROME: Critical research on men in Europe

CROME, a research network "*of women and men researchers who are researching on men and masculinities in an explicitly gendered way*"¹³⁰ was established in 2002 and brought together researchers from different European countries, such as Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Norway, Poland, Russian Federation, Spain, Sweden and the UK. The idea of its founders was to act as a resource of data and other information about critical research, documents and literature about men and masculinities as well as to develop theoretical and empirical outcomes on men. It is worth underlining that "*(t)he CROME website was established with funding from the EU Framework 5 project 'The Social Problem of Men'. Thereafter it has been supported by other funding, especially Academy of Finland and EU Framework 6 Coordination Action on Human Rights Violations (CAHRV).*"

National networks and men's groups – rather balanced approach

International networks on men mainly consist of national groups and organisations with more or less integrate privileges, costs and differences among men in their argumentation line towards gender equality. **Initiatives on men and masculinity exist in the majority of EU member states and EFTA states.** Their specific nature, as mentioned below, can be outlined and divided into a balanced approach or an unbalanced approach. As already underlined, some of these initiatives cooperate with each other on international level, some others act only in their local or regional surroundings. Among them one can find foundations, associations and informal groups, as well as networks and umbrella alliances dedicated to widely understand men's issues. It should not go unmentioned that groups and networks with a balanced approach to gender equality, very often connected to pro-feminist views and cooperating with the women's movement, are mostly visible in countries which can be called 'old' EU member states¹³¹.

Box 5.3.4 – Examples of national groups and networks¹³²**Austria**

AMOE – *Working platform of Men's Counselling Centres and Men's Centres in Austria* is a non-formal umbrella organisation. From the AMOE-perspective, it is important to have a field-wide network of centres that offer counselling, personal development/education and contact/communication. AMOE sees work with/for men as '*active emancipatory work with/for men [that] wants to realise comprehen-*

¹²⁹ http://www.whiteribbon.ca/about_us/#1

¹³⁰ <http://www.cromenet.org/>

¹³¹ Countries that have joined the European Union before 2004.

¹³² Find more examples of national groups and networks in annex 5.3.4

sive masculinities in the fields of family and partnership, work and profession, sexuality, health and spirituality. Work with/for men should be driven by acknowledgement and respect for male features and should not focus on the deficits but the resources and abilities of men.¹³³ AMOE rejects any form of violence and pays special attention to men taking over responsibility for their behaviour and sharing power with women. The socio-political approach of working on men's issues is committed to mutual respect among men and women and aims at gender justice and gender democracy in all fields of life (professional positions, income, family work). (See Scambor & Scambor, 2011)

Germany

Men have shown increasing activity in gender equality policies in the past decades. Several men's groups and initiatives have emerged from the 1980s following the 2nd wave of the women's movement. One of them, *AK Kritische Männerforschung* (Task Group for Critical Men's Studies), started in 1994 with irregular publications and symposia. From 1989 on, *Switchboard* was established as a quarterly journal on men and boys work. Father and care networks, as well as the *FORUM Männer in Theorie und Praxis der Geschlechterverhältnisse* [FORUM men in theory and practice on gender relations] are dedicated to a gender democracy and equality approach. A federal association of men, *Bundesforum Männer*, is currently being founded in close relation to the new *Department on Gender Equality Policy for Boys and Men* at the *Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth*. *Bundesforum Männer* concentrates on issues of boys, men and fathers, based on gender equality as a basic principle of work. It pays attention to gender related discrimination and supports the development of diversity according to gender and other social belongings. A constructive dialogue between men and women is addressed. (See Gärtner, Rieske & Puchert, 2011)

Italy

There are groups of men who are open to dialogue and critical thinking on the complexity, richness, and even the contradictory aspects that mark men's gender identities. We should think, for example, of associations and groups like *Maschile Plurale* (Plural Masculinities) in Rome; *Il Gruppo Uomini in Cammino* (Group Men on the way) in Pinerolo; *Il Cerchio degli Uomini* (Men's Circle) in Turin; the *Gruppo Uomini* (Men's Group) in Verona, Viareggio, and Bologna; and *Uomini in Gioco* (Men put to the test) in Bari. These are associations that have made a critical re-examination of historical experience and models of male identity. The development of a dialogue with women, with the women's movement, and with the thought and practices of feminism have been decisive elements of these efforts. (See Ruspini, 2011)

On the other hand, in **new EU member states** such as Bulgaria, Poland or Romania **men interested in activism for gender equality are often engaged in women's movement activities**, due to a lack of pro-feminist men's organisations, for example in Romania: "*At the NGO level [...] there are more pro-feminist and/or gender sensitive men joining the organisations for women's rights and gender equality, their programmes and projects. Probably the best current examples are A.L.E.G from Sibiu and FILIA from Bucharest, where several men are constantly and actively supporting the initiatives by these organisations; there are also other NGOs modestly encouraging men's involvement in gender equality, such as Equal Opportunities for Women Foundation and PRO Women Foundation.*" (Anemtoaipei, 2011) Occasionally, the work of the feminist movement in certain Post-socialist countries is supported by members of a few pro-equality groups of men, such as the Czech *League of Open Men*¹³⁴ or the Polish informal group *Mężczyźni na rzecz równości* (*Men for Equality*). (Wojnicka, 2011a; Wojnicka & Struzik, 2011)

¹³³ http://www.maennerwelten.at/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=53&Itemid=64

¹³⁴ <http://web.ilom.cz/the-league-of-open-men.html>

National networks and men's groups - between a balanced and unbalanced approach

As the existence of men's groups with a pro-feminist, balanced approach is typical for 'old' EU member states, in new member states fathers' rights movements seem to be more prominent.¹³⁵ Among many Post-socialist countries with a lack of pro-feminist movements, two types of fathers' rights initiatives can be found:

- Some groups can be called 'progressive' fathers' movements because of their rather balanced approach to gender equality policy. These groups focus on the idea of promoting men's engagement in family life and a real opening up of the private sphere for men, fighting against gender stereotypes and promoting the idea of shared parenthood.
- Other groups with a rather unbalanced and antifeminist approach focus on divorced fathers and portray them as victims of a policy based gender equality ideology. (See Wojnicka & Struzik, 2011)

Box 5.3.5 – Examples for the range of fathers' rights organisations

Estonia

In 2006, the *Estonian for Fathers Association* was founded 'to fight against ongoing discrimination against fathers who are living separately from their children'.¹³⁶ The association points out that the main emphasis of state policies has been on fathers who are evading paying their alimonies. At the same time there has been no support for fathers who are illegitimately kept separated from their children. Also, the discussions in the forum on the website of this association indicate that alimonies assigned to fathers by courts are not always realistic and fair in relation to the income of a father and may harm the wellbeing of other children that are in his custody. Also, the fathers have brought up the problem of mothers restricting their access to their children. (See Karu, 2011)

Switzerland

Currently three groups of men's NGOs may be distinguished:

1. equality-oriented men's groups, mostly affiliated in the network *Maenner* (www.maenner.ch)
2. divorced fathers in organisations like *Schweizerische Vereinigung für Gemeinsame Elternschaft* (www.gecobi.ch)
3. masculinist groups like the *IG Antifeminismus* (www.antifeminismus.ch)

The *IG Antifeminismus*, with its misogynic rhetoric and fishy, doubtful actions, has been discredited even among great parts of the conservative camp; the president was expelled from the *Swiss People's Party*. *Divorced fathers* – often with despairing personal histories – and *maenner.ch* gained more voice in the political and media discourse. Organisations from these last two groups are reported to have 5000 individual members. (See Fuchs, 2011)

The fact that higher numbers of balanced organisations exist mostly in Northern and Central European countries has been observed by the authors of the *Study Report: The Involvement of Men in Gender Equality in the European Union (2012)*: "The research found that there

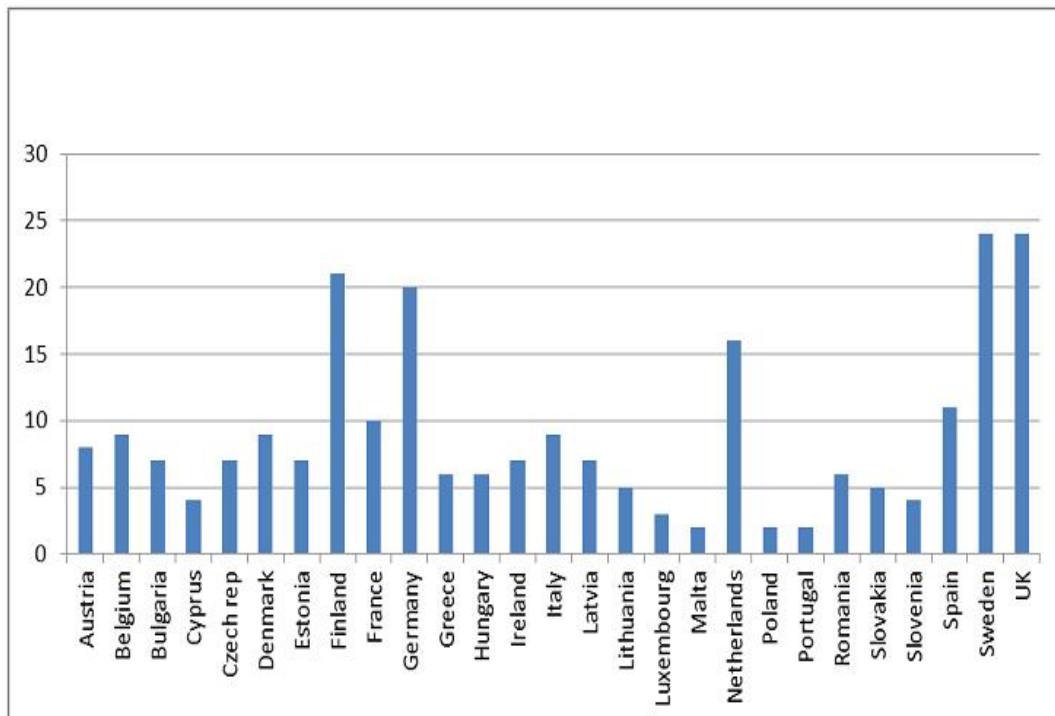
¹³⁵ This statement is not meant to say that in other countries fathers' rights movements do not exist (see annex 5.3.5). Nevertheless, in the 'old' EU countries these groups are part of a quite complex mosaic of men's movements and can be found among many pro-feminist, religious or therapeutic groups off/for men. On the other hand, in the new member states, such as Poland, Estonia, Malta and others, fathers' rights movements seem to dominate, and often these groups are the only ones that can be found. Men engaged in gender equality are rather connected to women's organisations in these countries.

¹³⁶ <http://www.isad.ee/?lang=en>

was some work in this area in all 27 countries. The number of organisations active in different countries varied from 2 to 24. Sweden and the UK had the largest number of organisations (24 each), followed by Finland, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain. The newer Member States tended to have fewer organisations.” (See Ruxton & v.d. Gaag, 2012, p. 21)

It must be considered that the number of such ‘balanced’ organisations in a country is only a rough indicator for the national situation concerning men’s groups. A more meaningful comparison would require e.g. full-time-equivalents in such organisations per million of inhabitants in each country, or similar indicators. However, these numbers are missing. Moreover, the existence or non-existence of certain types of initiatives in various countries does not allow any direct conclusion in terms of the societies as more pro- or anti-feminist in general. The difference is how men who are promoting gender equality are organised – either affiliated to women’s groups, as the Romanian example above shows – or in ‘balanced’ organisations.

Figure 5.3.4 Organisations working on gender equality, absolute numbers, 2012



Source: Ruxton & v.d. Gaag, 2012, p.22

5.3.3 Conclusions and recommendations

In nearly all countries **men’s share in decision-making bodies** exceeds that of women. Although slight changes can be noted in some countries, political representation is still far from being gender equal. Many of those countries holding a more favourable position concerning gender parity have established different **quota systems** to support a more equal representation of women and men.

Looking at the different European countries, **men’s pro-active and pro-feminist involvement** in gender equality policy is strongly **connected with the countries’ overall advancement in gender equality policies and practices**. This holds for men’s movements as well as for the institutionalised involvement of men in gender equality policy. Most examples

of pro-feminist men's movements, men's committees, advisory boards and similar institutions can be found in Northern and in some Central European countries, although with some remarkable exceptions (like the Czech Republic and Spain).

In many Southern and Post-socialist countries, **men's involvement in institutionalised politics as well as in men's NGO movements is rather limited**. Men who are interested in activism for gender equality are often engaged in women's movements, due to a lack of pro-feminist men's organisations and men are organised according to rather specific topics (like fathers' rights), which is connected to the risk of counteracting feminist visions of gender equality. Taking these national differences into account is crucial when reflecting on men's involvement in gender equality and how to strengthen it.

Europe-wide equality strategies like **gender mainstreaming** can be observed as an opportunity for strengthening men's involvement in gender equality. Gender mainstreaming seems to have created an initial awareness of the issue of men in gender equality, an opening of the debate and the establishment of some pathways towards institutional practice. Even when in most countries gender mainstreaming has been contextualised as a 'women's issue' and often remains only a formal top-down approach with little infrastructure or practical outcome, it provides an opportunity for advancement.

As it has been pointed out, involving men in gender mainstreaming and gender equality strategies bears the risk that gender is framed in terms of traditional sex role theory, mainly reflecting topics where men seem to be disadvantaged, like custody, education or health, opening up for anti-feminist discussions. Speaking of men's involvement in gender equality by only stressing men's disadvantages will lead to very simple and misleading assumptions. Progressive men's policies may tackle 'men's privileges', 'costs of masculinity' and 'differences among men' at the same time, in order to develop a **balanced approach to men and gender equality**. Therefore, unmasking men's privileges, focussing on relations in the gender system instead of focussing solely on men and recognising social divisions among men are important aspects of a balanced gender equality approach.

The following recommendations – mainly addressing the EU but also national and regional authorities – take these principles into account, and also the differences between the European countries on their way towards gender equality.

Recommendations

Develop a balanced and coherent 'men and gender equality' policy embedded in gender equality policy at both national and EU levels

Currently the topic men and gender equality is discussed on a rather fragmented base. Sometimes it is stressed that also 'men' play an important role on the road to gender equality (for example taking over care responsibilities), but a systematic approach is missing (what the current situation looks like; what goals should be reached in different fields, etc).

Initiatives at European and national levels should include:

- **men's involvement in gender equality along existing gender equality policies and strategies,**
- goals which are appropriate for both genders as well as the introduction of measures to realize these goals in a systematic way.

Support men's involvement in existing gender equality strategies on an institutionalised basis

Taking into account the different roads to gender equality in the various European countries, it is difficult to find a single approach towards a better institutionalisation of men's involvement in gender equality policy which fits for all countries.

Initiatives at European and national levels should include:

- Reflect on the possibility of **permanent governmental structures on men and gender equality** through
 - committees or subcommittees, especially in countries where gender equality is relatively advanced,
 - discussion forums including critical scientists, NGOs, politicians and important stakeholders.

Initiate measures for a more balanced gender parity in decision-making bodies

While men's involvement in gender equality policies and strategies is still quite limited, their over-representation in the political sphere is evident for most countries, as indicated also by data on political representation for different decision making bodies. To promote gender equality among men, equal representation of the genders in the political sphere is necessary as a signal and model of a new gender arrangement.

Initiatives at European, national and regional levels should include:

- establish **quota systems to support a more equal representation of women and men**: the implementation of national and regional quota systems for the electoral system (e.g. the nomination and appointment of candidates) is crucial, as there seems to be a correlation between gender parity and quota systems,
- organise awareness raising programmes,
- support mentoring programmes to promote female politicians.

Strengthen the exchange of critical studies on men, masculinities and policies

Involving critical scholarship to inform and shape the concept and understanding of gender in government policy is essential in order to avoid simplifications about men and women as homogenous groups. Therefore a close connection between critical studies on men and masculinities, gender studies and policies is crucial.

Initiatives at European, national and regional levels should include:

- **Institutionalisation of an exchange** between the political level being responsible for developing and implementing gender equality strategies with researchers and practitioners on gender and masculinity studies/policies, through
 - the establishment of a regular expert forum and/or
 - an advisory board for top politicians.

Conduct more complex analysis of topics on men and masculinities

A focus on men's issues in the context of gender equality discourses should be based on the analysis of unequal power relations in the gender system. Analysing power relations means that research should focus on specific groups of men instead of generally focussing on men as a homogenous group. Furthermore, the topics should be more precise (for example a

special focus should be put on men-to-men violence among young men). Gender equality strategies need complex analysis to find appropriate policy conclusions.

Initiatives at European, national and regional levels should include:

- **support of intersectional research and complex analysis** on men and women in connection with gender equality strategies, topics and policies,
- **improved European-wide data sources** in regard to making them easily accessible for conducting intersectional analysis.

6 Conclusion

6.1 Men and gender equality: a crucial connection

One of the main conclusions of the study at hand is the message that men need gender equality and that gender equality needs men, as there cannot be full gender equality without the commitment of both genders.

Why do policies for **gender equality need men**?

- The gender system is relational and interdependent. Women across European countries are increasingly entering labour markets and participating in jobs and career positions that were traditionally perceived as men's jobs and positions. This affects men; for example, when power is becoming shared, as more women enter higher positions.
- Men are also important social actors in daily life, as colleagues, leaders, partners – they can either prevent women from achieving equality or they can accept and promote this development.

At the same time, **men need gender equality** as well. This is one of the main topics of our study and the second part of the message given above: the costs of traditional power-based forms of masculinity are not only high for women, not even only for society as a whole, but also for men themselves.

For a long time '**hegemonic masculinity**' – not taken as a fixed characteristic of men but rather as a pattern of masculinity which shapes the hegemonic position (Connell, 2005) – had been framed with concepts of powerful men, potential winners and management masculinity. These concepts were traditionally regarded – and are sometimes still regarded – as 'real manhood'. In reality, only a few men will gain these rare top positions in societies. Although these concepts do not represent the everyday life of the majority of men, they are important because they still represent accepted strategies of male power in societies across Europe. It is well known that being at the "*frontline troops of patriarchy*" (Connell, 2005, p. 79) **brings benefits and privileges as well as disadvantages and costs at the same time.**

Results of the study at hand show that 'both sides of the coin' are closely linked together; men do less unpaid and part-time work, are far better represented in leading positions than women, and earn 16-17% more than women in the EU, on average.

On the other hand, men work longer hours than they want to, are mostly absent from their families, die six years earlier than women, on average and may not find male-specific help if they become victims of violence.

Stress, health risks, lack of friendship and reduced family relationships are often effects of men's orientation towards their jobs, towards public life and autonomy. Often the high costs of these privileges are overlooked. Therefore, other forms of 'being a man' are increasingly becoming important – not only for women and for society but also for men themselves.

6.2 Caring masculinities

The notion of '**caring masculinities**' can serve as a basis for common grounds, both a **vision and a target** at the same time. Nancy Fraser's (1996) model of gender equality, in which care is a human norm which applies to both men and women, corresponds to this notion. Caring, then, is not a female task anymore but the basis for social and economic coop-

eration. The **concept of 'care' has to be widened** in order to meet the needs and requirements of complex social realities and to avoid essentialist perspectives. However, care is addressed only in terms of the division of paid and unpaid labour today, with a focus on childcare. But men are not just fathers, and care should not be limited solely to childcare tasks (like feeding babies, putting them to bed, helping children with their homework). Care encompasses more: emotional support, showing affection, and is a deeper kind of attention to children's needs and the needs of others, such as friends, the elderly, neighbours, work colleagues and family members.

In policies, 'care' has always been closely linked to 'labour', which means that especially those caring activities that are an obstacle for the participation of women in the paid economy are in the spotlight. That is probably why **most data on gendered care division are about caring for children** in heterosexual families. Research on the gender gap in caring mainly represents the gap between the mother and the father. But there are other types of households apart from the traditional heterosexual households with children: single, single parent, sets of childless adults or households with children who are older than 14 years and are not in need for extensive care anymore. Yet all human beings need care, and the **care deficit and the gender care gap continue to exist in both traditional and non-traditional households**. The care needs of singles, of the elderly and of childless couples are not addressed by existing data.

According to surveys on men's attitudes, many men say 'yes' to gender equality, in particular in terms of paid and unpaid work and that both, men and women, should contribute to family income. They also define their role as fathers as being more involved than their own fathers were. These attributes are a good basis for caring masculinities, but other aspects of care will have to be added to complete the picture. Men's rejection of violence and the ability to connect to others are issues of care as well. Caring for friends and colleagues as well as the ability to care for oneself by reducing risk-taking lifestyles are crucial topics. From this perspective, men can benefit from gender equality because gender equality questions social norms that are also disadvantageous for men.

This study shows insights into a promising development concerning care and the role of men in gender equality. Despite a variety and plurality of country patterns concerning parental leave and care, **a European vision becomes obvious, framing 'care' as an important issue in gender equal societies and as a counterpart to traditional concepts of male power**. Especially among young men in urban areas of Europe 'caring masculinity' has emerged as a new pattern of masculinity, and there is still potential for an increased care involvement of men.

6.3 Recommendations to strengthen the role of men in gender equality

Based on the main results of this study, **recommendations for initiatives and strategies for policy makers** and other stakeholders at EU level and national level have been developed in order to **outline the role of men in improving gender equality across Europe**.

In general, the recommendations address the following aspects:

- Foster 'caring masculinities' as the primary aim in the various topics.
- Develop a balanced and coherent 'men and gender equality' approach embedded in gender equality policy.
- Address men, especially in sub-groups, in the fields where some disadvantages are faced.

Special attention is paid to programmes, strategies and initiatives which should

- focus on non-traditional career paths for boys,
- integrate gender awareness for teachers and students and support analysis of teaching styles, textbooks and learning materials in education,
- keep disadvantaged boys in education, for example by valuing socially-inclusive learning strategies,
- focus on the integration of marginalised groups of men into the labour market,
- support the reconciliation of care, domestic work and paid work for men,
- support men's involvement in childcare and in domestic work,
- support measures to increase men's participation in female dominated occupations,
- change workplaces: from traditional masculinity to gender equal workplaces,
- increase working security conditions for young men and women,
- foster, improve and extend the support of female and male victims of gender-based violence,
- promote non-violent masculinities,
- foster, improve and extend the work with perpetrators,
- build up differentiated knowledge and experience in the field of men's health,
- strengthen the link between men's health and gender equality and address health determinants at different levels,
- support men's involvement in existing gender equality strategies on an institutionalised basis,
- initiate measures for more balanced gender parity in decision-making bodies,
- strengthening the exchange of critical studies on men, masculinities and policies,
- conduct more complex analysis of topics on men and masculinities.

These recommendations – comprehensively described and discussed at the end of each chapter in the report – are supposed to lead to changes at structural level, to the development of political measures and their institutionalisation as well as to practical initiatives. All these ideas and empirically based recommendations are targeted at policy makers and other stakeholders at EU level and national level.

From an overall perspective it is visible that **men have become more interested in gender equality** and that the **role of men in gender equality has increasingly been taken into account** by policies across Europe in the past decade. But while some European countries show an integrated policy concerning men and gender equality perspectives and an overall advancement in gender equality policies and practices, other countries do not provide any institutionalised involvement of men in gender equality policies.

In order to develop a balanced approach on men and gender equality, unmasking men's privileges, focussing on relations in the gender system (instead of focussing solely on men) and recognising social divisions among men are important aspects to be considered simultaneously. This approach guides the development of recommendations for improving the role of men in gender equality, and it should serve as a principle for policy development and improvement.

Both women and men should benefit from greater gender equality. Therefore, some guiding principles should be taken into account when developing policies in order to improve the role of men and foster an integrated perspective:

Supporting men's involvement in existing gender equality strategies on an institutionalised basis is important in order to strengthen gender equal societies

The study results show that men (already) involved in existing gender equality bodies make a symbolic difference and that inviting men as driving forces and target groups in gender equality policies usually changes the debate. All European countries have – at least formally – established strategies to support gender equality in accordance with EU legislation and directives, based on a broader understanding of gender equality. Gender mainstreaming strategies have created an initial awareness of the issue of men in gender equality, and at least some committed men are involved in equality policy in nearly all EU member states. One step further is thinking about the possibility of **permanent governmental structures on men and gender equality at both national and EU level**, taking into account the different situations in the countries. Permanent and formalized structures – like committees or sub-committees – seem to be appropriate for countries where gender equality is relatively advanced but nevertheless often contextualised as a women's issue. For other countries, other forms of institutionalised practices might be more suitable, like a permanent discourse forum including men's and women's organisations, critical scientists, politicians and representatives from administration or awareness raising projects at policy and administration levels to build up a common understanding of gender equality, including women and men.

A coherent EU policy based on a common approach on men and gender equality is needed in Europe

This approach should concern key issues of current European developments, including a focus on caring masculinity especially in the fields of education, work, family and health, framed by a balanced perspective on labour and unpaid work between men and women. Across Europe, there is a need to ensure that equal rights are put into practice, which means that more priority has to be given to men's share of care work and the improvement of gender equality in family life. **Gender equality strategies should be developed, which include a set of measures to support and encourage men to devote more time and priority to the reconciliation of care, home and paid work.** This is an important and challenging goal for all countries. In the growing governmental and policy debates on the reconciliation of the demands of home and work there is usually a lack of an explicit focus on men.

Development of an intersectional perspective on men and gender equality

While the concept of the gender gap has become well known in the past decades and much attention is paid on gender differences, variations among men or among women appear to be sometimes bigger than those between men and women. Whereas progress can be recognised concerning sex-differentiated data material, there is still much room for **improvement with regard to intersectional analysis by nationality, educational background, age, income, etc.** As discussed above, there are some 'positive' topics which throughout Europe relatively successfully addressed men in gender equality discourses. A highly relevant topic, the involvement of men in child care activities, paternity leave or 'active' fatherhood can be identified. On the other hand, there are topics which are discussed regularly in the context of men's involvement in gender equality, like men's underachievement in education and health problems. These debates often focus on the aspect that men seem to be disadvantaged and that therefore these topics should be 'added' to gender equality strategies to 'compensate' men for an already over-boarding promotion of women. This approach neglects unequal power relations between women and men, but also important differences between men (class, age, migration and others). For example: a debate about the 'boy crisis' in education – focussing on all boys as losers (see chapter 2) – masks the circumstance that in fact

some specific groups of boys are disadvantaged, predominantly those with a migration background and/or lower class status. Talking about ‘men’ and ‘women’ as homogenous gender groups, just looking at biological sex without considering different groups of men and women bears the risk of producing a one-dimensional picture and concealing different (or similar) patterns between different groups of men and women. However, as has become apparent in the work for this report, for many topics comparative data are missing to answer intersectional questions at a Europe-wide level.

Strengthening the exchange of feminist theory, critical studies on men and masculinities, gender studies and policies

It is important to consider how the issue of men and gender equality is framed at the policy level. To avoid oversimplification, a close connection between critical studies on men and masculinities, gender studies and policies is crucial. Involving critical scholarship to inform and shape the concept and an understanding of gender in government policy is essential. An **institutionalised exchange between the political level**, which is responsible for developing and implementing gender equality strategies, **and researchers and practitioners on gender and masculinity studies/policies** may support this approach, for example the establishment of a regular expert forum or a kind of advisory board for high level politicians. Cooperation of experts promises more complex analyses that are needed in particular fields of men and gender equality. Simplifications of some arguments stressing disadvantages of men should be carefully explained and re-framed in a complex picture pointing also to important but often overlooked structural relationships of power.

Putting controversial topics into a balanced discourse

Balanced approaches are of special importance for **topics such as custody rights, men’s health, male victims of violence**, etc, which have been brought on the agenda by men’s movements (e.g. fathers’ custody rights groups). Of course, policy makers must deal with these topics and not leave them to distorted men’s rights initiatives and anti-feminist men’s groups. Bringing these topics into a reasonable discourse must be done in a differentiated way that dismantles polarisation and does not contribute to the legitimisation of the above mentioned groups’ positions. In Finland, the inclusion of controversial approaches in the context of investigations on gender equality was crucial for their gender policy. The inclusion of (anti-feminist) men’s rights groups into gender policy provides an opportunity of **taking important but controversial issues out of the hands of radical and distorted actors**. It also enables for a better understanding of the importance of gender equality in connection to men. This works, for example, by focussing on the topic occupied by a controversial or distorted men’s rights group and offering a complex analysis, thus winning over the audience. An intense cooperation with some of the less radical players from the pool of activists might make them gender-aware and thus make them potential allies for the topic under discussion. Nevertheless, before taking this step, gaining deeper knowledge of the nature of particular men’s movements in Europe would be strongly recommended.

7 Annex: References

7.1 Chapter 1 – Introduction

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7.9 Workshop proceedings

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7.10 Workshop background and discussion papers

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8 Annex: Additional tables and figures

8.1 Annex 'Chapter education'

Annex 2.1 Percentage of population of the age 20 to 24 having completed at least upper secondary education, 2001-2010

geotime	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender gap	Men	Women	Gender gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	74	79.2	5.2	76.2	81.8	5.6	0.4	2.2	2.6
Belgium	78.3	85.2	6.9	80.3	84.7	4.4	-2.5	2	-0.5
Bulgaria	77.2	79	1.8	85	83.6	-1.4	-3.2	7.8	4.6
Czech Rep.	89.8	91.3	1.5	91.1	92.8	1.7	0.2	1.3	1.5
Denmark	74.8	81.7	6.9	61.4	75.6	14.2	7.3	-13.4	-6.1
Germany	73.6	73.6	0	72.2	76.7	4.5	4.5	-1.4	3.1
Estonia	74.7	85.2	10.5	76.9	89.5	12.6	2.1	2.2	4.3
Ireland	80.4	87.4	7	85.3	90.6	5.3	-1.7	4.9	3.2
Greece	75.3	84.8	9.5	79.5	87.2	7.7	-1.8	4.2	2.4
Spain	58.8	71.4	12.6	54.7	67.9	13.2	0.6	-4.1	-3.5
France	80.3	83.2	2.9	79.8	85.8	6	3.1	-0.5	2.6
Italy	62.7	73	10.3	72.6	80.2	7.6	-2.7	9.9	7.2
Cyprus	75.4	84.9	9.5	83.2	89	5.8	-3.7	7.8	4.1
Latvia	66.2	77.5	11.3	74.1	85.9	11.8	0.5	7.9	8.4
Lithuania	77.1	83.8	6.7	84.2	89.7	5.5	-1.2	7.1	5.9
Luxembourg	67	69	2	67.9	78.7	10.8	8.8	0.9	9.7
Hungary	84.5	85	0.5	82	85.9	3.9	3.4	-2.5	0.9
Malta	41.4	38.7	-2.7	47	60.8	13.8	16.5	5.6	22.1
Netherlands	68.7	76.8	8.1	73.7	81.6	7.9	-0.2	5	4.8
Austria	84.9	85.3	0.4	84.9	86.2	1.3	0.9	0	0.9
Poland	87.7	91.8	4.1	88.4	93.8	5.4	1.3	0.7	2
Portugal	35.9	53	17.1	54.8	62.7	7.9	-9.2	18.9	9.7
Romania	77.1	77.5	0.4	77.7	78.8	1.1	0.7	0.6	1.3
Slovenia	86.3	90.3	4	86.1	92.8	6.7	2.7	-0.2	2.5
Slovakia	93.8	95.1	1.3	93.2	93.1	-0.1	-1.4	-0.6	-2
Finland	82.8	89.4	6.6	82.8	85.6	2.8	-3.8	0	-3.8
Sweden	84.2	86.8	2.6	84.9	86.9	2	-0.6	0.7	0.1
UK	75.5	78.4	2.9	78.9	82	3.1	0.2	3.4	3.6
Iceland	39.2	53.3	14.1	51.4	55.5	4.1	-10	12.2	2.2
Norway	95.5	96.9	1.4	66.4	75.9	9.5	8.1	-29.1	-21
Switzerland	76	85.1	9.1	80.5	84.3	3.8	-5.3	4.5	-0.8

Source: Eurostat, LFS; extracted on Sept. 25th, 2011; high rates of decrease in Norway (29.1%) and Denmark (13.4%) are due to break in series in statistical proceedings; own calculations.

Annex 2.2 Percentage of population age 20 to 24 having completed at least upper secondary education by country group of birth and sex for EU27, Norway and Iceland, 2009

Percentage of people with upper secondary education (aged 20-24)				
	Men		Women	
No migrant background		80.1		86.3
Migrant background EU27		74.6		76.3
Migrant background other Europe		56.0		58.4
Migrant background Africa		54.5		59.3
Migrant background America		62.3		71.4
Migrant background Asia		61.2		68.7

Source: LFS yearly data 2009; Upper secondary education = People aged 20-24 with at least ISCED level 3; migrant background = country of birth and/or nationality differ/s from country of actual residence; total= all EU27 countries, Norway and Iceland; own calculation.

Annex 2.3 Percentage of population age 20 to 24 having completed at least upper secondary education by migrant background and sex, 2009

	Men		Women	
	No migrant background	Migrant background	No migrant background	Migrant background
EU 27	80.2	63.5	86.3	67.8
Belgium	83.1	64.6	88.7	71.6
Czech Rep.	92.0	81.5	92.3	75.7
Denmark	66.3	49.2	80.6	60.9
Germany	78.6	59.6	78.1	52.3
Ireland	83.8	84.0	91.8	85.1
Greece	82.1	40.4	90.9	56.4
Spain	56.7	41.3	72.6	54.2
France	81.6	64.9	87.1	67.1
Italy	76.3	46.2	84.7	51.8
Cyprus	87.6	79.1	95.3	71.6
Netherlands	72.4	57.1	81.7	63.5
Austria	88.5	73.0	89.8	66.4
Portugal	46.5	45.9	64.3	61.0
Sweden	87.9	70.0	90.3	75.3
UK	76.2	80.3	80.7	80.4

Source: LFS yearly data 2009; Upper secondary education = People aged 20-24 with at least ISCED level 3; migrant background = country of birth and/or nationality differ/s from country of actual residence; table includes only countries with reliable data; own calculation.

Annex 2.4 30 to 34 year old persons with tertiary education attainment by country 2010 (in %) - as % of corresponding age population, 2001-2010

	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender gap	Men	Women	Gender gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	22.4	23.2	0.8	30.0	37.2	7.2	6.4	7.6	14.0
Belgium	32.6	37.9	5.3	39.0	50.0	11.0	5.7	6.4	12.1
Bulgaria	18.8	28.3	9.5	20.7	35.5	14.8	5.3	1.9	7.2
Czech Rep.	14.0	12.5	-1.5	18.6	22.3	3.7	5.2	4.6	9.8
Denmark	28.0	37.8	9.8	42.2	52.1	9.9	0.1	14.2	14.3
Germany	29.0	21.9	-7.1	29.9	29.7	-0.2	6.9	0.9	7.8
Estonia				32.2	47.7	15.5			
Ireland	28.6	32.5	3.9	44.4	55.3	10.9	7.0	15.8	22.8
Greece	23.4	26.4	3.0	25.7	31.4	5.7	2.7	2.3	5.0
Spain	29.4	33.3	3.9	35.7	45.9	10.2	6.3	6.3	12.6
France	28.3	30.6	2.3	39.3	47.6	8.3	6.0	11.0	17.0
Italy	11.4	12.9	1.5	15.5	24.2	8.7	7.2	4.1	11.3
Cyprus	33.1	32.3	-0.8	41.3	48.9	7.6	8.4	8.2	16.6
Latvia	13.4	20.0	6.6	23.4	41.4	18.0	11.4	10.0	21.4
Lithuania	14.8	27.4	12.6	36.3	51.2	14.9	2.3	21.5	23.8
Luxembourg	26.0	21.7	-4.3	44.8	47.4	2.6	6.9	18.8	25.7
Hungary	13.5	16.0	2.5	21.0	30.7	9.7	7.2	7.5	14.7
Netherlands	27.4	26.9	-0.5	38.4	44.4	6.0	6.5	11.0	17.5
Austria				22.5	24.5	2.0			
Poland	10.7	15.8	5.1	29.8	40.8	11.0	5.9	19.1	25.0
Portugal	8.3	15.2	6.9	17.7	29.4	11.7	4.8	9.4	14.2
Romania	8.7	9.0	0.3	16.7	19.6	2.9	2.6	8.0	10.6
Slovenia				26.4	44.0	17.6			
Slovakia	10.8	10.7	-0.1	18.2	26.2	8.0	8.1	7.4	15.5
Finland	33.6	49.6	16.0	37.7	54.0	16.3	0.3	4.1	4.4
Sweden	23.4	30.0	6.6	39.8	52.1	12.3	5.7	16.4	22.1
United Kingdom	31.4	28.4	-3.0	40.9	45.1	4.2	7.2	9.5	16.7
Iceland	28.8	33.2	4.4	34.5	47.5	13.0	8.6	5.7	14.3
Norway	37.9	46.6	8.7	39.7	55.2	15.5	6.8	1.8	8.6
Switzerland	38.4	17.6	-20.8	47.5	40.9	-6.6	14.2	9.1	23.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: edat_lfse_07); extracted on Jan. 14th, 2012.

Annex 2.5 Country groups 'horizontal segregation upper secondary education' background variables for factors and cluster analysis, 2009

	Men's share (2009) in %				Factors		Cluster analysis
	Humanities and arts	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Agriculture and veterinary	Services	factor_female dominated fields	factor_male dominated fields	Country groups
Romania	51.5	64.8	64	55.7	1.95057	-2.57379	5
Estonia	29.9	85.1	64.6	30.1	-0.91246	-0.30594	4
Latvia	24.8	91.3	51.3	28.7	-1.46592	-0.16561	
Lithuania	16.8	87.1	72.6	18.6	-2.19403	0.28726	
Iceland	36.2	93.7	45.8	34.3	-0.6475	-0.19156	
Denmark	64.8	90.2	63.1	54	2.09594	0.08939	3
Cyprus	36.7	97.1	88.9	68.9	1.42999	2.34403	
Netherlands	59.2	93.8	64.8	55.4	1.8158	0.62339	2
Bulgaria	36.2	74.4	74.7	32.8	-0.16633	-1.08747	
Czech Rep.	38.6	87.2	38.2	34.6	-0.43711	-1.26629	
Slovenia	41.5	88.9	40.6	45.6	0.27875	-0.9094	
Slovakia	42.9	85.4	46.7	43.5	0.3511	-1.0606	
Finland	34.2	84.5	46.9	36.4	-0.46669	-1.13445	
Sweden	31.1	89.9	31.6	42.4	-0.52547	-1.12919	
Belgium	34.8	93.2	68.9	30.4	-0.75464	0.74528	1
Germany	47.6	91.5	76.4	38.6	0.44168	0.84064	
Ireland	45	92.1	62.7	43.5	0.45193	0.36841	
Spain	35.4	92.1	76.5	48.2	0.28258	1.09136	
France	49	92.2	74	30.4	0.0575	0.73672	
Luxembourg	33.3	89.1	81.3	34.5	-0.45723	0.8768	
Hungary	42.6	88	59.7	42.9	0.34708	-0.20398	
Malta	44.3	91.7	65	35.8	0.0352	0.36956	
Austria	40.3	91.6	58.3	35	-0.26539	0.09265	
Poland	38.2	90.9	70	37	-0.17761	0.56067	
Norway	19.6	93	61.7	43.9	-0.90631	0.64357	
Switzerland	40.2	88.5	72.4	34.1	-0.16143	0.35854	

Source and explanation: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_grad5); extracted on Jan. 9th, 2012; calculation of participation in specific vocational field as percentage of all participants in pre-vocational or pre-technical programme orientation and vocational or technical programme orientation in upper secondary education; two factors have been calculated: "factor_male dominated fields" has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields „engineering, manufacturing and construction" and "agriculture and veterinary"; "factor_female dominated fields" has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields "humanities and arts" and "services". On each factor, smaller (negative) values represent lower percentage of men; higher (positive) values represent higher percentages of men. With these two factors a cluster analysis has been calculated to receive related country groups; method used: Ward, 5 solutions, own calculations.

Annex 2.6 Male students (ISCED 5-6) enrolled in different fields of study in tertiary education - as % of male and female students in this field, 2000 and 2009

	Education		Humanities and arts		Social science, business, law		Science, mathematics and computing		Engineering, manufacturing and construction		Agriculture and veterinary science		Health and welfare		Services	
	2000	2009	2000	2009	2000	2009	2000	2009	2000	2009	2000	2009	2000	2009	2000	2009
EU 27	26.0	23.1	33.6	34.4	44.5	41.6	60.8	62.3	77.0	75.1	53.5	50.6	27.9	25.8	50.0	50.4
Belgium	30.8	28.3	40.5	44.3	47.5	46.1	70.2	69.9	81.6	77.0	56.3	53.2	29.6	27.4	48.5	48.2
Bulgaria	23.1	28.6	31.2	32.2	38.3	36.7	45.8	52.3	61.5	68.9	58.6	52.5	34.2	32.2	60.4	52.1
Czech Rep.	27.1	21.6	41.0	33.7	43.8	37.6	77.8	64.6	74.1	76.2	53.6	43.9	26.2	22.4	57.7	56.7
Denmark	31.3	26.6	35.4	37.3	52.7	48.4	66.5	65.0	72.0	65.5	47.6	42.5	19.8	19.2	73.4	77.2
Germany	30.7	30.0	36.7	33.9	56.2	50.7	67.7	64.5	81.6	81.9	54.6	51.7	29.3	23.5	46.3	52.5
Estonia	14.9	7.8	26.5	26.3	40.3	33.0	61.5	61.3	73.2	74.7	54.7	45.8	15.4	11.2	54.7	45.3
Ireland	22.0	21.8	33.7	38.5	41.0	44.7	54.3	59.9	82.2	84.5	60.5	55.0	25.4	21.7	40.7	57.3
Spain	24.0	21.8	37.9	40.1	42.5	41.8	61.4	65.1	74.6	71.9	55.6	53.5	26.2	25.9	42.1	47.5
France		20.2		31.8		39.5		64.2		74.7		57.7		29.1		56.6
Italy	17.4	12.2	23.8	27.6	44.0	42.0	49.5	48.6	73.7	70.0	58.2	53.5	38.7	34.2	46.9	52.4
Cyprus	10.1	15.7	20.5	31.7	41.9	60.0	58.2	64.1	89.0	77.4		45.7	23.9	34.7	60.6	49.1
Latvia	15.7	15.4	20.6	22.2	36.5	31.6	53.8	68.1	73.3	79.6	56.6	51.0	20.2	14.1	62.8	43.9
Lithuania	19.6	23.3	26.5	27.8	34.4	32.1	57.3	66.2	68.7	79.0	35.9	48.1	19.3	16.8	55.2	54.1
Hungary	26.4	24.3	36.7	35.6	40.1	35.7	69.6	68.4	80.1	81.6	53.8	54.6	26.2	26.1	39.6	40.0
Malta	33.5	19.9	45.0	39.9	51.8	43.3	72.9	73.2	76.9	73.1	81.2	69.0	37.5	35.8	26.7	33.8
Netherlands	27.0	26.1	41.9	45.6	54.3	52.4	76.5	81.0	87.9	83.9	58.5	49.1	25.5	26.2	51.3	51.0
Austria	32.6	24.1	30.5	34.2	50.0	43.8	67.1	64.3	81.4	76.8	45.7	37.0	41.6	35.6	62.9	48.5
Poland	25.7	24.3	30.5	29.6	38.3	38.0	46.9	63.3	79.2	71.9	45.4	47.5	31.4	27.1	53.7	49.9
Portugal	20.1	15.6	32.7	43.4	40.3	42.0	59.2	53.4	70.5	74.7	45.1	45.4	26.2	23.0	50.7	56.0
Romania	63.2	7.8	34.7	34.8	40.2	37.9	38.0	47.9	74.6	69.9	58.8	62.8	37.6	30.8	48.4	55.7
Slovenia	19.7	20.0	27.5	28.7	37.7	32.4	69.6	63.9	75.0	74.7	48.4	41.1	21.4	21.8	56.3	48.0
Slovakia	27.8	24.0	45.7	35.7	42.9	33.7	67.7	61.6	73.8	70.9	64.1	53.1	28.1	19.2	62.2	56.2
Finland	19.6	20.5	29.0	29.5	38.5	39.4	58.7	60.9	82.2	80.8	52.5	47.7	16.5	16.6	30.1	30.1
Sweden	23.1	22.8	34.6	38.7	39.9	38.2	55.0	56.9	71.7	70.6	46.2	37.9	19.7	19.9	41.4	39.8
UK	28.6	24.4	38.6	38.6	45.4	45.1	60.3	63.2	82.3	80.9	47.1	37.7	22.3	23.0		44.0
Iceland	15.2	16.1	34.3	33.3	43.9	39.2	59.4	63.1	77.3	66.3	78.1	40.7	20.9	14.9	21.6	28.5
Liechtenstein						72.0				56.3				63.2		
Norway	22.9	23.8	38.2	38.6	46.5	41.8	67.4	62.8	75.1	73.1	52.8	40.6	19.5	18.4	66.5	53.5
Switzerland		27.1		39.7		52.7		68.8		84.4		47.1		25.9		48.0

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_iterp); extracted on Oct. 31st, 2011; for Greece and Luxembourg no data are available; own calculations.

Annex 2.7 Country groups 'horizontal segregation tertiary education' background variables for factors and cluster analysis

	Men's share (2009) in %					Factors		Cluster analysis
	Education	Humanities and arts	Social science, business and law	Science, mathematics and computing	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Factor_female dominated studies	Factor_female dominated studies	Country groups
Bulgaria	28.6	32.2	36.7	52.3	68.9	0.06574	-1.1618	1
Denmark	26.6	37.3	48.4	65	65.5	1.33527	-0.98904	
Spain	21.8	40.1	41.8	65.1	71.9	0.73538	-0.45513	
Portugal	15.6	43.4	42	53.4	74.7	0.81116	-1.33758	
Slovakia	24	35.7	33.7	61.6	70.9	-0.10748	-0.50178	
Sweden	22.8	38.7	38.2	56.9	70.6	0.50235	-1.08596	
Iceland	16.1	33.3	39.2	63.1	66.3	-0.15117	-1.13103	
Norway	23.8	38.6	41.8	62.8	73.1	0.6318	-0.36619	2
Italy	12.2	27.6	42	48.6	70	-0.76132	-1.72002	
Romania	7.8	34.8	37.9	47.9	69.9	-0.45667	-2.16511	3
Belgium	28.3	44.3	46.1	69.9	77	1.49597	0.48163	
Germany	30	33.9	50.7	64.5	81.9	0.63396	1.04976	
Netherlands	26.1	45.6	52.4	81	83.9	1.60696	1.89841	4
Switzerland	27.1	39.7	52.7	68.8	84.4	1.12242	1.31046	
Ireland	21.8	38.5	44.7	59.9	84.5	0.30443	0.61838	4
Cyprus	15.7	31.7	60	64.1	77.4	0.60773	0.03615	
Malta	19.9	39.9	43.3	73.2	73.1	0.6284	0.2115	
Austria	24.1	34.2	43.8	64.3	76.8	0.16136	0.32454	
UK	24.4	38.6	45.1	63.2	80.9	0.56717	0.53207	5
Czech Rep.	21.6	33.7	37.6	64.6	76.2	-0.38703	0.28036	
France	20.2	31.8	39.5	64.2	74.7	-0.45534	0.09003	
Lithuania	23.3	27.8	32.1	66.2	79	-1.42115	1.05732	
Hungary	24.3	35.6	35.7	68.4	81.6	-0.44291	1.20634	
Poland	24.3	29.6	38	63.3	71.9	-0.49755	-0.05907	
Slovenia	20	28.7	32.4	63.9	74.7	-1.25867	0.25468	
Finland	20.5	29.5	39.4	60.9	80.8	-0.90534	0.63635	6
Estonia	7.8	26.3	33	61.3	74.7	-1.95892	-0.24757	
Latvia	15.4	22.2	31.6	68.1	79.6	-2.40655	1.23231	

Source and explanation: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: educ_iterp); extracted on Jan. 9th, 2012; calculation of participation in specific vocational field as percentage of all participants in pre-vocational or pre-technical programme orientation and vocational or technical programme orientation in upper secondary education; two factors have been calculated: "factor_male dominated fields" has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields „engineering, manufacturing and construction" and "science, mathematics and computing"; "factor_female dominated fields" has been calculated with the variables male participation in the fields "education", "humanities and arts" and "social science, business and law". On each factor, smaller (negative) values represent lower percentage of men; higher (positive) values represent higher percentages of men. With these two factors a cluster analysis has been calculated to receive related country groups; method used: Ward, 6 solutions, own calculations.

Annex 2.8 Early school leavers by gender (% of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training), 2001 and 2010

GEO/TIME	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Change in Gender Gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU	19.2	15.2	-4	16	12.2	-3.8	0.2	-3.2	-3
Belgium	16.2	11.3	-4.9	13.8	10	-3.8	1.1	-2.4	-1.3
Bulgaria	21	20	-1	13.2	14.5	1.3	2.3	-7.8	-5.5
Czech Rep.				4.9	4.8	-0.1			
Denmark	10.8	7.7	-3.1	13.6	7.5	-6.1	-3	2.8	-0.2
Germany	12	12.6	0.6	12.7	11	-1.7	-2.3	0.7	-1.6
Greece	21	13.2	-7.8	16.5	10.8	-5.7	2.1	-4.5	-2.4
Spain	36	23.1	-12.9	33.5	23.1	-10.4	2.5	-2.5	0
France	15	12	-3	15.4	10.3	-5.1	-2.1	0.4	-1.7
Italy	29.6	22.2	-7.4	22	15.4	-6.6	0.8	-7.6	-6.8
Cyprus	23.9	13.1	-10.8	16.2	9.8	-6.4	4.4	-7.7	-3.3
Hungary	13.6	12.6	-1	11.5	9.5	-2	-1	-2.1	-3.1
Malta	55.3	53.5	-1.8	41	32.4	-8.6	-6.8	-14.3	-21.1
Netherlands	16.3	13.8	-2.5	12.2	7.9	-4.3	-1.8	-4.1	-5.9
Austria	9.7	10.7	1	8.4	8.2	-0.2	-1.2	-1.3	-2.5
Poland	9	5.9	-3.1	7.2	3.5	-3.7	-0.6	-1.8	-2.4
Portugal	51.6	36.7	-14.9	32.7	24.6	-8.1	6.8	-18.9	-12.1
Romania	22.1	21.4	-0.7	18.6	18.2	-0.4	0.3	-3.5	-3.2
Finland	12.1	7.1	-5	11.6	9	-2.6	2.4	-0.5	1.9
Sweden	11	9.3	-1.7	10.9	8.5	-2.4	-0.7	-0.1	-0.8
UK	18.6	17	-1.6	15.8	14	-1.8	-0.2	-2.8	-3
Iceland	35	26.5	-8.5	26	19	-7	1.5	-9	-7.5
Norway	9.7	8.1	-1.6	21.4	13.2	-8.2	-6.6	11.7	5.1
Switzerland	6.7	6.5	-0.2	6.1	7	0.9	1.1	-0.6	0.5

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: tsisc060); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; for Estonia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Slovenia no reliable data are available; own calculations.

Annex 2.9 Employment rates (in %) 15 to 39 years old men by level of education attained, 2001 and 2010

GEO/TIME	At most lower secondary education			Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education			First and second stage of tertiary education		
	2001	2010	Change	2001	2010	Change	2001	2010	Change
EU 27	54.4	44.9	-9.5	75.8	72.5	-3.3	88.8	85.9	-2.9
Belgium	48.5	35.4	-13.1	73.7	68.7	-5.0	89.6	86.1	-3.5
Bulgaria	23.3	23.3	0.0	60.9	68.6	7.7	86.1	90.4	4.3
Czech Repub.	18.7	14.3	-4.4	84.2	81.4	-2.8	93.0	88.1	-4.9
Denmark	64.9	57.6	-7.3	84.6	80.4	-4.2	90.7	89.3	-1.4
Germany	49.4	45.2	-4.2	81.9	78.5	-3.4	94.1	92.8	-1.3
Estonia	30.4	26.7	-3.7	75.8	67.6	-8.2	91.4	85.9	-5.5
Ireland	55.2	26.8	-28.4	81.8	61.3	-20.5	91.6	82.2	-9.4
Greece	57.8	55.9	-1.9	68.1	65.6	-2.5	85.6	83.1	-2.5
Spain	70.5	51.6	-18.9	62.0	59.6	-2.4	81.2	79.1	-2.1
France	46.1	39.7	-6.4	76.9	71.5	-5.4	83.1	83.4	0.3
Italy	61.1	49.7	-11.4	68.7	69.0	0.3	85.3	74.8	-10.5
Cyprus	52.3	45.8	-6.5	82.2	76.0	-6.2	95.3	86.6	-8.7
Latvia	36.5	29.7	-6.8	70.4	64.5	-5.9	91.9	85.1	-6.8
Lithuania	17.9	14.2	-3.7	66.9	53.2	-13.7	83.2	85.9	2.7
Luxembourg	63.0	37.4	-25.6	82.4	75.1	-7.3	90.6	91.9	1.3
Hungary	30.8	23.3	-7.5	75.3	69.8	-5.5	94.9	87.8	-7.1
Malta	73.8	67.5	-6.3	76.2	75.5	-0.7	89.4	90.1	0.7
Netherlands	77.8	64.6	-13.2	90.8	83.8	-7.0	95.7	91.4	-4.3
Austria	54.9	52.4	-2.5	86.4	84.0	-2.4	93.3	92.6	-0.7
Poland	21.0	20.4	-0.6	68.6	74.3	5.7	89.7	89.1	-0.6
Portugal	74.9	63.8	-11.1	63.9	64.7	0.8	93.7	82.1	-11.6
Romania	39.6	42.1	2.5	73.5	67.2	-6.3	89.9	84.3	-5.6
Slovenia	36.7	33.4	-3.3	77.9	74.7	-3.2	94.1	91.4	-2.7
Slovakia	6.6	7.2	0.6	69.5	72.6	3.1	89.7	81.6	-8.1
Finland	45.9	32.3	-13.6	80.0	74.7	-5.3	94.9	91.8	-3.1
Sweden	49.1	34.0	-15.1	82.8	78.5	-4.3	84.0	87.1	3.1
UK	70.1	56.6	-13.5	82.4	72.4	-10.0	92.7	88.9	-3.8
Iceland	83.4	65.6	-17.8	89.6	75.8	-13.8	94.9	90.1	-4.8
Norway	53.4	55.4	2.0	84.1	81.0	-3.1	88.2	90.8	2.6
Switzerland	64.9	63.3	-1.6	89.4	84.2	-5.2	96.6	92.9	-3.7

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_argaed); extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011; Netherlands and Switzerland: break in series; own calculations.

8.2 Annex 'Chapter work'

Annex 3.1 Employment rate by gender, age group 15-64; in %, 2000 and 2010

GEO/TIME	2000			2010			2000-2010		
	Women	Men	Gender Gap	Women	Men	Gender Gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	53.7	70.8	17.1	58.2	70.1	11.9	-5.2	-0.7	4.5
Belgium	51.5	69.5	18	56.5	67.4	10.9	-7.1	-2.1	5
Bulgaria	46.3	54.7	8.4	56.4	63	6.6	-1.8	8.3	10.1
Czech Rep.	56.9	73.2	16.3	56.3	73.5	17.2	0.9	0.3	-0.6
Denmark	71.6	80.8	9.2	71.1	75.8	4.7	-4.5	-5	-0.5
Germany	58.1	72.9	14.8	66.1	76	9.9	-4.9	3.1	8
Estonia	56.9	64.3	7.4	60.6	61.5	0.9	-6.5	-2.8	3.7
Ireland	53.9	76.3	22.4	56	63.9	7.9	-14.5	-12.4	2.1
Greece	41.7	71.5	29.8	48.1	70.9	22.8	-7	-0.6	6.4
Spain	41.3	71.2	29.9	52.3	64.7	12.4	-17.5	-6.5	11
France	55.2	69.2	14	59.9	68.3	8.4	-5.6	-0.9	4.7
Italy	39.6	68	28.4	46.1	67.7	21.6	-6.8	-0.3	6.5
Cyprus	53.5	78.7	25.2	63	76.6	13.6	-11.6	-2.1	9.5
Latvia	53.8	61.5	7.7	59.4	59.2	-0.2	-7.9	-2.3	5.6
Lithuania	57.7	60.5	2.8	58.7	56.8	-1.9	-4.7	-3.7	1
Luxembourg	50.1	75	24.9	57.2	73.1	15.9	-9	-1.9	7.1
Hungary	49.7	63.1	13.4	50.6	60.4	9.8	-3.6	-2.7	0.9
Malta	33.1	75	41.9	39.2	72.3	33.1	-8.8	-2.7	6.1
Netherlands	63.5	82.1	18.6	69.3	80	10.7	-7.9	-2.1	5.8
Austria	59.6	77.3	17.7	66.4	77.1	10.7	-7	-0.2	6.8
Poland	48.9	61.2	12.3	53	65.6	12.6	0.3	4.4	4.1
Portugal	60.5	76.5	16	61.1	70.1	9	-7	-6.4	0.6
Romania	57.5	68.6	11.1	52	65.7	13.7	2.6	-2.9	-5.5
Slovenia	58.4	67.2	8.8	62.6	69.6	7	-1.8	2.4	4.2
Slovakia	51.5	62.2	10.7	52.3	65.2	12.9	2.2	3	0.8
Finland	64.2	70.1	5.9	66.9	69.4	2.5	-3.4	-0.7	2.7
Sweden	70.9	75.1	4.2	70.3	75.1	4.8	0.6	0	-0.6
UK	64.7	77.8	13.1	64.6	74.5	9.9	-3.2	-3.3	-0.1
Iceland				76.2	80.1	3.9	3.9		
Norway	73.6	81.3	7.7	73.3	77.3	4	-3.7	-4	-0.3
Switzerland	69.3	87.3	18	72.5	84.6	12.1	-5.9	-2.7	3.2

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsl_emp_a); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Annex 3.2 Male employment rate (persons aged 15-64) by highest level of education attained in %, 2001, 2010 and change between 2001 and 2010

ISCED97	Employment rate						Employment rate change in percentage points		
	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Lower secondary*	Upper secondary*	Tertiary education*	Lower secondary*	Upper secondary*	Tertiary education*	Lower secondary*	Upper secondary*	Tertiary education*
EU 27	58.8	74.9	86.9	53.5	74.1	85.8	-5.3	-0.8	-1.1
Belgium	52.3	75.7	87.2	46.9	72.6	84.6	-5.4	-3.1	-2.6
Bulgaria	31.2	61.3	79.2	33.0	70.4	85.8	1.8	9.1	6.6
Czech Rep.	29.4	81.1	92.0	22.0	79.0	89.1	-7.4	-2.1	-2.9
Denmark	65.9	82.4	89.3	62.3	79.1	87.1	-3.6	-3.3	-2.2
Germany	51.9	75.5	86.5	50.9	78.8	89.9	-1.0	3.3	3.4
Estonia	35.6	73.2	84.5	29.2	66.9	80.3	-6.4	-6.3	-4.2
Ireland	63.1	84.0	91.7	44.5	66.6	82.9	-18.6	-17.4	-8.8
Greece	67.2	71.6	85.1	64.4	70.8	84.1	-2.8	-0.8	-1.0
Spain	71.7	68.3	84.2	57.0	66.7	81.0	-14.7	-1.6	-3.2
France	54.4	76.7	83.9	50.3	72.5	83.0	-4.1	-4.2	-0.9
Italy	61.6	74.1	87.7	58.2	74.5	82.3	-3.4	0.4	-5.4
Cyprus	67.9	82.2	93.0	59.8	80.3	87.8	-8.1	-1.9	-5.2
Latvia	39.2	69.8	83.7	32.4	63.4	82.1	-6.8	-6.4	-1.6
Lithuania	28.9	66.7	81.9	16.3	59.2	85.4	-12.6	-7.5	3.5
Luxembourg	64.1	80.2	90.2	49.7	75.3	89.4	-14.4	-4.9	-0.8
Hungary	32.7	73.5	87.6	28.7	66.5	82.1	-4.0	-7.0	-5.5
Malta	74.8	75.1	91.8	67.6	79.3	87.7	-7.2	4.2	-4.1
Netherlands	74.1	86.5	90.2	68.6	82.7	88.5	-5.5	-3.8	-1.7
Austria	55.4	80.1	88.9	55.4	80.5	88.9	0.0	0.4	0.0
Poland	31.9	66.2	87.2	28.9	70.6	86.9	-3.0	4.4	-0.3
Portugal	76.9	69.4	92.5	68.3	69.4	82.9	-8.6	0.0	-9.6
Romania	55.0	73.0	85.5	50.5	69.1	83.6	-4.5	-3.9	-1.9
Slovenia	46.4	74.1	85.8	45.3	72.1	89.1	-1.1	-2.0	3.3
Slovakia	15.9	70.0	88.2	15.8	72.2	83.4	-0.1	2.2	-4.8
Finland	52.7	77.5	87.3	44.1	73.2	86.8	-8.6	-4.3	-0.5
Sweden	63.2	82.2	86.4	50.4	82.0	87.9	-12.8	-0.2	1.5
UK	67.8	81.5	90.1	60.6	75.8	87.2	-7.2	-5.7	-2.9
Iceland	87.1	92.8	96.5	72.9	82.0	91.1	-14.2	-10.8	-5.4
Norway	61.9	83.9	90.2	60.1	81.9	91.0	-1.8	-2.0	0.8
Switzerland	71.6	90.1	94.9	68.0	85.3	92.5	-3.6	-4.8	-2.4

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ergaed); extracted on April 4th, 2012; own calculations; * "Lower secondary": levels 0-2: pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, "upper secondary": levels 3 and 4: upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education, "tertiary education": levels 5 and 6: first and second stage of tertiary education.

Annex 3.3 Employment rates for women and men, age group 25-49, total and with children less than 6 years, in %, 2010

	Employment rate men aged 25 to 49 years			Employment rate women aged 25 to 49 years		
	Total employment rate	Employment rate men with children less than 6 years	Gap men with and without children under 6 years	Total employment rate	Employment rate women with children less than 6 years	Gap women with and without children under 6 years
Malta	89.3	91.5	2.2	52.1	41.0	-11.1
Bulgaria	78.5	80.8	2.3	73.7	53.9	-19.8
Luxembourg	92.7	95.4	2.7	74.4	68.8	-5.6
Romania	82.5	85.2	2.7	69.0	63.2	-5.8
Austria	89.3	92.1	2.8	80.6	67.1	-13.5
Germany	87.2	90.5	3.3	76.4	55.6	-20.8
France	87.2	90.6	3.4	76.9	67.5	-9.4
Czech Rep.	91.2	94.7	3.5	71.8	36.5	-35.3
Belgium	86.0	89.6	3.6	76.2	71.8	-4.4
Netherlands	90.6	94.2	3.6	80.7	78.7	-2.0
Hungary	79.6	83.3	3.7	66.5	34.2	-32.3
Cyprus	88.9	92.8	3.9	78.2	73.2	-5.0
Ireland	75.1	79.0	3.9	66.2	56.8	-9.4
Slovakia	82.1	86.4	4.3	69.7	37.2	-32.5
UK	85.8	90.2	4.4	74.2	61.5	-12.7
Spain	75.7	80.8	5.1	64.3	58.6	-5.7
Portugal	84.3	90.1	5.8	75.6	72.2	-3.4
Estonia	76.7	82.7	6.0	73.3	54.0	-19.3
Poland	84.6	90.6	6.0	73.1	62.3	-10.8
Latvia	73.7	79.8	6.1	74.3	64.5	-9.8
Greece	85.9	92.6	6.7	63.1	56.4	-6.7
Italy	83.3	90.6	7.3	59.3	53.5	-5.8
Finland	85.0	92.4	7.4	78.7	62.3	-16.4
Lithuania	71.5	79.1	7.6	76.9	75.0	-1.9
Slovenia	86.1	94.1	8.0	83.8	83.5	-0.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfst_hheredch); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Annex 3.4 Unemployment rate by gender, in %, 2001 and 2010

GEO/TIME	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	7.8	9.5	1.7	9.7	9.6	-0.1	-1.8	1.9	0.1
Belgium	5.9	7.5	1.6	8.1	8.5	0.4	-1.2	2.2	1
Bulgaria	20.2	18.6	-1.6	10.9	9.5	-1.4	0.2	-9.3	-9.1
Czech Rep.	6.7	9.7	3	6.4	8.5	2.1	-0.9	-0.3	-1.2
Denmark	4.1	5	0.9	8.2	6.6	-1.6	-2.5	4.1	1.6
Germany	7.8	7.4	-0.4	7.5	6.6	-0.9	-0.5	-0.3	-0.8
Estonia	12.9	12.2	-0.7	19.5	14.3	-5.2	-4.5	6.6	2.1
Ireland	4.1	3.8	-0.3	16.9	9.7	-7.2	-6.9	12.8	5.9
Greece	7.2	16.1	8.9	9.9	16.2	6.3	-2.6	2.7	0.1
Spain	7.5	14.8	7.3	19.7	20.5	0.8	-6.5	12.2	5.7
France	7	9.9	2.9	9.4	10.2	0.8	-2.1	2.4	0.3
Italy	7.1	12.2	5.1	7.6	9.7	2.1	-3	0.5	-2.5
Cyprus	2.7	5.5	2.8	6	6.4	0.4	-2.4	3.3	0.9
Latvia	14.2	11.5	-2.7	21.7	15.7	-6	-3.3	7.5	4.2
Lithuania	18.6	14.3	-4.3	21.2	14.5	-6.7	-2.4	2.6	0.2
Luxembourg	1.6	2.4	0.8	3.8	5.5	1.7	0.9	2.2	3.1
Hungary	6.3	5	-1.3	11.6	10.7	-0.9	0.4	5.3	5.7
Malta	6.9	9.3	2.4	6.8	7.1	0.3	-2.1	-0.1	-2.2
Netherlands	2.1	3.2	1.1	4.4	4.5	0.1	-1	2.3	1.3
Austria	3.1	4.2	1.1	4.6	4.2	-0.4	-1.5	1.5	0
Poland	16.9	19.9	3	9.3	10	0.7	-2.3	-7.6	-9.9
Portugal	3.9	5.4	1.5	11.8	12.2	0.4	-1.1	7.9	6.8
Romania	6.9	6.2	-0.7	7.9	6.5	-1.4	-0.7	1	0.3
Slovenia	5.7	6.8	1.1	7.5	7.1	-0.4	-1.5	1.8	0.3
Slovakia	19.8	18.7	-1.1	14.2	14.6	0.4	1.5	-5.6	-4.1
Finland	8.6	9.7	1.1	9.1	7.6	-1.5	-2.6	0.5	-2.1
Sweden	6.1	5.6	-0.5	8.5	8.2	-0.3	0.2	2.4	2.6
UK	5.5	4.4	-1.1	8.6	6.8	-1.8	-0.7	3.1	2.4
Norway	3.5	3.3	-0.2	4	3	-1	-0.8	0.5	-0.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ewhais); Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. Extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Annex 3.5 Male unemployment rate (persons aged 15-64) by highest level of education attained, in %, 2001, 2010 and change between 2001 and 2010

ISCED97	Unemployment rate						Unemployment rate change in percentage points		
	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Lower secondary*	Upper secondary*	Tertiary education*	Lower secondary*	Upper secondary*	Tertiary education*	Lower secondary*	Upper secondary*	Tertiary education*
EU 27	10.1	8.3	3.7	16.2	8.8	5.2	6.1	0.5	1.5
Belgium	10.2	3.7	2.9	15.1	7.2	4.3	4.9	3.5	1.4
Bulgaria	34.0	19.7	8.4	23.1	9.9	4.6	-10.9	-9.8	-3.8
Czech Rep.	23.4	5.8	2.1	27.0	6.1	2.7	3.6	0.3	0.6
Denmark	5.1	3.2	3.7	12.6	7.6	5.3	7.5	4.4	1.6
Germany	13.1	8.2	3.8	16.8	7.6	3.0	3.7	-0.6	-0.8
Estonia	20.0	11.4	8.5	36.2	19.7	12.1	16.2	8.3	3.6
Ireland	6.5	2.7	1.6	25.6	19.1	8.8	19.1	16.4	7.2
Greece	6.2	8.9	4.9	11.3	10.8	7.0	5.1	1.9	2.1
Spain	8.5	6.9	5.2	26.7	17.7	10.3	18.2	10.8	5.1
France	11.3	5.6	4.3	15.4	7.9	5.5	4.1	2.3	1.2
Italy	8.6	7.0	3.9	9.5	6.9	4.6	0.9	-0.1	0.7
Cyprus	3.7	2.4	1.7	9.4	5.8	4.6	5.7	3.4	2.9
Latvia	24.0	13.8	6.1	33.3	22.6	11.4	9.3	8.8	5.3
Lithuania	28.3	21.0	10.1	43.5	24.3	9.1	15.2	3.3	-1.0
Hungary	14.0	5.6	1.1	27.3	10.5	5.0	13.3	4.9	3.9
Netherlands	2.5	1.4	1.6	7.1	3.8	3.0	4.6	2.4	1.4
Austria	7.4	3.7	1.6	10.0	4.2	2.2	2.6	0.5	0.6
Poland	24.8	17.6	4.1	18.1	9.7	4.6	-6.7	-7.9	0.5
Romania	7.5	8.4	3.7	9.1	8.5	5.3	1.6	0.1	1.6
Slovenia	10.2	5.0	2.3	14.0	7.3	4.1	3.8	2.3	1.8
Slovakia	50.4	19.2	6.0	45.5	13.6	6.2	-4.9	-5.6	0.2
Finland	16.7	9.7	3.9	16.4	9.6	4.7	-0.3	-0.1	0.8
Sweden	8.0	4.7	2.6	17.7	7.4	5.0	9.7	2.7	2.4
UK	9.7	4.3	2.4	16.0	8.8	4.5	6.3	4.5	2.1
Norway	7.4	3.3	2.6	8.6	3.4	1.9	1.2	0.1	-0.7
Switzerland	4.7	1.3	0.8	7.1	4.6	2.6	2.4	3.3	1.8

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_urgaed); Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. Extracted on April 4th, 2012; own calculations; * "Lower secondary": levels 0-2: pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, "upper secondary": levels 3 and 4: upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education, "tertiary education": levels 5 and 6: first and second stage of tertiary education.

Annex 3.6 Youth unemployment rate (from 15 to 24 years) by gender, in %, 2001 and 2010

GEO/TIME	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Young men	Young women	Gender Gap	Young men	Young Women	Gender Gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	16.8	17.9	1.1	21.6	20.0	-1.6	-2.7	4.8	2.1
Belgium	14.3	16.6	2.3	22.4	22.4	0.0	-2.3	8.1	5.8
Bulgaria	42.8	35.4	-7.4	24.1	21.7	-2.4	5.0	-18.7	-13.7
Czech Rep.	16.4	16.2	-0.2	18.2	18.5	0.3	0.5	1.8	2.3
Denmark	7.3	9.3	2.0	15.8	11.7	-4.1	-6.1	8.5	2.4
Germany	9.0	6.4	-2.6	10.9	8.8	-2.1	0.5	1.9	2.4
Ireland	6.5	5.8	-0.7	33.7	21.1	-12.6	-11.9	27.2	15.3
Greece	20.9	36.3	15.4	26.7	40.6	13.9	-1.5	5.8	4.3
Spain	16.4	26.3	9.9	43.2	39.8	-3.4	-13.3	26.8	13.5
France	16.0	20.5	4.5	22.2	23.7	1.5	-3.0	6.2	3.2
Italy	24.8	31.6	6.8	26.8	29.4	2.6	-4.2	2.0	-2.2
Latvia	24.0	21.4	-2.6	35.4	33.5	-1.9	0.7	11.4	12.1
Lithuania	36.6	24.6	-12.0	38.5	30.8	-7.7	4.3	1.9	6.2
Hungary	11.6	9.5	-2.1	27.9	24.9	-3.0	-0.9	16.3	15.4
Netherlands	4.2	4.5	0.3	8.8	8.6	-0.2	-0.5	4.6	4.1
Austria	6.2	5.8	-0.4	8.9	8.8	-0.1	0.3	2.7	3.0
Poland	38.0	40.6	2.6	22.4	25.4	3.0	0.4	-15.6	-15.2
Portugal	6.5	12.0	5.5	21.2	23.7	2.5	-3.0	14.7	11.7
Romania	18.1	17.1	-1.0	22.3	21.8	-0.5	0.5	4.2	4.7
Slovakia	42.6	34.5	-8.1	34.6	31.9	-2.7	5.4	-8.0	-2.6
Finland	25.7	27.5	1.8	23.8	19.0	-4.8	-6.6	-1.9	-8.5
Sweden	12.7	10.6	-2.1	26.6	23.7	-2.9	-0.8	13.9	13.1
UK	11.8	8.7	-3.1	21.5	17.3	-4.2	-1.1	9.7	8.6
Norway	12.3	12.0	-0.3	11.0	7.5	-3.5	-3.2	-1.3	-4.5
Switzerland	5.8	5.5	-0.3	7.3	8.4	1.1	1.4	1.5	2.9

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ewhais); Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. No reliable data available for Estonia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia, Iceland; Extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Annex 3.7 Average number of actual weekly hours of work in main job by sex; 2001 and 2010

GEO/TIME	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	41.2	33.9	7.3	40.0	33.1	6.9	-0.4	-1.2	-0.8
Belgium	39.7	31.8	7.9	40.5	32.6	7.9	0.0	0.8	0.8
Bulgaria	41.8	40.3	1.5	40.8	40.1	0.7	-0.8	-1.0	-0.2
Czech Rep.	43.2	38.8	4.4	42.1	38.0	4.1	-0.3	-1.1	-0.8
Denmark	37.2	31.1	6.1	37.2	31.3	5.9	-0.2	0.0	0.2
Germany	42.3	31.9	10.4	40.1	30.2	9.9	-0.5	-2.2	-1.7
Estonia	41.8	38.8	3.0	39.8	37.1	2.7	-0.3	-2.0	-1.7
Ireland	42.6	31.9	10.7	39.0	30.0	9.0	-1.7	-3.6	-1.9
Greece	43.8	39.4	4.4	42.6	38.1	4.5	0.1	-1.2	-1.3
Spain	40.2	35.0	5.2	40.3	34.3	6.0	0.8	0.1	-0.7
France	41.1	34.4	6.7	39.7	33.4	6.3	-0.4	-1.4	-1.0
Italy	41.5	35.2	6.3	40.2	32.8	7.4	1.1	-1.3	-2.4
Cyprus	40.2	36.4	3.8	40.5	36.8	3.7	-0.1	0.3	0.4
Latvia	44.7	41.2	3.5	39.1	37.6	1.5	-2.0	-5.6	-3.6
Lithuania	40.3	37.5	2.8	39.2	37.7	1.5	-1.3	-1.1	0.2
Luxemb.	41.9	33.7	8.2	41.3	33.0	8.3	0.1	-0.6	-0.7
Hungary	42.7	39.5	3.2	40.5	38.5	2.0	-1.2	-2.2	-1.0
Malta	36.5	30.2	6.3	40.1	34.0	6.1	-0.2	3.6	3.8
Netherlands	36.8	24.1	12.7	36.7	25.1	11.6	-1.1	-0.1	1.0
Austria	42.6	35.1	7.5	40.5	31.6	8.9	1.4	-2.1	-3.5
Poland	42.3	37.4	4.9	41.6	37.2	4.4	-0.5	-0.7	-0.2
Portugal	40.3	36.5	3.8	39.6	36.3	3.3	-0.5	-0.7	-0.2
Romania	40.9	37.7	3.2	40.0	38.3	1.7	-1.5	-0.9	0.6
Slovenia	40.8	39.2	1.6	39.7	37.1	2.6	1.0	-1.1	-2.1
Slovakia	42.1	39.7	2.4	40.5	38.2	2.3	-0.1	-1.6	-1.5
Finland	38.7	33.7	5.0	38.5	34.0	4.5	-0.5	-0.2	0.3
Sweden	36.9	31.3	5.6	38.1	33.0	5.1	-0.5	1.2	1.7
UK	41.3	29.8	11.5	39.5	30.2	9.3	-2.2	-1.8	0.4
Iceland	48.3	34.7	13.6	42.5	33.9	8.6	-5.0	-5.8	-0.8
Norway	37.1	30.2	6.9	36.7	30.1	6.6	-0.3	-0.4	-0.1
Switzerland	43.0	29.7	13.3	42.3	30.0	12.3	-1.0	-0.7	0.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_ewhais); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations.

Annex 3.8 Part-time* rate by sex, in%, 2001 and 2010

GEO/TIME	2001			2010			2001-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Change in gender gap	Change for men	Change for women
EU 27	5.9	28.3	22.4	7.8	31.4	23.5	1.1	2.0	3.0
Belgium	4.9	36.8	31.8	8.4	42.1	33.6	1.8	3.5	5.3
Bulgaria	2.6	3.5	0.9	2.0	2.4	0.4	-0.4	-0.7	-1.1
Czech Rep.	1.6	7.9	6.3	2.2	9.1	6.9	0.6	0.6	1.2
Denmark	9.6	31.0	21.5	14.1	38.6	24.5	3.0	4.5	7.5
Germany	4.7	39.0	34.3	8.7	45.0	36.4	2.1	3.9	6.0
Estonia	4.4	9.4	5.0	6.2	13.1	7.0	1.9	1.8	3.7
Ireland	6.0	31.1	25.1	11.1	34.2	23.1	-2.0	5.1	3.1
Greece	2.1	6.9	4.8	3.4	10.2	6.7	1.9	1.4	3.3
Spain	2.7	17.2	14.5	5.2	23.1	17.9	3.5	2.5	6.0
France	4.9	30.3	25.4	6.4	29.8	23.5	-2.0	1.5	-0.5
Italy	3.6	17.7	14.1	5.1	29.0	23.9	9.8	1.5	11.3
Cyprus	3.7	12.1	8.4	4.9	11.8	6.9	-1.4	1.2	-0.3
Latvia	7.1	11.3	4.2	7.5	11.0	3.6	-0.6	0.4	-0.3
Lithuania	7.1	9.6	2.5	6.3	8.9	2.6	0.1	-0.8	-0.7
Luxemb.	1.7	25.7	24.0	3.4	35.6	32.2	8.2	1.7	9.9
Hungary	1.7	4.6	3.0	3.6	7.6	4.0	1.0	1.9	3.0
Malta	3.0	16.8	13.8	5.0	24.5	19.5	5.7	2.0	7.7
Netherlands	19.3	71.3	51.9	24.2	76.2	52.0	0.1	4.9	5.0
Austria	3.9	33.3	29.5	7.8	43.3	35.5	6.0	3.9	9.9
Poland	7.2	11.6	4.4	5.0	10.8	5.9	1.5	-2.3	-0.8
Portugal	3.7	13.7	10.0	4.9	12.3	7.4	-2.7	1.2	-1.4
Romania	12.7	16.2	3.5	9.6	9.9	0.3	-3.2	-3.1	-6.3
Slovenia	4.3	6.5	2.2	7.4	13.6	6.2	4.0	3.1	7.1
Slovakia	1.2	3.8	2.6	2.6	5.2	2.7	0.0	1.4	1.4
Finland	7.0	16.6	9.5	8.9	19.0	10.1	0.6	1.9	2.4
Sweden	9.4	30.7	21.3	12.2	39.7	27.4	6.1	2.8	8.9
UK	8.0	43.7	35.8	11.0	42.3	31.3	-4.5	3.1	-1.4
Iceland	10.3	45.1	34.9	11.2	34.5	23.3	-11.5	0.9	-10.6
Norway	10.6	42.2	31.6	14.2	42.3	28.1	-3.6	3.6	0.0
Switzerland	9.9	56.5	46.7	12.3	59.7	47.4	0.7	2.4	3.1

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfsa_eggais); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; own calculations; *Part-time employment rates represent persons employed on a part-time basis (usual hours worked are fewer than 35) as a percentage of the same age employed population; own calculations.

Annex 3.9 Percentage of temporary contracts* for adults by sex; age group 15 to 24 years and 15 years and over, 2010

GEO/TIME	15 to 24 years			15 years or over		
	Men	Women	Gender Gap	Men	Women	Gender Gap
EU 27	37.5	39.3	1.8	10.3	12.3	2.0
Belgium	22.6	29.0	6.4	5.3	8.2	2.9
Bulgaria				4.0	3.3	-0.7
Czech Republic	15.9	21.4	5.5	5.7	9.0	3.3
Denmark	25.8	24.5	-1.3	8.2	8.8	0.6
Germany	59.6	56.7	-2.9	12.3	13.5	1.2
Ireland	21.4	22.3	0.9	5.7	8.2	2.5
Greece	19.0	27.8	8.8	6.6	9.8	3.2
Spain	54.0	55.6	1.6	18.7	22.4	3.7
France	50.2	55.7	5.5	11.9	14.6	2.7
Italy	38.5	43.1	4.6	8.0	11.7	3.7
Cyprus	13.8	20.5	6.7	5.2	17.7	12.5
Latvia				7.7	4.5	-3.2
Luxembourg				5.2	7.3	2.1
Hungary	22.6	24.8	2.2	8.5	8.4	-0.1
Malta				3.6	6.5	2.9
Netherlands	37.7	40.3	2.6	11.4	14.0	2.6
Austria	39.7	32.0	-7.7	8.0	7.5	-0.5
Poland	52.2	61.9	9.7	20.4	21.5	1.1
Portugal	49.1	57.4	8.3	16.7	18.8	2.1
Romania				0.8	0.6	-0.2
Slovenia				10.3	13.7	3.4
Slovakia	12.2	16.3	4.1	4.3	5.3	1.0
Finland	36.8	42.1	5.3	9.5	15.3	5.8
Sweden	40.6	60.7	20.1	10.4	15.1	4.7
United Kingdom	10.1	10.0	-0.1	3.7	4.8	1.1

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: lfst_hhitemchi); extracted on Sept. 19th, 2011; no reliable data available for Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovenia for age group 15-24; no reliable data available for Estonia, Lithuania. * Temporary employees as percentage of the total number of employees; employees with temporary contracts are those who declare themselves as having a fixed term employment contract or a job which will terminate if certain objective criteria are met, such as completion of an assignment or return of the employee who was temporarily replaced.

Annex 3.10 Gender segregation in occupations and economic sectors, 2001 and 2010

	Gender segregation in occupations		Gender segregation in economic sectors	
	2001	2010	2001	2010
EU 27	24.5	26.4	17.2	20.3
Belgium	26.1	25.4	18.1	19.5
Bulgaria	27.1	29	17.5	21.2
Czech Republic	29.2	28.3	18.9	20.9
Denmark	28.1	25.8	19	19.6
Germany	27.3	26	18.2	19.3
Estonia	32.4	30.7	24.4	25.7
Ireland	26.7	26.3	20.7	21.4
Greece	21.5	21.8	15.4	16
Spain	24.9	26.7	19.3	20.6
France	26.6	26	17.4	19.1
Italy	21.9	24.7	15.2	19.7
Cyprus	29.5	28.8	17.5	19.9
Latvia	29.7	28.2	21	24.5
Lithuania	28.4	28.8	20.8	21.9
Luxembourg	26.8	23.4	19.6	16
Hungary	28.2	27.8	19.3	20.9
Malta	23.8	23.7	15.9	16
Netherlands	25.6	25	18.7	19.4
Austria	27.2	25.9	20.3	19.3
Poland	25.6	26.1	18.7	20.6
Portugal	26.3	26.5	21.2	21.4
Romania		22.5	13.8	17.1
Slovenia	27.2	25.8	17.5	19
Slovakia	31.2	31.1	22.8	25.2
Finland	29.6	28.6	22	23.7
Sweden	28	26.1	21.2	21.6
United Kingdom	26.8	24.3	18.8	19.4

Source: Eurostat, LFS. Gender segregation in occupations is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each occupation; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (ISCO classification). Gender segregation in sectors is calculated as the average national share of employment for women and men applied to each sector; differences are added up to produce the total amount of gender imbalance expressed as a proportion of total employment (NACE classification).

Annex 3.11 Share of men among 'care workers' by country, in %, 2000 and 2009

	Percentage of male „care workers“		
	2000	2009	Change 2000-2009
Austria	17.2	14.6	-2.6
Belgium	10.8	11.0	0.2
Cyprus	11.6	12.7	1.1
Czech Republic	11.7	11.0	-0.7
Germany	14.1	12.4	-1.7
Denmark	17.1	17.2	0.1
Spain	22.1	16.0	-6.1
Finland	7.5	8.8	1.3
France	15.5	17.6	2.1
Greece	22.3	21.8	-0.5
Hungary	12.4	13.4	1.0
Ireland	14.1	12.2	-1.9
Island	7.7	11.5	3.8
Italy	20.6	12.0	-8.6
Luxembourg	22.2	21.5	-0.7
Lativa	6.5	7.6	1.1
Netherlands	12.8	11.5	-1.3
Norway	15.6	15.3	-0.3
Portugal	12.3	9.1	-3.2
Romania	n.d.	12.7	
Sweden	11.9	13.7	1.8
Slovakia	11.6	9.6	-2.0
UK	10.6	14.1	3.5

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey, LFS 2000 Q4 (with the following exceptions: Cyprus, Iceland, Luxembourg, Sweden 2000 Q2, Germany 2002 Q2 and France 2000 Q1) and 2009 Q4; „care workers“ calculated from the following occupations and the respective ISCO-88 3-digit-numbers: Nursing and midwifery professionals (223), primary and pre-primary education teaching professionals (233), special education teaching professionals (234), nursing and midwifery associate professionals (323), primary education teaching associate professionals (331), pre-primary education teaching associate professionals (332), special education teaching associate professionals (333), other teaching associate professionals (334), social work associate professionals (346), personal care and related workers (513); own calculations.

Annex 3.12 Unadjusted gender pay gap*, 2002, 2006-2010

	2002	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
EU 27	:	17.7	17.6	17.3	16.6	16.2
Belgium	:	9.5	10.1	10.2	10.1	10.2
Bulgaria	18.9	12.4	12.1	12.3	13.3	13.0
Czech Republic	22.1	23.4	23.6	26.2	25.9	25.5
Denmark	:	17.6	17.7	17.1	16.8	16
Germany	:	22.7	22.8	22.8	22.6	22.3
Estonia	:	29.8	30.9	27.6	26.6	27.7
Ireland	15.1	17.2	17.1	12.6	12.6	13.9
Greece	25.5	20.7	:	22	:	:
Spain	20.2	17.9	18.1	16.1	16.7	16.2
France	:	15.4	17.3	16.9	15.2	15.6
Italy	:	4.4	5.1	4.9	5.5	5.3
Cyprus	22.5	21.8	22.0	19.5	17.8	16.8
Latvia	:	15.1	13.6	11.8	13.1	15.5
Lithuania	13.2	17.1	22.6	21.6	15.3	14.6
Luxembourg	:	10.7	10.2	9.7	9.2	8.7
Hungary	19.1	14.4	16.3	17.5	17.1	17.6
Malta	:	5.2	7.8	9.2	7.7	7.2
Netherlands	18.7	23.6	19.3	18.9	18.5	17.8
Austria	:	25.5	25.5	25.1	24.3	24
Poland	7.5	7.5	14.9	11.4	8.0	4.5
Portugal	:	8.4	8.5	9.2	10	12.8
Romania	16	7.8	12.5	8.5	7.4	8.8
Slovenia	6.1	8	7.6	4.4	-0.6	0.9
Slovakia	27.7	25.8	23.6	20.9	21.9	19.6
Finland	:	21.3	20.2	20.5	20.8	20.3
Sweden	:	16.5	17.8	16.9	15.7	15.4
United Kingdom	27.3	24.3	20.8	21.4	20.6	19.5
Norway	:	16	15.6	17.0	16.5	15.8
Switzerland	:	18.6	:	18.4	18.4	19.1

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: earn_gr_gpgr2); extracted Dec. 11th, 2012; calculations include industry, construction and services (except public administration, defense, compulsory social security); * The unadjusted gender pay gap (*GPG*) represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. From reference year 2006 onwards, the new *GPG* data is based on the methodology of the *Structure of Earnings Survey*. The indicator has been defined as unadjusted (e.g. not adjusted according to individual characteristics that may explain part of the earnings difference) because it should give an overall picture of gender inequalities in terms of pay. The *GPG* is the consequence of various inequalities (structural differences) in the labour market such as different working pattern, differences in institutional mechanisms and systems of wage setting. Consequently, the *GPG* is linked to a number of legal, social and economic factors which go far beyond the single issue of equal pay for equal work.

Annex 3.13 Country groups ‘vertical segregation’ background variables for factors and cluster analysis, 2010

	Men's share (2010) in				Facotors		Cluster analysis
	publicly quoted companies	central banks	public ad-minstrati-on level 1	public adminstra-tion level 2	Factor 2: men in plc and central banks	Factor 1: men in public adminstra-tion	Country groups
Norway	61	59	68	64	-2.89273	-0.05426	4
Bulgaria	89	86	60	43	0.53845	-1.71052	3
Estonia	93	82	72	52	0.4735	-0.73936	3
Greece	94	92	57	57	1.13305	-1.41566	3
Spain	90	80	60	67	0.17761	-0.75449	3
Latvia	77	79	67	47	-0.69786	-1.0376	3
Poland	88	76	64	61	-0.15981	-0.72919	3
Portugal	95	83	74	56	0.62525	-0.50466	3
Slovenia	90	80	53	41	0.35786	-2.12091	3
Slovakia	78	86	77	24	-0.22632	-1.45362	3
Sweden	74	65	66	46	-1.60477	-1.0033	3
Belgium	90	78	85	88	-0.20626	1.38037	2
Czech Rep.	88	86	82	69	0.18547	0.45283	2
Denmark	82	71	89	74	-1.06122	1.17056	2
Ireland	92	85	81	84	0.33519	0.94964	2
France	88	70	81	68	-0.62171	0.47606	2
Lithuania	87	80	86	47	-0.1063	-0.13049	2
Hungary	86	71	85	70	-0.74344	0.77289	2
Netherlands	85	75	78	74	-0.57702	0.53844	2
Romania	79	89	79	68	-0.24122	0.31136	2
Finland	74	69	74	76	-1.6074	0.54075	2
UK	87	89	86	72	0.22849	0.76533	2
Germany	87	100	88	83	0.72222	1.21438	1
Italy	95	94	86	71	1.02858	0.62365	1
Cyprus	96	100	73	69	1.50456	-0.18778	1
Luxemb.	96	100	83	86	1.34862	0.99072	1
Malta	98	91	100	73	0.9687	1.43243	1
Austria	91	100	80	69	1.1185	0.22242	1

Source and explanation: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making, extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011. Two factors have been calculated: factor 1 has been calculated with the variables “members of central banks” and “members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies”, this factor represents men’s participation in high level business and financial positions; factor 2 has been calculated with the variables “level 1 administrators: highest level of administrative (non-political) positions within each ministry” and “level 2 administrators: second level of administrative (non-political) positions within each ministry”, this factor represents men’s participation in high level public administration positions. With these two factors a cluster analysis has been calculated to receive related country groups; method used: Ward, 4 solutions, own calculations.

Annex 3.14 Country groups 'vertical segregation', 2010

Possible country groups	Country	Country's groups characteristics
1) Most equal group/country	Norway	Vertical segregation in high level business and financial sector less pronounced than in other countries: Men's representation in high level business and financial position is far below EU-average. Men's representation in high level public administration is average.
2) Mixed group I: relatively low vertical segregation in public administration sector	Bulgaria	Men's dominance in high level public administration is less pronounced. Concerning men's representation in business and financial high level positions, there are countries below, around and above EU-average.
	Estonia	
	Greece	
	Spain	
	Latvia	
	Poland	
	Portugal	
	Slovenia	
	Slovakia	
	Sweden	
3) Mixed group II: average or minimally above average vertical segregation	Belgium	Men dominate high level public administration, but are around and below EU average in private business and financial sector (note that this is still over-represented if the gender groups are compared).
	Czech Rep.	
	Denmark	
	Ireland	
	France	
	Lithuania	
	Hungary	
	Netherlands	
	Romania	
	Finland	
	UK	
4) Most unequal group: most pronounced vertical segregation	Germany	Men's overrepresentation in both fields – public and private (business, financial) sector – is the highest in EU comparison.
	Italy	
	Cyprus	
	Luxemb.	
	Malta	
	Austria	

Source and explanation: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making, extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011. Two factors have been calculated: factor 1 has been calculated with the variables "members of central banks" and "members of the highest decision making body of largest publicly quoted companies", this factor represents men's participation in high level business and financial positions; factor 2 has been calculated with the variables "level 1 administrators: highest level of administrative (non-political) positions within each ministry" and "level 2 administrators: second level of administrative (non-political) positions within each ministry", this factor represents men's participation in high level public administration positions. With these two factors a scatter plot has been drawn and the country groups have been calculated with a cluster analysis; method used: Ward, 4 solutions, own calculations.

8.3 Annex 'Chapter care, family and households'

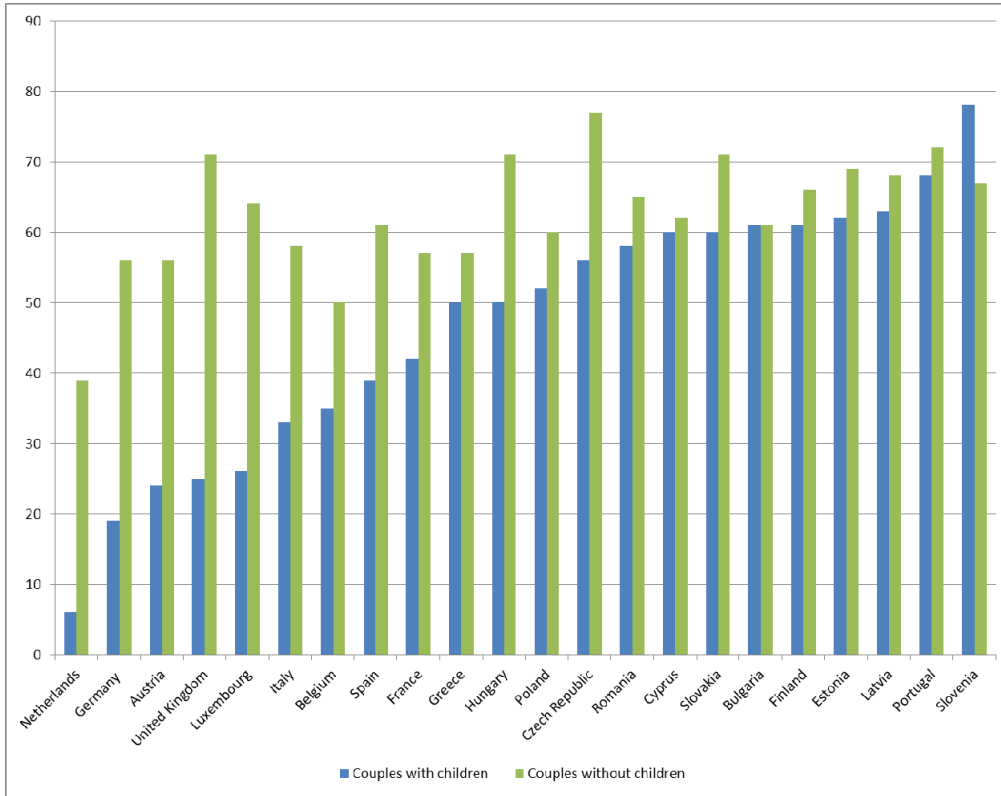
Annex 4.1 Average weekly paid and unpaid working time by gender, by country, 2010

	Men		Women		Male share (%) in	
	Weekly paid working time	Weekly unpaid working time	Weekly paid working time	Weekly unpaid working time	Weekly paid working time	Weekly unpaid working time
Belgium	39.7	11.7	33.0	32.5	54.6	26.4
Bulgaria	42.3	5.2	41.0	19.2	50.8	21.2
Czech Republic	42.7	10.6	39.1	32.5	52.2	24.6
Denmark	37.4	25.5	33.6	37.8	52.6	40.2
Germany	40.1	10.8	31.8	30.7	55.8	26.0
Estonia	38.4	19.4	37.7	31.5	50.5	38.1
Greece	47.9	5.1	42.7	27.9	52.9	15.5
Spain	40.0	18.5	34.5	41.2	53.7	31.0
France	37.1	11.1	33.2	31.3	52.8	26.1
Ireland	39.2	19.2	29.2	40.9	57.3	32.0
Italy	39.3	12.6	33.1	33.8	54.3	27.1
Cyprus	42.1	8.8	37.4	34.5	52.9	20.2
Latvia	40.0	18.2	38.1	28.4	51.2	39.0
Lithuania	39.4	9.7	37.9	26.6	51.0	26.8
Luxembourg	40.5	9.7	35.3	31.5	53.5	23.6
Hungary	41.3	16.7	38.4	37.6	51.8	30.7
Malta	42.1	10.3	34.4	39.7	55.0	20.5
Netherlands	39.0	20.7	24.7	45.5	61.3	31.3
Austria	40.5	10.6	31.7	33.3	56.2	24.1
Poland	42.9	7.7	38.7	26.8	52.6	22.2
Portugal	41.2	14.1	37.2	34.3	52.6	29.2
Romania	42.8	8.4	42.6	30.9	50.1	21.3
Slovenia	41.0	16.3	38.8	31.8	51.4	33.8
Slovakia	43.9	8.6	39.4	31.4	52.7	21.5
Finland	38.1	17.3	34.8	26.0	52.2	39.9
Sweden	40.1	16.2	36.6	24.0	52.3	40.3
United Kingdom	40.4	17.7	28.4	39.5	58.7	30.9
Norway	39.2	17.9	33.1	38.6	54.2	31.7
Total	40.4	13.1	35.1	32.8	53.6	28.5

Source: EWCS 2010 (combination of different variables: q18, ef3c, ef3d); explanations: average weekly unpaid working time: unpaid work is calculated for 7 days a week and includes hours of caring for and educating own children (included are persons with children aged less than 18 living in the same household) as well as hours for household/cooking-tasks; EWCS includes only persons in employment/self-employment; own calculations.

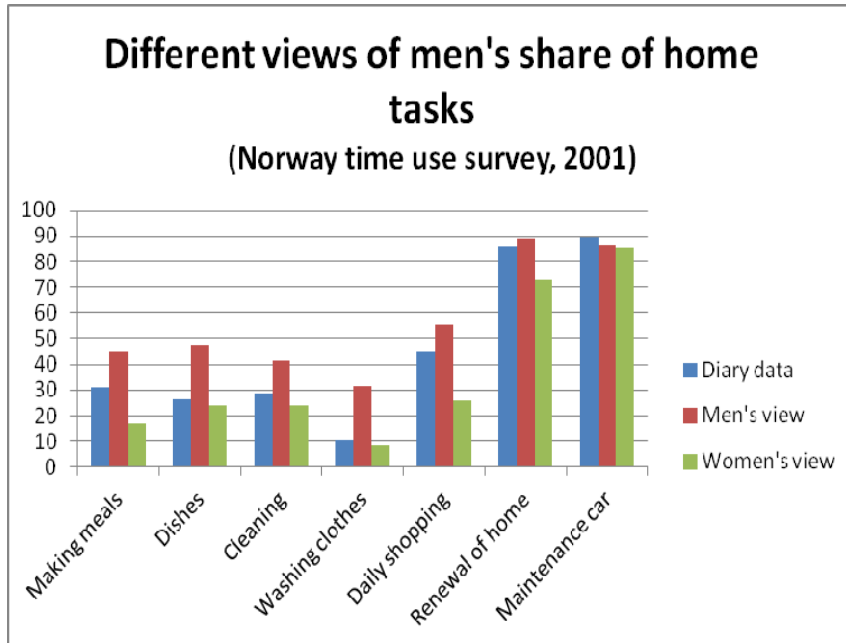
Annex 4.2

Dual-full-time-earner couples as percentage in all couples (persons from 25-49 living in households as couples) with and without children in the household, by country, 2006



Source: Labour Force Survey, Eurostat. In: Eurostat (2009): Reconciliation between work, private and family life in the European Union; data not available for all countries.

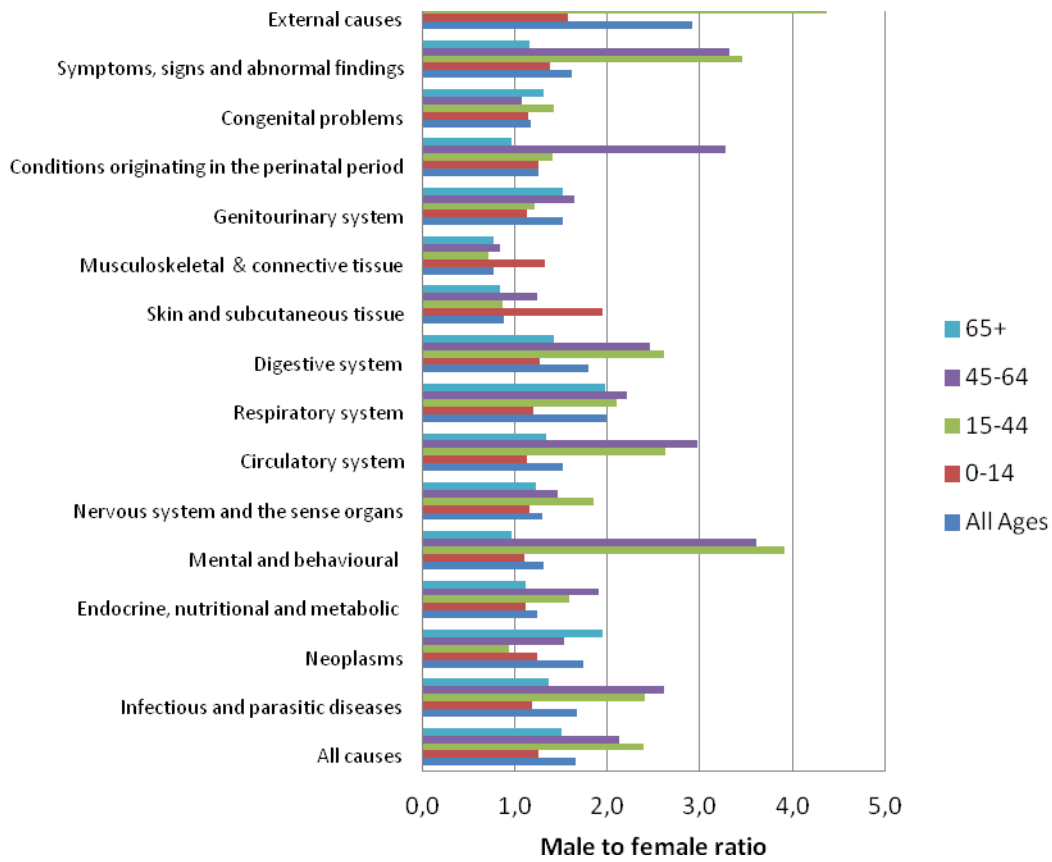
Annex 4.3. Different views of men's share of home tasks, Norway time use survey, in %, 2001



Source: data from The Statistics Norway 2000-1 Time Use Survey, re-analysed by Ø. G. Holter for this project.

8.4 Annex 'Chapter health'

Annex 5.2.1 Sex rate ratio, main classification groups¹, by age, EU 27, 2007



¹ Excluding Pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium (O00-O99) as this only relates to female mortality. Figure from EC, 2011b, p. 43.

Annex 5.2.2 Life expectancy in absolute value at birth by gender, 2000 and 2010

	2000			2010			2000-2010		
	Men	Women	Gender gap	Men	Women	Gender gap	Change gender gap	Change men	Change women
Belgium	74.6	81	6.4	77.5	82.9	5.4	-1.0	2.9	1.9
Bulgaria	68.4	75	6.6	70.3	77.4	7.1	0.5	1.9	2.4
Czech Rep.	71.7	78.5	6.8	74.5	80.9	6.4	-0.4	2.8	2.4
Denmark	74.5	79.2	4.7	77.2	81.4	4.2	-0.5	2.7	2.2
Germany	75.1	81.2	6.1	78	83	5.0	-1.1	2.9	1.8
Estonia	65.2	76.2	11.0	70.6	80.8	10.2	-0.8	5.4	4.6
Ireland	74	79.2	5.2	78.7	83.2	4.5	-0.7	4.7	4.0
Greece	75.5	80.6	5.1	78.4	82.8	4.4	-0.7	2.9	2.2
Spain	75.8	82.9	7.1	79.1	85.3	6.2	-0.9	3.3	2.4
France	75.3	83	7.7	78.3	85.3	7.0	-0.7	3.0	2.3
Italy*	76.9	82.8	5.9	79.6	84.7	5.1	-0.8	2.7	1.9
Cyprus	75.4	80.1	4.7	78.9	83.8	4.9	0.2	3.5	3.7
Latvia				68.6	78.4	9.8			
Lithuania	66.8	77.5	10.7	68	78.9	10.9	0.2	1.2	1.4
Luxemb.	74.6	81.3	6.7	77.9	83.5	5.6	-1.1	3.3	2.2
Hungary	67.5	76.2	8.7	70.7	78.6	7.9	-0.8	3.2	2.4
Malta	76.2	80.3	4.1	79.2	83.6	4.4	0.3	3.0	3.3
Netherl.	75.6	80.7	5.1	78.9	83	4.1	-1.0	3.3	2.3
Austria	75.2	81.2	6.0	77.9	83.5	5.6	-0.4	2.7	2.3
Poland	69.6	78	8.4	72.1	80.7	8.6	0.2	2.5	2.7
Portugal	73.2	80.2	7.0	76.7	82.8	6.1	-0.9	3.5	2.6
Romania	67.7	74.8	7.1	70	77.7	7.7	0.6	2.3	2.9
Slovenia	72.2	79.9	7.7	76.4	83.1	6.7	-1.0	4.2	3.2
Slovakia	69.2	77.5	8.3	71.7	79.3	7.6	-0.7	2.5	1.8
Finland	74.2	81.2	7.0	76.9	83.5	6.6	-0.4	2.7	2.3
Sweden	77.4	82	4.6	79.6	83.6	4.0	-0.6	2.2	1.6
UK*	75.5	80.3	4.8	78.5	82.7	4.2	-0.6	3.0	2.4
Iceland	77.8	81.6	3.8	79.8	84.1	4.3	0.5	2.0	2.5
Norway	76	81.5	5.5	79	83.3	4.3	-1.2	3.0	1.8

Source: Eurostat (online data code: hlth_hlye); extracted on March 12th, 2012; own calculations.

Annex 5.2.3 Life expectancy in absolute value for men and women by highest level of education attained, 2010*,**

	Life expectancy men			Life expectancy women		
	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education	Tertiary education	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Tertiary education
Bulgaria	62.6	73.1	75.8	72.6	79.0	80.4
Czech Republic	62.4	74.9	80.3	78.9	80.9	83.8
Denmark	73.9	77.5	80.0	79.1	82.0	83.1
Estonia	62.1	71.3	76.7	74.8	79.8	84.0
Italy*	77.3	82.4	82.8	83.5	86.3	86.6
Hungary	63.1	73.4	76.5	75.3	80.2	80.8
Malta**	76.9	78.3	80.8	82.1	81.9	83.1
Poland	65.4	72.3	78.3	77.9	80.7	83.1
Portugal	76.3	77.9	79.3	82.7	83.1	83.7
Romania	64.1	71.9	74.2	75.3	78.9	79.4
Slovenia	68.7	77.2	80.2	79.6	83.8	84.5
Finland	73.6	76.7	80.4	81.0	83.7	84.9
Sweden	76.9	79.7	81.8	81.7	83.6	85.0
Norway	75.3	79.4	81.4	81.1	83.9	84.9

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_mlexpecedu); extracted on March 12th, 2012; "Lower secondary education": levels 0-2: pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education; "upper secondary education": levels 3 and 4: upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education; "tertiary education": levels 5 and 6: first and second stage of tertiary education; * data Italy. Romania. Slovenia 2009; ** data Malta 2007.

Annex 5.2.4 Death due to traffic accidents, by gender, standardised death rate by 100.000 inhabitants, 1999* and 2009**

	1999*		2009**		1999-2009	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Change Men	Change Women
EU 27	18.6	5.5	11.8	3.1	-6.8	-2.4
Belgium	22.4	7.4	16.3	5	-6.1	-2.4
Bulgaria	19	6.3	17.5	4.7	-1.5	-1.6
Czech Republic	22.6	6.5	13.6	4.5	-9	-2
Denmark	14.9	4.5	8	3	-6.9	-1.5
Germany	14.4	5	7.7	2.3	-6.7	-2.7
Estonia	34.4	7.7	13.2	3.9	-21.2	-3.8
Ireland	16.1	6.5	9.1	2.8	-7	-3.7
Greece	28.9	9	22.3	4.8	-6.6	-4.2
Spain	23.1	6.6	9.1	2.4	-14	-4.2
France	20.2	6.8	10.9	2.8	-9.3	-4
Italy	20.3	5.2	13.7	3.1	-6.6	-2.1
Cyprus			18	3.3		
Latvia	48.3	13.8	16.8	5.5	-31.5	-8.3
Lithuania	38.1	11.4	21.7	5	-16.4	-6.4
Luxembourg	18.6	7.6	13.6	4.5	-5	-3.1
Hungary	24.6	6.8	16.5	4.4	-8.1	-2.4
Malta	5	3	7.7	2.2	2.7	-0.8
Netherlands	10.9	3.6	6	2	-4.9	-1.6
Austria	18.1	6.3	11.2	2.8	-6.9	-3.5
Poland	31.3	7.8	19.6	5.2	-11.7	-2.6
Portugal	25.8	6.5	14.8	3.6	-11	-2.9
Romania	24.9	7.3	24	6.9	-0.9	-0.4
Slovenia	27.4	6.7	15.2	3.5	-12.2	-3.2
Slovakia	26.1	6.8	15	3.7	-11.1	-3.1
Finland	15.5	4.9	9.9	2.5	-5.6	-2.4
Sweden	8.7	3.3	5.9	1.6	-2.8	-1.7
United Kingdom	8.7	2.9	6.4	1.7	-2.3	-1.2
Iceland	14.2	3.5	7.6	0.7	-6.6	-2.8
Norway	13.2	4.3	8.4	2	-4.8	-2.3
Switzerland	12.8	4.7	8.3	1.9	-4.5	-2.8

Source: Eurostat (online data code: tps00165); extracted on April 12th, 2012; * data EU 27 2000; ** Belgium 2005, Switzerland 2007, France, Italy 2008.

Annex 5.2.5 Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination by sex, and some selected reasons (in %), 2010

	No unmet needs to declare		Too expensive		No time		Wanted to wait and see if problem got better on its own	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
EU 27	93.7	93.1	1.6	2.3	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.1
Belgium	99.3	99.4	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Bulgaria	86.0	85.5	6.0	7.8	1.5	0.9	2.6	1.9
Czech Rep.	96.3	96.7	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.6	1.0
Denmark	96.2	96.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.4	0.8
Germany	93.9	93.5	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.6
Estonia	94.6	93.8	1.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Ireland	97.8	96.9	1.5	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3
Greece	93.6	91.5	3.2	4.8	0.9	1.1	0.6	0.7
Spain	92.1	93.9	0.1	0.3	2.3	1.8	4.0	2.7
France	94.9	95.5	1.4	2.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	0.6
Italy	93.8	92.0	2.8	4.2	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Cyprus	94.3	93.0	2.8	4.3	0.7	0.7	1.5	1.3
Latvia	80.1	77.8	10.7	15.2	2.2	1.5	4.1	2.7
Lithuania	97.5	96.4	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5
Luxembourg	96.2	97.0	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.9	1.1
Hungary	91.8	92.6	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.5	4.1	3.1
Malta	94.8	93.9	1.0	1.6	0.2	0.2	2.6	2.8
Netherlands	98.8	98.9	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Austria	97.3	97.7	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3
Poland	86.5	85.0	2.5	3.8	2.5	2.2	2.4	1.7
Portugal	98.1	97.4	1.1	1.8	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1
Romania	89.1	85.1	7.7	11.2	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.1
Slovenia	99.7	99.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Slovakia	94.8	94.4	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.6	1.4
Finland	95.9	93.2	0.1	0.2	:	0.1	0.1	0.1
Sweden	90.1	87.5	0.2	0.6	1.8	2.0	4.1	4.6
UK	96.8	96.1	0.0	:	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Iceland	92.7	93.2	2.0	3.1	0.6	0.2	2.0	0.8
Norway	97.6	97.8	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2
Switzerland	98.2	97.8	0.7	1.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: hlth_silc_14); extracted on March 14th, 2012.

Annex 5.2.6 Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination men, by education level (in %), 2010

	Primary education	Upper secondary education	Tertiary education
EU 27	7.4	6.4	4.6
Belgium	1.1	0.6	0.3
Bulgaria	19.5	12.5	9.0
Czech Republic	3.2	3.6	4.4
Denmark	4.3	3.9	2.8
Germany	9.0	6.2	3.9
Estonia	5.9	5.5	4.9
Ireland	1.8	2.1	2.7
Greece	8.4	5.3	4.8
Spain	7.7	8.6	7.7
France	4.9	5.3	4.8
Italy	7.7	4.7	4.4
Cyprus	6.7	4.9	5.5
Latvia	23.2	19.9	13.8
Lithuania	3.5	2.8	0.8
Luxembourg	3.8	3.2	5.0
Hungary	10.3	8.3	4.6
Malta	5.4	4.8	4.4
Netherlands	1.6	1.1	0.9
Austria	4.1	2.4	2.0
Poland	15.2	13.5	11.3
Portugal	2.5	0.6	0.1
Romania	17.3	8.9	5.4
Slovenia	0.6	0.3	0.2
Slovakia	6.5	5.4	3.2
Finland	4.2	4.6	3.1
Sweden	8.5	11.0	8.5
United Kingdom	3.4	3.2	3.1
Iceland	11.0	6.0	4.5
Norway	3.7	2.1	1.9
Switzerland	2.3	1.7	1.7

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: hlth_silc_14); extracted on March 14th, 2012.

Annex 5.2.7 Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination men, by income (in %), 2010

	First quintile of equivalised income	Second quin- tile of equiv- alised income	Third quintile of equivalised income	Fourth quintile of equivalised income	Fifth quintile of equivalised income
EU 27	11.1	7.8	5.7	4.7	3.1
Belgium	1.4	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.8
Bulgaria	25.2	12.8	13.2	12.0	10.3
Czech Republic	5.2	3.4	2.7	4.5	3.4
Denmark	7.2	3.3	3.6	2.8	2.3
Germany	11.8	6.5	5.5	4.8	2.7
Estonia	8.8	6.5	6.2	2.5	4.4
Ireland	2.9	1.3	4.3	1.7	1.6
Greece	10.4	6.5	6.6	3.3	5.7
Spain	7.5	8.4	8.7	7.9	6.9
France	8.6	6.2	4.8	3.1	3.4
Italy	10.0	7.6	5.5	5.2	3.7
Cyprus	7.9	7.9	4.1	6.7	2.7
Latvia	30.7	23.3	19.7	15.9	12.8
Lithuania	3.6	2.6	2.4	3.6	1.0
Luxembourg	5.2	2.4	5.0	2.9	4.0
Hungary	12.6	8.5	8.6	6.7	5.8
Malta	6.3	5.2	5.8	4.8	4.1
Netherlands	1.3	0.8	1.8	1.3	0.4
Austria	4.9	3.5	1.9	2.6	1.0
Poland	17.7	14.5	12.5	11.9	12.4
Portugal	4.4	3.7	1.8	0.9	0.5
Romania	13.2	13.1	12.4	11.1	7.4
Slovenia	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4
Slovakia	7.2	6.0	4.7	5.1	3.7
Finland	5.9	4.7	4.1	4.3	2.0
Sweden	12.4	9.5	12.4	10.0	6.3
United Kingdom	5.9	3.9	3.1	2.4	1.7
Iceland	11.0	6.2	7.0	9.2	4.0
Norway	5.4	1.7	1.9	2.6	1.7
Switzerland	3.4	2.4	1.7	1.2	0.9

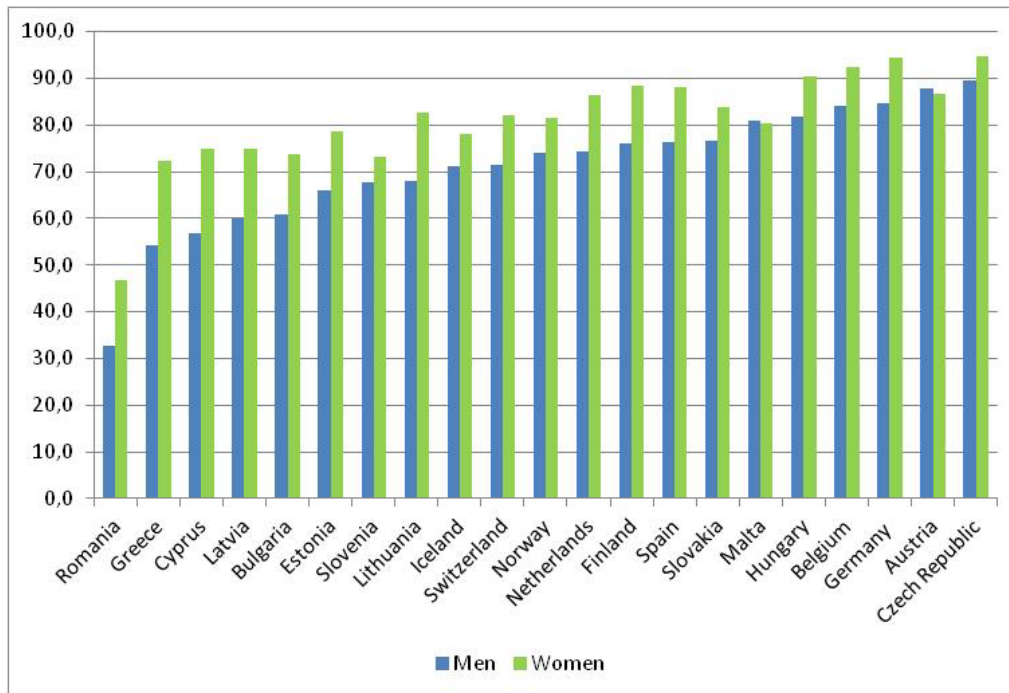
Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: hlth_silc_08); extracted on March 14th, 2012.

Annex 5.2.8 Consultation of a medical doctor during the past 12 months, by sex, men by age group (in %), 2002

	Men Total	Women Total	Men aged							
			15 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 to 74 years	75 to 84 years	85 years or over
Belgium	84.0	92.5	77.7	81.4	81.0	80.4	88.7	94.5	96.7	92.8
Bulgaria	60.9	73.8	55.7	54.3	57.1	57.6	63.6	74.6	79.0	80.6
Czech Rep.	89.4	94.6	91.2	90.4	81.7	87.8	92.8	94.2	95.7	
Germany	84.6	94.5	88.3	82.4	78.8	81.1	89.1	91.9	97.0	
Estonia	66.1	78.6	66.2	62.9	63.9	70.9	64.3	70.0	70.1	
Greece	54.3	72.4	21.2	31.6	44.4	54.8	73.7	87.9	93.5	92.4
Spain	76.4	88.1	71.6	68.4	70.3	75.3	83.1	92.0	96.9	97.3
Cyprus	56.7	74.9	43.7	43.2	52.4	55.5	69.8	81.6	93.9	89.1
Latvia	60.1	74.9	72.7	58.6	55.0	49.0	58.6	66.9		
Lithuania	67.9	82.6	72.3	67.0	63.5	66.1	74.7			
Hungary	81.8	90.3	79.7	77.6	78.1	84.1	87.1	85.8	87.1	
Malta	80.9	80.2	81.3	84.1	82.1	79.0	78.0	79.6	82.7	
Netherlands	74.2	86.4	68.8	67.4	72.6	72.9	78.6	88.0	91.0	97.7
Austria	87.8	86.7	83.4	86.9	86.7	87.9	90.1	90.9	94.2	95.7
Romania	32.6	46.8	16.3	20.0	28.8	38.3	47.7	58.6	65.2	64.0
Slovenia	67.6	73.3	62.9	68.2	63.5	70.3	64.0	79.6		
Slovakia	76.6	83.8	78.4	79.0	69.8	76.1	81.4			
Finland	75.9	88.4	73.1	68.9	76.7	78.7	79.9			
Iceland	71.2	78.1	75.5	69.7	68.2	77.1	70.8	64.1		
Norway	74.1	81.6	67.4	70.7	67.3	72.8	80.9	85.7	87.9	88.5
Switzerland	71.3	82.1	73.2	63.7	63.4	67.7	75.8	86.8	92.3	87.9

Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: hlth_co_doce); extracted on March 14th, 2012.

Annex 5.2.9 Consultation of a medical doctor during the past 12 months, by sex, in %, 2002



Source: Eurostat, LFS (online data code: hlth_co_doce); extracted on March 14th, 2012.

8.5 Annex 'Chapter political participation'

Annex 5.3.1 Political participation: female and male members of parliament (in %) single/lower house and upper house, 2004 and 2011

	2004		2011		Change 2004 - 2011
	Women (%)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Men (%)	Men (%)
EU-27	21	79	24	76	-3
Belgium	36	64	39	61	-3
Bulgaria	28	72	22	78	6
Czech Republic	14	86	21	79	-7
Denmark	38	62	38	62	0
Germany	31	69	32	68	-1
Estonia	15	85	24	76	-9
Ireland	13	87	15	85	-2
Greece	13	87	18	82	-5
Spain	32	68	35	65	-3
France	14	86	21	79	-7
Italy	10	90	20	80	-10
Cyprus	9	91	13	87	-4
Latvia	17	83	20	80	-3
Lithuania	22	78	19	81	3
Luxembourg	24	76	20	80	4
Hungary	9	91	9	91	0
Malta	9	91	9	91	0
Netherlands	36	64	37	63	-1
Austria	30	70	29	71	1
Poland	22	78	18	82	4
Portugal	20	80	30	70	-10
Romania	11	89	10	90	1
Slovenia	11	89	12	88	-1
Slovakia	17	83	16	84	1
Finland	38	62	40	60	-2
Sweden	48	52	46	54	2
United Kingdom	18	82	22	78	-4
Liechtenstein	13	87	24	76	-11
Iceland	31	69	41	59	-10
Norway	38	62	39	61	-1

Source: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making; extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011

Annex 5.3.2 Female and male members of representative assemblies of regional authorities that are endowed with self-government, in %, 2004* and 2011

	Members (regional assembly) 2004*		Members (regional assembly) 2011		Change 2004*-2011
	Women (%)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Men (%)	Men
Belgium	31	69	40	60	-9
Czech Republic	14	86	18	82	-4
Denmark*	30	70	34	66	-4
Germany	31	69	32	68	-1
Greece	18	82	17	83	1
Spain	37	63	43	57	-6
France	48	52	48	52	0
Italy	10	90	12	88	-2
Latvia*	34	66	21	79	13
Hungary	13	87	11	89	2
Netherlands	30	70	34	66	-4
Austria	30	70	30	70	0
Poland	15	85	24	76	-9
Portugal	15	85	22	78	-7
Romania*	6	94	15	85	-9
Slovakia	14	86	15	85	-1
Finland	44	56	42	58	2
Sweden	48	52	47	53	1
UK	21	79	31	69	-10
Norway	42	58	45	55	-3

Source: European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making; extracted on Dec. 9th, 2011; some countries are missing because concept not applicable for all countries; * Denmark and Romania: figures 2003; Latvia: figures 2007

Annex 5.3.3 - Additional examples of institutionalised men's policy

Austria

Concerning the involvement of men in gender equality policies and Gender Mainstreaming, the *Department for Men's Politics* at the *Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, and Consumer Protection* must be mentioned. A variety of - sometimes controversial - studies was financed, performed and published by the *Department for Men's Policy* (resp. by the *Ministry of Social Security, Generations and Consumer Protection* resp. its precursors¹³⁷). The topics of these studies have been relevant in terms of men and gender equality: for example fathers as single parents in Austria or reconciliation issues from the perspective of men. Today, the department lists and supports topics such as active fathers; *Boys' Day* (promoting unusual professional choices for boys and young men); *Men's Counselling Centres* and initiatives; violence prevention; integration; men's health.¹³⁸ The *Department for Men's Policy* is currently presented in the following way: "Core topics of men's policy are raising the awareness of equal partnerships, men's health, standing up against violence against and by male youths and men, positive identity development of male youths, further development of male roles as well as service for men-specific requests. The Department for Men's Policy at the Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection is a unique institution in Europe, functioning in addition to women's politics, in the sense of a partnership-based gender policy."¹³⁹ The above mentioned body as well as other official institutions organise and/or support certain campaigns and initiatives connected to men and gender equality topics. (See Scambor & Scambor, 2011)

Finland

An interesting and relevant feature in Finland is the high degree of involvement of men in state and governmental gender policy development. One of the most important impacts of the *Men's Subcommittee* (part of the national, governmental gender equality machinery) has been its long struggle for parental leave quotas for men, which were finally introduced at the beginning of 2003. The level of involvement by men can be

¹³⁷ For a list of publications, see: <https://broschuerenservice.bmask.gv.at/Default.aspx?CID=CH0010>

¹³⁸ <http://www.bmask.gv.at/site/Soziales/Maenner/>

¹³⁹ http://www.bmask.gv.at/site/Soziales/Maenner/Maennerpolitische_Grundsatzabteilung/; our translation

understood in terms of close historical connections of gender policy with the specific form of Nordic 'social democratic' welfare policy, with an emphasis on 'gender neutrality' as developed in Finland. Reorganisation of the governmental equality machinery has resulted in bringing together the *Men's Subcommittee* and that on *Women's and Men's Images in the Media* in order to form one joint subcommittee. This might suggest some downgrading of both of these issues, but at the same time the government has shown some more interest in the topic of men and gender equality. The *Governmental Programme for 2003–2007* includes, that gender equality will be assessed from a male perspective. This resulted in the topic of men and gender equality having its own section in the government's gender equality programme, thus becoming one of the priorities during Finland's EU presidency, including a European expert policy conference on men and gender equality. (See Varanka, et al., 2006)

Iceland

The two main fields where men have been organised in direct connection with gender issues are parental rights on the one hand and violence on the other. In the former field the organisation *Ábyrgir feður* (Responsible fathers) was founded in 1997, mainly by men who were dissatisfied with custody rights. The organisation changed its name to *Félag um foreldrajafnrétti* (Association for parental equality) in 2007, partly to acknowledge the fact that mothers had also joined, and partly as an indication of a somewhat broader perspective. Now the association has its representative on the *Gender Equality Council*¹⁴⁰, a public council for the promotion of gender equality.

There have also been attempts by the political establishment to engage men in the debate on gender equality. In 1994 the *Council for Gender Equality* appointed a *Men's Committee* for that purpose. This committee existed for 6 years and had a huge impact on debate and policy making during its lifetime and after. (See Gíslason, 2011)

Annex 5.3.4 - Examples of national groups and networks

Denmark

Back in 2009, a research association on men and masculinities was founded in Denmark: *Nordisk forening for Forskning om Mænd og Maskuliniteter* [Nordic Research Society on Men and Masculinities] The association publishes the journal *NORMA Nordisk tidsskrift for maskulinitetsstudier* [Nordic journal on masculinity studies]. As co-organiser of Nordic conferences on masculinity research, the network also contributes to promoting research. The goal of the Nordic Research Society on Men and Masculinities is to strengthen networking, research and collaboration across the Nordic countries. Among the active members of the association there are both female and male scientists which promote and spread the scientifically based research on men and masculinities, which again contributes to a progressive social and cultural change, equality and diversity.

Having similar goals to the Nordic Research Society on Men and Masculinities, *NeMM – Netværk for Forskning om Mænd og Maskuliniteter* [Research Network on Men and Masculinities] was founded in 2002, bringing together and supporting research on men and masculinities. Members of *NeMM* are both men and women who represent many scientific disciplines. (See Nielsen, 2011)

Iceland

In Iceland, a group of men belonging to the Icelandic Feminist Association (*Femínistafélag Íslands*) has been very active in initiating debates on men's violence towards women, particularly during the first weekend of August (the annual Merchant's Weekend *Verslunnarmannahelgi*), when traditionally many outdoor festivals all around Iceland happen. Rape rates have been high on *Verslunnarmannahelgi*, and therefore pamphlets, T-shirts and buttons have been distributed to remind men of their responsibility. They also mingle with the groups attending the various festivals and engage them in discussions about rape and male violence. (See Gíslason, 2011)

Spain

In the 80s and 90s, some key men spoke out publicly against patriarchal privilege and discrimination against women. In this period there also appeared the first pro-feminist men think tanks, some books, articles and

¹⁴⁰ The *Minister of Social Affairs* has appointed a *Gender Equality Council* "[...] to make systematic efforts to equalize the status and the right of women and men in the labour market." (<http://sgdatabse.unwomen.org/uploads/Center%20for%20Gender%20Equality.pdf>)

the first conferences discussing masculinities. In the early twenty-first century there is a new impulse of men's movement for equality in Spain to be noticed. A highlight was the creation of the first institutional programme *Men for Equality* in the city of Jerez de la Frontera (Andalusia) in 1999. Also, around 2001, the first associations, platforms and networks of men for equality were created. Since 2001, the Spanish network *AHIGE Asociación de hombres por la igualdad* has been working against 'machismo' and homophobia, for a society without gender discrimination and for a pro-equality change among men. Coinciding with the legislative momentum towards equality (*Violence Against Women Act 1/2004* and the *Equality Act 3/2007*), the men's movement for equality in Spain ceases to be anecdotal, although a minority has become increasingly visible. Very important initiatives have appeared which enjoy institutional support, such as the programme for men and equality *Gizonduz* in the Basque Country (2008), promoted by the regional *Basque Government* through *Emakunde*, the *Basque Institute for Women*. The *Men for Equality Activities Movement* has grown and become more decisive, although uncoordinated. (See Abril Morales & Romero, 2011)

Sweden

There have been several attempts to pro-feminist men's movements in Sweden during the years in which men and equality issues have developed. Several networks and initiatives compose what might be called a Swedish pro-feminist men's movement, but nothing that really made any impact. There is, for instance, *Män för jämställdhet* [Men for gender equality], which works for equality and against men's violence. The organisation has initiated projects on men and equality funded by the government. Other Swedish organisations focussing on men are *Crises Centres for Men* which are established in six cities. At these centres men can get therapeutic help by professional therapists, the focus is mainly on men in crises, but also on men and violence. There are shelters focussing on men, but on a non-professional basis. These shelters are not like the women's shelters focussing on victims of violence but rather on men in different forms of relational crises. Some of these organisations claim to act on a pro-feminist platform or from a critical perspective; however this has been contested from a feminist standpoint. Over the years, there have been a number of initiatives explicitly involving men in gender equality: for example, *Man i Västernorrland* [Men in the western part of Northern Sweden] was a project led by the *County Administrative Board* focussing on extending the 'male role'. (See Balkmar, 2011)

United Kingdom

The *Coalition on Men and Boys* was formally launched on Nov. 26th 2007. Current members are *Action for Children*, *Bradford University's Research Unit on Men and Masculinities*, the *Fatherhood Institute*, *Men's Advice Line*, *Men's Health Forum*, *Relate*, *Respect* (the national association for domestic violence perpetrator programmes), and the *White Ribbon Campaign*. The *Coalition* aims to put issues of concern for men and boys firmly on the public policy agenda, in the context of moving towards greater gender equality. The *Coalition* is unique in that there is currently no other organisation that addresses these issues across the range of public policy and in that it advises the Government and other policy-making and services-delivery agencies on them. The *Coalition* can also, in active collaboration with women's organisations, provide a national lead in encouraging support and responsibility amongst men and boys for measures to tackle discrimination and gender-based violence. The *Coalition* has received encouragement and support from the *Home Office*, the *Government Equalities Office* and the *Equality and Human Rights Commission*. (See Raine & White, 2011)

Annex 5.3.5 - Examples of fathers' rights groups

Austria

Platforms and associations have emerged that support the perspectives and topics of divorced fathers, in Austria sometimes summarised by the term 'fathers' rights movement'. Some of the topics raised point to problems that experts from law or counselling services see as well (for example custody in case of unmarried couples; prejudices and assumptions at court, in the direction of traditional roles of parents; precarious financial situation for some or all persons involved); however, the concerns expressed on these platforms easily lead to polemics in the public discourse, often using a struggle-between-the-sexes kind of argumentation. (See Scambor & Scambor, 2011)

Czech Republic

The share of men's custody over children after divorce is relatively low in Czech Republic. The proportion slowly increases for 'alternating' or shared custody. This issue is one of the most well known issues on men and equality (mainly based on media attention). Several fathers' rights initiatives or active NGOs concentrate

on the topic of men's custody. It is one of the conflicting issues between these NGOs and feminist organisations, as these groups interpret the situation unfavourably for a number of fathers (e.g. 90% of children live with their mothers) in a very dogmatic, stereotypical way. They blame courts for prejudices against men and being biased in favour of women (in their interpretation, one of the core reasons for the situation is the fact that most judges are women). (See Šmídová, 2011)

Italy

A new phenomenon is emerging at cultural and symbolic level in Italy: the movement for fathers' rights, as part of the more general men's rights movement. These are predominantly groups aiming at re-conquering the paternal role in the right to custody of children after marital separation and – in some cases – proposing a reformed image of fatherhood compared with the traditional model. They include the *Associazione Padri Separati* in Bologna, the *Associazione Papà Separati* based in Milan; the *Associazione Padri Presenti* and the *Associazione Padri e Madri*, both in Verona; the *Padri ad ore*, *Assopapà*, *Padri Negati*, *Gesef-Genitori separati dai figli*, all in Rome; the *Padri Italiani Uniti* and *Papà separati* based in Turin; and the *Associazione Figli Negati*. These associations often meet, join movements such as the *Armata dei Papà* (Dad's Army), or organise appeals, demonstrations, marches, campaigns and pressure actions on issues of fatherhood and claims for men's rights. (See Ruspini, 2011)

Poland

Currently, in support of father's rights but also of the *Right of Children to Have Both Parents Act*, actors have come together in big organisations such as *Stołeczne Stowarzyszenie Obrony Praw Ojca* [Capital Association of Father's Rights Defense], *Centralne Stowarzyszenie Obrony Praw Ojca i Dziecka* [Central Association of Father's and Child's Rights Defense], *Centrum Praw Ojca i Dziecka* [Centre of Father's and Child's Rights], *Komitet Przestrogi Przed Oddzieleniem Rodzica* [Committee of Parent's Separation Admonition], *Stowarzyszenie na Rzecz Poszanowania Prawa Dzieci i Rodziny "Ojcowie z Trójmiasta"* [Association in Aid of Children's and Family's Rights Comity "Fathers from Trójmiasto"], *Fundacja Akcja* [Action Foundation]. Players from all groups and associations assume that methods of acting which are typical for these institutions endanger the interests of both fathers and children who, as a result of decisions by judges, are deprived of the right to have both parents. In addition, some of the activists defy men's discrimination also outside courtrooms and fight domestic violence against men, negative stereotypes regarding male social roles and the treatment of men only as breadwinners while ignoring their roles as fathers, husbands, human beings. (See Wojnicka, 2011)

Portugal

A number of social movements, such as the *Associação Pais para Sempre* (Parents Forever) among others, have gained further visibility and strived for men's rights as fathers/parents, hoping to reduce the gate-keeping role of women or the biased views often prevailing at family courts, in spite of the egalitarian orientation of the law. (See Aboim & Vasconcelos, 2011)

9 Annex: Country Factsheets¹⁴¹

9.1 Country Factsheet Belgium

Country Factsheet I Belgium: Some facts and figures

Belgium; national expert(s): Nathalie Wuiame		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	13.8% men / 10% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	80.3% men / 84.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	39% men / 50% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	67.4% men / 56.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	86% men / 76.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	89.6% men / 71.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	8.4% men / 42.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	11%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	83.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	10.2%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index ¹⁴²	26.6	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	29.7%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	19.8%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is not compulsory and it means either 4 months full-time (or 8 months half-time, or 20 months 1/5 time) before the child reaches 12 years.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers have the same right to take parental leave. Payment is not related to earnings. The leave is unpaid, but a monthly benefit (of EUR 771.33 as from 1 February 2012, for a full-time leave) is served by the statutory Unemployment Insurance scheme.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	24%	National source: Statistics for 2009.
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave is not compulsory and lasts 10 days, to be taken within 4 months after the date of birth. The first 3 days are fully paid and the 7 other days are paid, with 82% of the wage with a ceiling.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	35%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	99%	2010, Eurostat

¹⁴¹ The country factsheets were financed by, and prepared for the use of the European Commission, DG Justice, Unit D2 Gender equality, in the framework of the study *Role of Men in Gender Equality*. The factsheets contain Eurostat data as well as national data provided by national experts and do not necessarily reflect the opinion or position of the European Commission nor any person acting on its behalf is responsible for the use that might be made of the information contained in these sheets.

¹⁴² The Gini index is a measure of statistical dispersion. It measures the inequality among values of a frequency distribution (for example levels of income). A Gini index of zero expresses perfect equality (for example, where everyone has an exactly equal income) an index of 100 expresses maximal inequality among values.

Belgium; national expert(s): Nathalie Wuiame		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.8 men / 1.3 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	77.6 men / 83 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	60%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	77%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	90%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Belgium by Nathalie Wuiame

Country Factsheet II Belgium: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Belgium; national expert(s): Nathalie Wuiame		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Article 11bis of the Constitution provides that with any public executive authority not all members may be of the same sex. Electoral legislation (at federal and local levels) provides that parity of sexes must be assured in all lists of candidates; moreover, as the whole electoral system is proportional, the first two candidates on every list must be of different sexes.	
Example 2:	33 % quotas in management boards of state-owned and publicly listed companies . Law adopted on 28 July 2011.	
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Paternity leave has been extended from 3 to 10 days after the birth, which is already a good step. The payment is also linked to the salary (82%), even if there is a ceiling. However, fathers would like to have more days in particular to be present before the birth. ■ The parental leave is accessible to both parents until the child has reached the age of 12. The positive aspect of the scheme is that it is not necessary to take full time parental leave; it can be taken at 1/2 or 1/5 time. This is clearly more attractive for men, as shown by statistics. ■ Awareness raising campaigns are also probably very useful, but their impact on the take up rate has not been assessed. Regarding the field of employment, while proactive measures (e.g. positive actions) are quite controversial in Belgium for men as well as for women, one may wonder whether measures to decrease the labour market segregation are necessary. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The main obstacles concern: payment during the leave (not linked to salary), lack of social recognition by employers, peers and public authorities and work pressure (culture of overtime) and fear of adverse effects on the career. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Paternity leave should be made compulsory, so that a father will not have to ask his employer and will not fear reactions of colleagues. If that is done, it would also be necessary to remove the maximum ceiling of the pay. Rewarding enterprises that have proactive measures towards their employees (in particular male ones) on parental leave would be important. ■ Parental leave compensation proportionate to the wage of parent. ■ Regarding role of men in gender equality, the gender mainstreaming strategy should also be used to look at specific needs and obstacles of men. However, this would mean extra funding. Currently scarce resources lead to a competition between different interest groups (i.e. men and women's networks), while the goal (greater equality for both) is common. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Belgium by Nathalie Wuiame

9.2 Country Factsheet Bulgaria

Country Factsheet I Bulgaria: Some facts and figures

Bulgaria; national expert(s): Dimitar Kambourov		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	13.2% men / 14.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	85% men / 83.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	20.7% men / 35.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	63% men / 56.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	78.5% men / 73.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	80.8% men / 53.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	2% men / 2.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	72.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	13.0%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	33.2	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	31.3%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	9.5%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	The parental leave means 64 paid (90%) weeks, 40 days of which are compulsory for the mother – maternity leave; and 15 days are eligible but not compulsory for the father.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers can take 15 days paid leave (90%) from the total parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave does not exist.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	7%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	54%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	2.7 men / 0.9 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	70.3 men / 77.4 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	78%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	67%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	89%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Bulgaria by Dimitar Kambourov

Country Factsheet II Bulgaria: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Bulgaria; national expert(s): Dimitar Kambourov		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Quotas exist at specialized high schools for foreign languages, humanities and mathematics, etc. 50% girls and 50% boys. Every year there are protests by the parents of girls, and at the end of the day the decision to abolish the rule is cancelled.	
Example 2:	Although the state does not require quotas for colleges, most of the universities and majors stick to the quotas principle, despite the powerful voices against them. If there are no male candidates for particular majors, the quotas are filled with girls and vice/versa.	
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The most important measures have been the Protection against Discrimination Law from 2003, supplemented in 2004 and changed in 2005; the way it has been accomplished referred clearly to discrimination on the basis of gender. Also the Law against domestic violence. ■ The initiatives of quite a few NGOs to put on the table the issue of gender inequality and to look for measures in order to overcome it or at least diminish it. ■ Managers and directors have been encouraged to become aware of the importance to facilitate women's paid employment for better results of their own enterprises. They have also been encouraged to implement a more flexible working time for men and women with children as well as to provide kindergartens within their companies. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The main obstacles stem from tradition, a sense of would be positive social change after 1989, requiring the reproduction of alleged western gender practices (men-breadwinner, woman-housewife) or return to pre-War and pre-communist conservative models. Another problem is that apparent positive tendencies in particular spheres, for example better wages for women, more flexible and just distribution of domestic chores and childcare, readiness of a considerable amount of men to accept the role of househusbands (100 000 according to the last census), on the whole the relatively improved and stabilized position of women both at work and at home, have apparently a negative backlash effect on men, whose level of depression is extremely high, who die at a much younger age than women, who often get involved in actions of domestic violence. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Still, it is of crucial importance to change the political, cultural, media and general gender climate of this country, as the symbolic pressure on men who have not done that well during the transition is tremendous. Still the general attitude that men with low income, particularly if it is lower than that of the female partners, is that such men are losers, deprived of respect by both men and women even if they do their jobs well and achieve good results. The Media are of importance, as their power is higher than that of educational institutions or NGO gender initiatives, surveys and projects. Influencing the private media as well as the people and the younger generation is decisive in order to raise the level of gender sensitivity and responsiveness. ■ It is also important for Bulgarian NGOs focused on gender to shift their anxious glance from the faith of women to the fortune of men in this society. The research done under the auspices of such NGOs is by definition very persuasive as far as women's grievances are at stake and it is completely blind and mute with regard to those male groups who are also losers of the transition, of the changed gender regime and hegemonic masculinity. Women, often even among those who fight gender inequality, divide men into two categories – those whom they respect and whom they fight, and losers whom they despise and for whom they are blind. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Bulgaria by Dimitar Kambourov

9.3 Country Factsheet Czech Republic

Country Factsheet I Czech Republic: Some facts and figures

Czech Republic; national expert(s): Iva Šmídová		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	4.9% men / 4.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	91.1% men / 92.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	18.6% men / 22.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	73.5% men / 56.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	91.2% men / 71.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	94.7% men / 36.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	2.2% men / 9.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	11.0%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	71.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	25.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	24.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	28.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	14.5%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Maternity leave is 28 weeks, right after birth (or 37 in case of giving birth to more than one child; it is compulsory for at least 14 weeks and cannot be terminated earlier than after 6 weeks). Parental leave is available to each or both parents, only one gets paid. Parents choose the "speed" of their parental leave (until the age of 2, 3, or 4 years of the child for one of them); and the connected amount that is fixed for each selected period. The paid period covers the first 3 years of the child.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	The father can alternate in maternity leave, starting by the 7th week after birth, and he is entitled to the same financial benefit; it is without relation to former income.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	1.5%	National source: http://www.mpsv.cz/cs/2 (visited September 3, 2011)
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no particular paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	3%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	71%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1 men / 0.7 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	74.5 men / 80.9 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	78%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	100%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	88%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Czech Republic by Iva Šmídová

Country Factsheet II Czech Republic: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Czech Republic; national expert(s): Iva Šmídová		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Rhetoric emphasis on equal opportunities both for women as well as for men is sometimes helpful (no discrimination of men) and prevents structural inequality concerning women at other times. Topics in the public debate concerning men and equality encompass the family (harmonisation of life and work, equality in the division of housework and care for children; custody after divorce), risky life style (health, violence - men as victims). ■ In 2001 a parental leave has been introduced, allowing men to take care of their children; since 2005 there is no compulsory military service (as it was for men only), there is the new institution of a widowers pension, and the retirement age is equalized. ■ There are very few NGOs explicitly addressing men's equality, even fewer are not reluctant to accept feminist or gender sensitive approaches among their issues (www.ilom.cz would be one of such organizations). On the level of state administration, the issue of equality and men's equality is dealt with in very varied ways, depending on individual ideological convictions of the particular staff - concerning necessity and usefulness of the concept of gender equality or their ignorance or even aversion to anything "imported" or "feminist". ■ There are several public institutions addressing gender equality in particular, a special Working group on men's equality was established in 2012 as a part of the The Government Council for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men, so the near future will show more intense and co-ordinated action (representatives from the public administration sector, NGOs and academia have been invited to participate in the WG). 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Generally, gender equality is perceived as an issue imported to the Czech context by the legislation and norms of the European Union. ■ Alternating or joint custody over children after divorce is a new issue at courts, too. The "equality" of attention paid to gender relevant problems has repeatedly brought up the issue of men as victims of domestic violence (legitimized stereotypically by pointing out that family is a woman's domain and thus men are dominated there). Very often, the serious and often complex problem is interpreted in an oversimplified way. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ More systematic, coordinated action is needed. The Working group (now being established) is a good start (the time and know-how of the representatives should be rewarded, though /e.g. paid/). There are clear niches of social exclusion, where in particular the attention of public policies and assistance should be directed (boys dropping out of the educational system; risky life style and criminal records, violence, etc.) - these should be approached, although not as examples of discrimination against particular groups of men but as the other side of the gendered structure of society and inequality in more general terms. ■ Parental leave will probably be introduced soon. ■ More education and public attention should be directed towards better awareness of the effects of "individual" (and often unreflectively gendered) choices. This means opening up options for "positive" change (alternative - more gender equal - lifestyles), learning (obtaining info and education) concerning consequences of gender stereotypical choices - to help make informed decisions. These steps must be made on the state level by starting programs, supporting NGO's and bringing the issue to schools. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Czech Republic by Iva Šmídová

9.4 Country Factsheet Denmark

Country Factsheet I Denmark: Some facts and figures

Denmark; national expert(s): Steen Baagøe Nielsen		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	14.1% men / 7.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	61.7% men / 75.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	36.7% men / 45.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	75.6% men / 71.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	14% men / 38.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	17.2%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	83%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	16.0%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	26.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	43.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	30.5%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Paternal leave is compulsory and lasts 52 weeks (4 weeks before and 14 weeks after birth are reserved for the mother). It is paid 100% up to the first 24 weeks (for the couple), after that at the level of unemployment benefit.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	34 weeks are eligible for fathers.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	56%	National source: Bloksgaard, Lotte. 2011 Mænd, barselsrettigheder og brug af barsel 3F, København 2012
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave is compulsory, fully-paid and lasts 2 weeks maximum.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	79%	National source: data for 2008: http://forside.kvinfo.dk/tema/folketingsvalget-2011/danske-maend-uden-formelle-rettigheder-til-barsel
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	77%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	84%	2009, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.1 men / 0.5 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	77.2 men / 81.4 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	62%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	53%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	82%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Denmark by Steen Baagøe Nielsen

Country Factsheet II Denmark: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Denmark; national expert(s): Steen Baagøe Nielsen		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas - except for parental leave - indeed almost all political parties have abolished quotas in their representations.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Legal framework/laws prohibiting unequal treatment on the grounds of sex/gender implemented in the 1980ies. Followed by fines for discrimination. ■ Larger focus on gender and equality issues in general - and a special focus on men and masculinities - supported and sparked especially by the short-lived government-supported but independent body "National Research and Documentation Centre on Gender Equality" (2000-2002). ■ Various NGO-organisations around research on men and masculinities (e.g. NeMM.dk; Mens Health) have supported a more knowledge-based debate - on fathering, leave-arrangements and men's care work as well as on men's health and violence. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A major obstacle in the Danish debate has been the lack of a knowledge-based debate and discourse on men and masculinities - and the lack of political focus of the neo-liberal government 2001-2011. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Quotas for paternal leave arrangements - as in Iceland - with full compensation of wage loss. To boost men's caring potentials and the transfer of caring abilities to interest and professional competence within the growing care sector (with good job opportunities). ■ Focus on a broader and more professionalised gender knowledge base at schools and kindergartens (education for the youngest) to break the essentialist and biologist discourses around 'boys underachievement' at schools. This discourse has been very strong among teachers in DK. ■ Focus on the costs of men's violence against other men as well as women! More support (economic and professional) for NGOs which work with violent offenders, men in crisis, 'work with boys' etc. - This type of work is not very much developed in Denmark. ■ We need an independent and strong official body (with public funding) to build a basic national knowledge and research base - and act as a political watchdog in Denmark. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Denmark by Steen Baagøe Nielsen

9.5 Country Factsheet Germany

9.5.1 Country Factsheet I Germany: Some facts and figures

Germany; national expert(s): Marc Gärtner, Thomas Viola Rieske, Ralf Puchert		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	12.7% men / 11% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	72.2% men / 76.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	29.9% men / 29.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	76.0% men / 66,1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	87.2% men / 76.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	90.5% men / 55.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	8.7% men / 45% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	12.4%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	85.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	22.3%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	29.3	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	31.9%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	15.4%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Maximum of 60 weeks of paid parental leave for both parents altogether, but a maximum 12 months (= 51.4 weeks) for each of them. About 67% of netto wages of the last year before birth. Benefit is 300€ minimum, maximum 1800€.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Each parent is eligible for up to 12 months (= 51.4 weeks) according to the conditions described above..	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	23.3%	National source: http://www.bmfsfj.de/bmfsfj/genera-tor/BMFSFJ/familie,did=76746.html ,
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	77%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	92%	2009, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.5 men / 0.6 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78 men / 83 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	67%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	72%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	87%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Germany by Marc Gärtner, Thomas Viola Rieske, Ralf Puchert

Country Factsheet II Germany: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Germany; national expert(s): Marc Gärtner, Thomas Viola Rieske, Ralf Puchert		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Since March 2010, the Deutsche Telekom aims at achieving a share of 30 percent of women in top and middle-management positions by the end of 2015.	http://www.telekom.com/dtag/cms/content/dt/de/829454%3Bjsessionid=FB545A879F8D542631006115D49FCA39 , October 7, 2011.
Example 2:	According to the Federal Gender Equality Act (Bundesgleichstellungsgesetz), a "relative quotas" applies for public services . This implies that female applicants to public services occupations should be preferred in case of equal qualification.	
Example 3:	Political parties have different regulations. The Green Party was the first one to establish quotas in 1979. A minimum of 50% of party functions shall be held by women. The Left Party also introduced a 50% quotas, the Social Democrats have a 40% quotas, and the Christian Democrats have a "quorum" for a third of all party functions.	
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Introduction of a new parental leave regulation has changed the number of men's taking parental leave. ■ Change of alimony laws in 2008: weakened the legal reproduction of male breadwinner / female housewife model. ■ Introduction of the law on part time and limited work contracts in 2001, improved part time options. ■ There are several initiatives funded by the federal government to attract men to caring professions: The project "New paths for boys" (since 2005) and the "Boys' day" (since 2011), and also the coordination project "Men into elementary education" (since 2010). ■ A federal focus point on men's issues, the Bundesforum Männer, was implemented in 2010. It actively supports gender equality with a perspective on men, boys, and fathers. ■ The act on same sex partnership, but also many regional and local initiatives have supported non-heterosexuals and thus helped to diversify men's ways of life. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Obstacles appeared in the context of antifeminist resistance against gender equality. ■ Sometimes men's issues in terms of gender relations (e.g.: health issues, care involvement) are overlooked in gender equality policies. ■ The splitting of income taxes seems to be one of the key drivers of the breadwinner tradition. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<p>Generally, we need measures that relieve men from the duty of being "breadwinner for heterosexual family" and foster caring masculinities. These may include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ a general reduction of working hours towards around 30 hours per week, as many men wish for less working hours and many women wish for more ■ quotas for women in leading positions (40% as an aim), which could also help to increase the share of those men who do not fit so much in homogenous or traditional stereotypes, e.g. men with care duties. ■ quotas in relation to horizontal segregation: striving towards 30% of men or women in fields wherever they are under-represented (as the trade union in education and research, GEW, postulates) ■ implementing gender competence into teacher training and at schools: allowing for gender diversity amongst teachers and students, reflecting the impacts of femininities and masculinities on learning, living and working ■ custody for unmarried parents: creating a law that will give fathers a right to custody and at the same time acknowledges the difficult position of those who do most of the care work for very young children (mostly women) 		

Source: Country Factsheet Germany by Marc Gärtner, Thomas Viola Rieske, Ralf Puchert

9.6 Country Factsheet Estonia

Country Factsheet I Estonia: Some facts and figures

Estonia; national expert(s): Marre Karu		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	15.2% men / Not available	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	76.9% men / 89.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	32.2% men / 47.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	61.5% men / 60.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	76.7% men / 73.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	82.7% men / 54% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	6.2% men / 13.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	68.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	27.7%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	31.3	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	42.2%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	30.5%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave lasts 3 years. The general rule is to cover 100% of the parental leave for 1.5 years.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers are eligible to parental leave and parental benefit, but there is no father's quotas; fathers can take any time of the 156 weeks.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	5.4%	National source: data for Januar 2012 http://www.ensib.ee/public/statisti-ka_ja_eelarve/VH_tabelid_3_1012012.xls
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is 2 weeks of non-compulsory paternity leave. Currently it is unpaid, but from 2013 on 100% of the previous earnings (up to a certain ceiling) will be compensated.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	10%	National source: Estimation for 2000-2007 in Võrk, A., Karu, M., Tiit, E-M. (2009) Vanemahüvitis: kasutamine ning mõjud tööturu- ja sündimuskäitumisele 2004–2007.
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	21%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	92%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	8.8 men / 3.1 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	70.6 men / 80.8 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	77%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	92%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	93%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Estonia by Marre Karu

Country Factsheet II Estonia: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Estonia; national expert(s): Marre Karu		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The main measures that can be pointed out are the measures aiming at improving family and work reconciliation. Since difficulties with family and work reconciliation are regarded to be one of the main reasons behind lower female employment, gender segregation and gender pay gap, these measures are expected to improve gender equality. For instance, there is a very generously paid (100% of previous income) parental leave which is available also to men, but the take-up remains low (see above). However, after implementing the generous parental benefit, the participation of men in childcare has somewhat increased. Among other things, increasing awareness of fathers' rights and decreasing gender stereotypes are intended. Also, implementation of fathers' quotas and/or increasing the flexibility of parental leave scheme are under discussion. ■ Development and implementation of action plan to reduce the gender pay gap. The draft action plan includes a whole set of activities, and the approach is to tackle the gender pay gap by a complex approach, starting with family and work reconciliation measures, increasing awareness, improving statistics and knowledge 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Gender equality in its more recent form has been gaining prevalence only recently. Therefore the equality policies have quite a short history and there are still many obstacles for achieving the gender equality. Policy making generally remains gender blind and gender mainstreaming is not a principle that would be used. Gender equality and feminism are still largely perceived as tools and principles which work mainly in favour of woman. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ First, the gender gap in life expectancy should be tackled. The emphasis of policy measures should be more on the prevention and reduction of risky behaviour of men. This would have an impact on gender equality in health and life quality, but also it can help reduce female poverty at old age when women are widowed and therefore at-risk-of-poverty. Old-age pensions are often insufficient to keep persons living in single-household out of poverty. ■ Second recommendation is to further increase the contribution of men to family life and improve family and work reconciliation of both men and women. In the long run, this should improve the gender equality on the labour market, as career breaks for women should become shorter if the parental leave is shared by the parents. Taking into account the experiences from other countries, one of the most effective ways of increasing father's participation in parental leave is to implement fathers' quotas, which is also discussed in Estonia. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Estonia by Marre Karu

9.7 Country Factsheet Greece

Country Factsheet I Greece: Some facts and figures

Greece; national expert(s): Laura Alipranti-Maratou		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	16.5% men / 10.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	79.5% men / 87.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Teainment (male in % / female in %)	25.7% men / 31.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	70.9% men / 48.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	85.9% men / 63.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	92.6% men / 56.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	3.4% men / 10.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	21.8%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	90.4%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	22%	2008, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	32.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	20.7%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	7.9%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	It differs by sector of economy. Parental leave in the public sector is up to 9 months for parents (or reduced working hours). Working parents in the private sector are entitled to a reduced working day at full pay in principle intended for breastfeeding up to the age of 2. There is also a 6 months additional paid maternity leave.	
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	In the public sector and the private sector as well fathers have the opportunity to take parental leave or reduced working hours. It is fully compensated and considered employment time for labour and social security benefits.	
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave differs by sector of economy. In the private sector in case of childbirth the father is entitled to a 2 days paid leave for every child. In the public sector fathers are entitled to 5 days of a so-called special family leave upon their child's birth.	
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	8%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	58%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	2 men / 0.7 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78.4 men / 82.8 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	83%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	80%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	94%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Greece by Laura Alipranti-Maratou

Country Factsheet II Greece: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Greece; national expert(s): Laura Alipranti-Maratou		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Law 2910/2001 stipulates participation of 1/3 of each gender on electoral lists for local and regional government (Municipal and Prefectural elections).	
Example 2:	Quotas for candidates in national elections . This provision requires that every party present a number of candidates of each sex which corresponds to one third of the total number of its candidates in the country.	
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Public debate focuses on the reorientation of existing policies and the formulation of new and more coherent policy programs that will include the gender dimension more explicitly and will enhance the presence of fathers in everyday family life and in gender equality policy in general. ■ All sectors of the Greek economy know rights and regulations for the reconciliation and harmonious combination of private and professional life. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Although there are measures and parental leaves in both sectors of the economy, in the public sector the provisions are more generous and in the private sector most of them are not paid. This fact discourages parents and especially fathers from taking advantage of these leaves. The tendency, though, is for industries and firms with strong unions to converge with the public sector provisions. ■ Gender stereotypes are still persisting on the labour market and in mass media; women continue to be responsible for domestic work and taking care of small children. ■ The under-representation of women with employers' associations/trade unions is also a serious obstacle for the promotion and establishment of equality policies. ■ Another crucial factor is the hesitation of employers to provide flexible working time arrangements for employees or to take the responsibility for the cost of child care or the cost for long-term leaves. There is limited integration of gender dimension in business culture and society in general. ■ No evidence regarding the empowerment of father's participation in child rearing and housework tasks. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Action for raising public awareness in order to instigate male parents to participate more actively in domestic activities/and care for dependent family members. ■ Providing incentives for fathers to take advantage of parental leaves. ■ Turning currently unpaid parental leaves into paid ones. ■ Expanding the provisions for paid parental leaves on the private sector as well. ■ Introducing flexible working time arrangements. ■ Creating a positive attitude toward carrier obstacles and promoting re-integration programs for employees returning to the company/ enterprise after a longer absence. ■ The development and promotion of policies harmonizing professional and family obligations. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Greece by Laura Alipranti-Maratou

9.8 Country Factsheet Spain

Country Factsheet I Spain: Some facts and figures

Spain; national expert(s): Paco Abril, Alfons Romero		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	33.5% men / 23.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	54.7% men / 67.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	35.7% men / 45.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	64.7% men / 52.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	75.7% men / 64.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	80.8% men / 58.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	5.2% men / 23.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	16%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	86.3%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	16.2%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	33.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	35%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	22.9%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is compulsory. 10 out of the 16 weeks of maternity leave can be used both by men or women.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	The father can take 10 weeks of parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	1.8%	National source: Ministry of Labour and Immigration, 2011
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There exists a compulsory paternity leave of 2 weeks. During this period the fathers are fully paid.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	80%	National source: Ministry of Labour and Immigration, 2011
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	38%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	95%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1 men / 0.4 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79.1 men / 85.3 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	63%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	64%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	90%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Spain by Paco Abril, Alfons Romero

Country Factsheet II Spain: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Spain; national expert(s): Paco Abril, Alfons Romero		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	No information	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In recent years, legislative reforms that have encouraged gender equality have been promoted in the country. Some of these new laws are: the Organic Law on Integral Protection Measures against Gender Violence, 2004, the legalization of same-sex marriages in 2005 or the Equality Act 2007. ■ Other interesting initiatives: Basque country positive actions for men (parental leave) and Gizonduz (programme to foster men and equality in the Basque country since 2008). 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ One is the inflexibility of companies and labour conditions that are still dominated by the breadwinner model. Behind this there is also a compartmentalized view of time which focuses on work as being central for the lives of men. ■ Measures to reconcile work and family life are inadequate and have little impact on the development of masculinities which might include caring. ■ Another aspect is segregation and gender stereotypes that persist on the labour market, fuelled by segregation regarding the choice of learning paths in education. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The training of teachers and the neutralization of gender stereotypes from early childhood education. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Spain by Paco Abril, Alfons Romero

9.9 Country Factsheet France

Country Factsheet I France: Some facts and figures

France; national expert(s): Sophia Belghiti-Mahut		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	15.2% men / 10% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	80.2% men / 86.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	39.3% men / 47.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	68.1% men / 59.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	87.2% men / 76.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	90.6% men / 67.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	6.4% men / 30% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	17.6%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	81.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	15.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	29.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	29.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	19%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	There is a 16 weeks maternity leave for mothers; 8 weeks are mandatory (for women). Parental leave is not compulsory. 6 months for one child and 1 year renewable up to 3 years for 3 children or more.	
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers can take parental leave. It is an unpaid leave, but there is a compensation of 560 € / month for 6 months for the 1st child, and 156 weeks for parents of more than 1 child. If there are 3 children or more, the leave of 1 year, 52 weeks for both parents is compensated with 801€/month.	
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	6%	National source: DREES, N°751, février 2011.
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave is not compulsory. It is a 3+11 days (2 weeks) paid leave with ceiling.	
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	66%	National source: DREES, Etudes et Résultats, N°442, nov 2005.
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	42%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	94%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.9 men / 0.4 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78.3 men / 85.3 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	81%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	66%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	88%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet France by Sophia Belghiti-Mahut

Country Factsheet II France: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

France; national expert(s): Sophia Belghiti-Mahut		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Companies with at least 500 employees are obliged to set a quota of 20% for women by the end of 2014 and a quota of 40% for women by the end of 2017 for their boards of directors or suffer sanctions (Act of 27th January 2011).	
Example 2:	Women's quotas in politics (50%). The law will adjust the public funding of political parties according to their respect of this parity implementation when deciding to nominate female candidates for election: (Act of 6th June 2000).	
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The parity law was a good thing, because it helped to get the topic of women in politics out of the backroom and had it be openly discussed among the public. This created a dynamics that enabled women and men to engage in this rich debate. At the symbolic level, it was very important to discuss politics, power, and hegemony of men in the French society. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Despite the parity law, political parties still find it difficult to trust women. The problem is that the law does not cover the top candidates. As a result, parties are content to apply it regardless of the overall reform commitment, so they enlist 50% of women, but at the bottom of the lists. In politics, the more a candidate has exposure in the local political landscape, the greater his/her chance to be elected. Women, being newcomers on this ground, are disadvantaged. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In France, in order to have a better involvement of fathers in equality, there should be a serious rethinking of parental leave. So many leaves, most of them with complex mechanisms, and especially with low compensation and quite long (3 years). The consequence is that women take the majority of these leaves, which does not help for a better distribution of roles. The idea is to use a short parental leave (6 months for example) for one parent, non-transferable to another parent. (A reform of parental leave is currently under debate). ■ Similarly, companies have to play an important role, which is to get more involved in parenting and, moreover, by taking it into consideration. Also, the redefinition of work-related norms and values is important and primary. In fact, in France the culture of "presenteeism", long work days and hyper availability, are the norm and these norms hold men hostage and do not allow for a strong involvement in the role of parents for those who wish it. ■ Another important element concerns education and teaching. To involve and value men in their role as fathers, as well as their presence in "feminized" sectors, pass by transmission and sharing of those values in the whole society. That must begin by integrating this value (equality, man's role/place, fight against stereotypes, prejudices ...) in the education system, which is urgently needed if we wish this concept to go beyond rhetorical findings. 		

Source: Country Factsheet France by Sophia Belghiti-Mahut

9.10 Country Factsheet Ireland

Country Factsheet I Ireland: Some facts and figures

Ireland; national expert(s): Niall Hanlon		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	13.5% men / 9.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	83.7% men / 89.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	44.4% men / 55.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	64.1% men / 56.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	75.1% men / 66.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	79.0% men / 56.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	11.1% men / 34.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	12.2%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	82.7%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	13.9%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	33.2	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	36%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	24.1%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental Leave Act provided 14 weeks of unpaid leave (per child, but limited to 14 weeks within 12 month period) which must be taken before the child is 8 years of age. The leave is non-transferable between the parents (this is discretionary if both parents work for the same employer).	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Equal separate entitlement	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	No entitlement to paternity leave, paid or unpaid	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	29%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	90%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.7 men / 0.4 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78.7 men / 83.2 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	86%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	83%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	92%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Ireland by Niall Hanlon

Country Factsheet II Ireland: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Ireland; national expert(s): Niall Hanlon		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Political party candidate selection: Electoral Amendment (Political Funding) Bill 2011 passed; state funding to be halved for political parties unless 30 per cent of their election candidates are women at next general election, rising to 40 per cent for subsequent general elections	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The central obstacle for creating more gender equal family practices is that men are understood to be care-free relative to women. It is the moral imperative on women to care in the context of limited and expensive options that shapes women's care choices more than women's preferences. Irish society continues to be deeply tied to gender, with caring assumed to be women's responsibility and men presumed to be care-free. The dominance of neo-liberal market orientated philosophy in social and economic policy, alongside a historically conservative culture, have created a silence around the issue of equality in care work. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Institutional, labour-market reforms will help enhance men's role in caring, but it is vital that the discourse surrounding men's and women's roles in society be debated. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Ireland by Niall Hanlon

9.11 Country Factsheet Italy

Country Factsheet I Italy: Some facts and figures

Italy; national expert(s): Elisabetta Ruspini		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	22% men / 15.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	72.6% men / 80.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	15.5% men / 24.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	67.7% men / 46.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	83.3% men / 59.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	90.6% men / 53.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	5.1% men / 29% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	12%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	82%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	5.3%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	31.2	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	33.9%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	10.7%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Both parents are guaranteed the right to make use of parental leave up to six months each and ten months in total to take care of their children during the first eight years of the child's life. They are entitled to an allowance of 30% of salary up to the child's third year of life.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	For fathers deciding to make use of leave for a period of at least three months, they are entitled to a "bonus" of one extra month. In all, they could take up to 11 months of leave	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	22%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	87%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.2 men / 0.4 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79.4 men / 84.6 women	2009, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	79%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	81%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	95%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Italy by Elisabetta Ruspini

Country Factsheet II Italy: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Italy; national expert(s): Elisabetta Ruspini		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	In Italy, a “ pink quotas ” for the Boards of Directors of publicly traded companies was introduced in 2012: at least one fifth of the directors should be women. Starting from 2015, this quotas will be raised to one third.	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ On the legislative level, 2000 incentives for fathers taking care of their children and the extension of the possibility to stay at home until the child’s eighth year of life have been introduced. The length of parental leave has been increased from 6 to 10 months; there is now a provision for unpaid sick leave; fathers are entitled to apply for parental leave, and, if they apply for a period of at least three months (even if not consecutive), a further month is granted. ■ A national men’s network of critical thought on dominating models of masculinity centres around men who choose to speak out about violence, relations between the sexes, and cultures and languages generated by patriarchal relations, starting from their identities and gendered experiences. There are groups of men who are open to dialogue and critical thinking on the complexity, richness, and even the contradictory aspects that mark men’s gender identities. In these efforts, the development of a dialogue with women, with the women’s movement, and with the thought and practices of feminism have been decisive elements. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Familistic culture (by <i>familism</i> we mean a cultural value that describes a strong attachment and loyalty to one’s family). The survival of this cultural and economic system heavily depends on “traditional” gender relations. Familism requires and encourages a specific, two gender model, where the gender categories of “man” and “woman” are connected to specific expectations of how to act, what to do, who to love and so on. Familism is also at the root of the very common attitude that considers young people to be in perpetual need of care and assistance. ■ Underrepresentation of men in early childhood and primary education teaching professions.. ■ Still no systematic institutionalisation of gender studies in the Italian educational system (primary schools, secondary schools and universities) 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Need to introduce a compulsory paternity leave scheme. ■ Need to implement education initiatives to “new” forms of masculinity. ■ Need to discuss the problem (raised by some Italian men’s associations) of women’s “resistance” against men’s involvement in family and caring roles, a dimension of everyday life traditionally being managed by women. ■ Need to discuss the problem of underrepresentation of men in early childhood and primary education teaching professions. ■ Need to redress the gender imbalance in the profession at primary school level. ■ Need for a systematic institutionalisation of gender studies in the Italian educational system (primary schools, secondary schools and universities) 		

Source: Country Factsheet Italy by Elisabetta Ruspini

9.12 Country Factsheet Cyprus

Country Factsheet I Cyprus: Some facts and figures

Cyprus; national expert(s): Mary Koutselini		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	16.2% men / 9.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	83.2% men / 89% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	41.3% men / 48.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	76.6% men / 63% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	88.9% men / 78.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	92.8% men / 73.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	4.9% men / 11.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	12.7%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	93.1%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	16.8%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	29.1	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	27.3%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	10.2%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is not compulsory and unpaid.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers are entitled up to 13 weeks.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	7.8%	National source: Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	23%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	81%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	2.9 men / 1.2 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78.6 men / 83.6 women	2009, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	87%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	83%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	96%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Cyprus by Mary Koutselini

Country Factsheet II Cyprus: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Cyprus; national expert(s): Mary Koutselini		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Since 2001 – and especially after Cyprus' accession to the EU in 2004 - several significant developments have taken place which had a very positive impact on gender-related issues. In general, these developments include governmental policies and measures, changes in legislation and progress in research and study on gender. Unfortunately, laws do not change mentality, especially if they remain rhetorical declarations without any supporting measures. ■ In brief, the most important National Action Plans (NAPs) related to gender are those focused on Employment (2004), Social Protection and Social Inclusion (2008), Prevention and Handling of Family Violence (2010-2013) and, most significantly, Gender Equality (2007-2013), which was initiated by the National Machinery for Women's Rights. ■ Moreover, the legal framework has been significantly improved in regard of equality between men and women. A number of recently introduced legal reforms – many of them inspired by CEDAW (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, UNO) - now provide a more gender-sensitive treatment of women especially in the spheres of family, employment, health, violence and trafficking. ■ In addition, during the past five years numerous NGOs, women's organisations and academic institutions have shown remarkable interest in developing gender-related research. Research-based evidence is expected to contribute to awareness of the huge gap between European declarations about equality and reality. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Difficult reconciliation of family and professional lives, especially in rural areas, feminisation of unemployment and poverty, economic crisis, traditional roles, absence of gender-sensitive environment, lack of confidence and supportive networks and the predominance of men in the media are obstacles for attaining full gender equality (CEDAW, 2010). ■ There is an apparent lack of data in many fields, as they focus mainly on women, as a result of which there was an inference from this to men's lives. The majority of the policies implemented by the government are focused on the improvement of women's lives. ■ There are still no notable structural changes that would have facilitated gender mainstreaming in political life, and as a consequence in other parts of life. There are still important gaps between actions taken and results obtained (e.g still huge pay gap, "feminized" occupations, vertical and segregated jobs, victims of violence, mono-parental families consisting mainly of women who are in poverty, inefficiency of social insurances, lack of knowledge among citizens of their rights). 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Despite the progress that has been made, it is evident that more needs to be done to change the culture of male domination, which has been historically and politically established in Western history, and specifically in the political identity of each society. ■ Deconstruction of ideological and cultural values as they are distributed by TV, norms and hierarchical discourse presuppose the consciousness of the role of stereotypes as a mechanism of the construction and reproduction of power relations and control. ■ The role of the media in the construction and deconstruction of gender stereotypes should be considered by all parties involved in gender equality. ■ The study on men and masculinity should be introduced as an academic field of research and teaching. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Cyprus by Mary Koutselini

9.13 Country Factsheet Latvia

Country Factsheet I Latvia: Some facts and figures

Latvia; national expert(s): Irina Novikova		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	17.2% men / 9.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	74.1% men / 85.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	23.4% men / 41.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	59.2% men / 59.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	73.7% men / 74.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	79.8% men / 64.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	7.5% men / 11% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	7.6%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	87%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	15.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	36.1	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	45.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	28.6%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	The maternity leave lasts for 112 calendar days, with a possibility of extension due to pregnancy, birth complications, or multiple births. Parental benefit granted to employed parents caring for a child less than one year old are paid 70% of their average monthly social insurance contribution, but no less than 70% of double the state social security benefit (63 lat/around €90 per month in 2009). Every employee in Latvia has a right to parental leave of up to 18 months for each child, to be used before the child turns eight years old.	National expert (Country factsheet) – source: http://europa.eu/familyalliance/countries/latvia/index_en.htm , 12.07.2012
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers are entitled to a parental benefit of 80 per cent of a person's taxed average salary	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Fathers can take 10 calendar days of paid (100%) leave within the first 2 months. They can use it in parts.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	38%	National expert
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	16%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	64%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	10 men / 2.3 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	68.6 men / 78.4 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	81%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	74%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	77%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Latvia by Irina Novikova

Country Factsheet II Latvia: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Latvia; national expert(s): Irina Novikova		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Institutional mechanism was provided: Since 2003 gender equality issues have been the responsibility of the Department of European and Legal Affairs at the Ministry of Welfare, of which the Gender Equality Unit was part of.. ■ Policy documents: The Programme for the Implementation of Gender Equality 2007-2010 is in line with the EU Roadmap for Gender Equality and the national situation. Gender Equality Action Plan 2012-2014 is elaborated in compliance with the Concept on the Implementation of Gender Equality ■ Reconciliation of work and family life: Parents of both sexes are eligible to all care-related leaves and benefits, except those specifically related to a certain sex, i.e. maternity and paternity leaves and benefits. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The incorporation of the principle of gender mainstreaming is still very problematic at this stage, since the people who have not been involved in gender issues before still do not see the relevance of the matter for their daily work. Thus, although a gender perspective is increasingly written into projects, there have been very few signs of actual implementation in practice (de facto). ■ The funding of men and masculinities projects for 2005-2007 was under the auspices of gender equality policies. They were mainly related to the issues of demography and social policy, interpellated with the individual views of researchers upon the concept of gender and gender roles in family. The researchers, experts in their respective disciplines, however without consistent academic training in gender analysis, used a "sex-role" approach and traditional terminology, most probably taking into account an ideological profile of a commissioning ministry. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ There must be more critical research on men and fathers as well as gender-segregated statistical information. ■ There should be more publications on masculinity, ethnicity and race for a wider public of educational profile. ■ Training in gender studies and gender analysis is vital. ■ More active involvement of media in debates on gender relations in family and at work. Regular and consistent debate on gender issues in public discourses is needed. So far, the process is limited to the activities of involved governmental structures and several NGOs. ■ The valorisation of the private sphere for men by enhancing paternity rights and caring fatherhood, by celebrating images of new fatherhood, rare anyway, in Latvia, does not have a parallel enhancement in terms of valorising women's participation and rights on the labour market and their individual social entitlements. There should be media campaigns on caring fatherhood role of a man and on a woman's valued participation in the labour market. At the same time there should be media support of single-family parenthood and the principle of diversity in family types and arrangements. ■ Although the projects about men have been important and had a positive effect, they have not created a broad awareness of men's participation in gender equality as a desirable national goal, and work has to continue in that direction, since many of the national goals, such as guaranteeing equal pay for equal work or measures to guarantee the more harmonious combination of work and family, have not yet been achieved. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Latvia by Irina Novikova

9.14 Country Factsheet Lithuania

Country Factsheet I Lithuania: Some facts and figures

Lithuania; national expert(s): Vilana Pilinkaite-Sotirovic		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	9.9% men / 6.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	84.2% men / 89.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	36.3% men / 51.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	56.8% men / 58.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	71.5% men / 76.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	79.1% men / 75% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	6.3% men / 8.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	82.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	14.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	36.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	34.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	14.3%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Fathers can share with their partners any amount of eligible weeks until the child is 2 years old. There are two possible schemes, and a parent should decide about the chosen scheme before the leave starts. One possibility is that a parent takes parental leave until the child reaches 1 year and gets 100% of the income. The other possibility is that a parent takes parental leave until the child reaches 2 years and gets 70 % of income in the first year and 40% of income in the second year.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers can share with their partners any amount of eligible weeks until the child is 1 or 2 years old.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There are 4 non-compulsory weeks with 100% paid paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	30%	National source: Lietuvos Statistikos Departamentas, Moterys ir vyrai Lietuvoje 2010. Vilnius, 2011
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	13%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	67%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	9 men / 2.7 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	68 men / 78.9 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	81%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	80%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	87%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Lithuania by Vilana Pilinkaite-Sotirovic

Country Factsheet II Lithuania: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Lithuania; national expert(s): Vilana Pilinkaite-Sotirovic		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The amendment to the Law on Sickness and Maternity Social Insurance was initiated by the Committee of Social Affairs and Labour at the Parliament of Lithuania after the successful implementation of the EC funded project "Innovative Gender Equality Strategies: Fatherhood and Paternity Leave" 2004-2005. This law provides the possibility for fathers of newborns to take a fully paid month of paternal leave together with the mother. ■ This project contributed to the changing discourse about care work and gender roles in family. On the one hand, the project helped with highlighting the rights and duties of a father to care for his child, on the other – it introduced a discourse about dual breadwinner family model. Finally, it initiated the debate about caring masculinities as critical aspects to hegemonic norms. However, this project was only one step in the beginning of the discursive practices. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Masculinity studies are limited. Though much research is completed on gender in labour market, education, representation in politics and gender-based violence, the focus on women prevails in these studies. Domestic and care work is usually investigated by family sociologists and demographers. Referring to population surveys and qualitative studies, social scientists argue about the domination of patriarchal attitudes towards gender roles in family and society and social pressure on women and men in their choices of life trajectories. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ More academic and public discourse is needed to critically question heteronormative masculinity norms, also a debate on structural inequalities and their negative consequences for men and diversifying the category of "man". ■ More debates and public discourse on care work should be developed. Currently, care work is "naturalised" to a female identity and gender system. Debates about care work should "denaturalise" women's care work and critically evaluate the economic and social price which must be paid by a parent (either mother or father) who undertakes this responsibility. ■ Follow-up steps are necessary to be undertaken by politicians, employers, social partners and civil society actors to sustain project achievements. On the policy level there should be the introduction of amendments to legal acts which would introduce quotas for father's and mother's leave, ensuring an equal distribution of child care among parents. This would encourage more fathers to take parental leave and contribute to changes in work organization and work culture. As a result, gender discrimination could be reduced. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Lithuania by Vilana Pilinkaite-Sotirovic

9.15 Country Factsheet Luxembourg

Country Factsheet I Luxembourg: Some facts and figures

Luxembourg; national expert(s): Diana Gliebe		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	8% men / 6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	67.9% men / 78.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	44.8% men / 47.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	73.1% men / 57.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	92.7% men / 74.4% men	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	95.4% men / 68.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	3.4% men / 35.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	21.5%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	8,7%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	27.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	26.8%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	17.7%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	There is no compulsory parental leave in Luxembourg, only a compulsory maternity leave before and after the birth of the child. Working men and women are equally entitled to take a parental leave of 1x 1/2 year for each child under the age of 5.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	26 eligible weeks for fathers of 52 weeks total. All weeks are paid with a fixed sum.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	12.93%	National source: 2007, own calculations, based on data from http://www.statistiques.public.lu/catalogue-publications/annuaire/B.pdf , multiple births included and http://www.cnpf.lu/ - Publications/Compte rendu 2006-2007, S. 34
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	36%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	79%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	3.4 men / 0.4 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	77.9% men / 83.5% women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	80%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	73%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	96%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Luxembourg by Diana Gliebe

Country Factsheet II Luxembourg: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Luxembourg; national expert(s): Diana Gliebe		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The most important roadmarks on the way to equality of the sexes were determined, legally at least, largely in the past: on the one hand through the constitutionally determined equality of the sexes, on the other hand through collective trade agreements which provide for equal pay. The "Ministère de l'Égalité des chances" has an important function, provides important stimulations which affect and benefit both genders. ■ The debate, viewed negatively by employers, about a possible women's quotas with higher management, was initiated by this ministry. ■ Projects that raise social awareness gender equality are also supported in every conceivable way, also financially, by this ministry. The "top-down" path is also smoothed out. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In spite of a multiplicity of endeavours, it is not possible to note that a change of thinking in relation to role behaviour is very popular, not even among the younger generation, as was mentioned in the official report. A lack of self-confidence among the female population does not suffice by itself to explain this phenomenon; a more likely explanation is the adherence to old social customs that are not easily relinquished 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Projected into the future, it would be wise to not only support existing and anticipated gender-specific boy's and men's projects, also financially, but also to provide for transparency and information and a network including the organization of a competence centre. Points of reference are already existing and positively received projects in other countries, for example in Germany, Austria and Switzerland. It is possible to come to the same conclusion as before: projected and existing projects must be supported in the future – this may help change minds and possibly tear down walls. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Luxembourg by Diana Gliebe

9.16 Country Factsheet Hungary

Country Factsheet I Hungary: Some facts and figures

Hungary; national expert(s): Andrea Krizsan, Fanni Borbiro		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	11.5% men / 9.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	82% men / 85.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	21% men / 30.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	60.4% men / 50.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	79.6% men / 66.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	83.3% men / 34.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	3.6% men / 7.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	13.4%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	70.3%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	17.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	24.1	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	36%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	15.8%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave consists of a 24 weeks maternity leave, a 5 days paternity leave and the rest, called parental leave, is accessible to both parents until the child has reached the age of 3. There are two kinds of schemes; one is income related (70%; but it has a ceiling of appr. 355 Euros/month) until the child has reached the age of 2, and one is flat rated (in special cases it is available for grandparents starting when the child is 1 year old), but it is a low amount.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers are entitled to a 5 days of fully paid paternity leave, and after the expiration of the maternity leave fathers can share both kinds of the above described paid parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	3.6%	National source: Korintus, 2009 and Frey, 2011
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There exists a 5 days paid paternity leave (100%), it has to be used in the first 2 months after the child's birth.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	24%	National source: 2010; Hungarian Central Statistical Office database
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	9%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	79%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.7 men / 1 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	70.7 men / 78.6 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	91%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	100%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	86%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Hungary by Andrea Krizsan, Fanni Borbiro

Country Factsheet II Hungary: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Hungary; national expert(s): Andrea Krizsan, Fanni Borbiri		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Decision to make the parental leave available to men as well, and the introduction of the 5 days paid paternity leave in 2003. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Men's role and the connection between masculinities and gender equality issues were not in the focus of gender equality policy making, and only few NGOs (basically women's and gender equality NGOs) emphasize the need to involve men in gender equality work, and some researchers focus on men's roles and masculinity issues. ■ In other topics related to the social situation and roles of men, such as health, unemployment, poverty and homelessness, and the correlation of all these issues, Hungary seems to be still in the phase of problem-awareness (mainly researchers and civil society actors drawing attention to these problems), but no coherent policy responses were born to them yet. ■ At present, there is an emerging re-familiarisation in Hungarian public policy, shifting the focus from gender equality to family policies and demographic questions. Policy measures focusing on this change include issues such as: the introduction of early retirement only for women (after 40 years of employment), restoring the previous 3 years long parental leave (from currently 2 years), removal of recently added references to gender equal and anti-stereotype education from the law on kindergarten education, the threat of a restrictive abortion regulation, as indicated by the language of the new constitution adopted in 2011. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ For the dissemination of atypical, flexible, and family-friendly employment practices policy makers should provide state support for employers, mostly for SMEs which are less capable than multinational companies to implement these measures, as often the latter have these principles as a part of their corporate culture. ■ For solutions for a better work-life balance of employees the main tools are: shorter (but financially more generous) parental leave, strong expansion of child care institutions (not only municipally sponsored nurseries and kindergartens, but alternative solutions such as family day care), more flexible employment opportunities (including telecommuting, part-time and flexible work), incentives for employers to encourage work-life balance of their employees, and the extension of paternity leave. (Neményi and Takács, 2006; Pongrácz and Molnár, 2011) 		

Source: Country Factsheet Hungary by Andrea Krizsan, Fanni Borbiri

9.17 Country Factsheet Malta

Country Factsheet I Malta: Some facts and figures

Malta; national expert(s): Frances Camilleri-Cassar		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	40.9% men / 32.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	47% men / 60.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	18.5% men* / 24.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment *unreliable
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	72.4% men / 39.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	89.3% men / 52.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	91.5% men / 41% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	5% men / 24.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	73.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	7.2%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	28.4	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	25.6%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	11.2%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Public sector employees are entitled to a maximum 1 year parental leave and a once-only 5-years career break. Parental leave is transferable if both parents are working in the public sector. Private sectors employees are entitled to 3 months, and it is non-transferable.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers can share the parental leave if both parents are in the public sector.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	For public service employees: 461 women and 9 men took up 1 year of unpaid leave. (No data exist for the private sector)	National source: data for 2010 Family Friendly Measures Report 2010 www.mpo.gov.mt
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave amounts to 2 working days on full pay and must be taken at a stretch within 15 days after the birth of each child.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	11%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	74%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.4 men / 0.9 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79.2 men / 83.6 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	91%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	85%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	98%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Malta by Frances Camilleri-Cassar

Country Factsheet II Malta: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Malta; national expert(s): Frances Camilleri-Cassar		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ For the first time, men's role in the family was addressed in Malta's National Reform Programme (NRP) under the Europe 2020 Strategy published in 2011. The NRP announces that a 3-years publicity campaign to attract more women to the labour market was launched with the following objectives: (i) to provide economically inactive women with a sense of financial independence; (ii) to address the role of men in non-market work; (iii) to promote work-life initiatives among employers. I argue that reference to men's role in unpaid care work is only to some extent 'good practice', as initiatives for including men in Malta's gender equality initiatives are still at the awareness-raising stage, and media campaigns can only take us so far. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ One major implication for understanding gender equality in Maltese social policy is that there appears to be a deeply ingrained set of cultural assumptions, structures, and obligations within the family, which structure workplace expectations that spill over into relationships within the bureaucracy, so that government policies are blunted in their effects. Indeed, the question as to why gender equality policies have been largely ineffective is ascribed to the legacy of the traditional male breadwinner model embedded in Malta's patriarchal system. Moreover, while the state emulates a progressive agenda forged according to EU standards, the Church in Malta places strong expectations upon government, albeit subtly, to support and reinforce the male breadwinner model in which women are primarily seen as wives and mothers. ■ Policy debates are still dominated by the idea that reconciling work and family means improving conditions for women to do both. Malta adopts a hands-off stance towards domestic gender relations, and there is no public debate about how fathers could balance their economic and family commitments. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A critical prerequisite for gender equality in Malta would be rethinking men's position in the family and in society through actively promoting men's involvement in household responsibilities, supported by policies that require changes in men's lifestyle. ■ Malta's policies urgently need to increase collective support for care and erode men's free backriding on women's unpaid labour. For example, policy designs that encourage men to make use of parental leave rights and benefits include high wage replacement rates, the inclusion of non-transferable "use or lose" entitlements for fathers, and public educational campaigns that address cultural resistance to engagement in care giving and leave-taking by fathers. Gender equality dialogues in Malta must now give way to a paradigm shift in historically unequal power relations between women and men. The implementation of effective work-life policies is essential to enable men and women with caring responsibilities to participate in the labour market and stay there. This may mean instituting new norms and incentives in Malta, targeted at men to unpaid care work, such as flexibility in working hours, and additional forms of paid employment breaks. ■ Clearly, a more strategic approach is needed for mobilising measures specifically for the purpose of achieving gender equality and, more importantly, to address men specifically. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Malta by Frances Camilleri-Cassar

9.18 Country Factsheet Netherlands

Country Factsheet I Netherlands: Some facts and figures

Netherlands; national expert(s): Iris van Huis, Mieke Verloo, Marleen van der Haar		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	12.1% men / 7.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	73.7% men / 81.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	38.4% men / 44.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	80% men / 69.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	90.6% men / 80.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	94.2% men / 78.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	24.2% men / 76.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	11.5%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	89.4%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	17.8%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	25.5	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	34.8%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	22.6%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is not compulsory. Fathers and mothers are entitled to get 26 times their weekly working hours as unpaid parental leave before the child is eight years old. Employers are not obliged to grant paid parental leave. Unpaid parental leave is regulated by law. In practice and due to possibilities for tax reduction for employers, more than half of the parental leave is (partly) paid.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	See above.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	19%	National source: 009, SCP/CBS 2010:125
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Partners of mothers that have given birth have the right to 2 days of paid paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	50%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	91%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.3 men / 0.6 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78.9% men / 83% women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	59%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	64%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	85%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Netherlands by Iris van Huis, Mieke Verloo, Marleen van der Haar

Country Factsheet II Netherlands: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Netherlands; national expert(s): Iris van Huis, Mieke Verloo, Marleen van der Haar		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	<p>There are no quotas, but there are numerical targets formulated for women, for example 20% women in top-management positions of the 100 largest companies of the Netherlands. The target exists since 2008 and companies participate voluntarily. 160 organizations participate.</p> <p>There is a target of 25% women in higher officials (accomplished) and a target of 15% female professors in 2010 (not accomplished).</p>	SCP/CBS 2010: 181&204.
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ There have been measures aiming at migrant men and women or at residents of disadvantaged neighbourhoods to integrate migrant and Dutch native men and women, empower migrants or Dutch citizens of migrant origin, or help them and/or convince them of the equality of men and women. These measures are based on a common assumption that attitudinal and de facto support for gender equality is lower or absent among the migrant population and the population that is of migrant origin, in comparison to the average Dutch native population. (Soft) measures to propagate and strengthen support for gender equality are mostly limited to those communities and include a variety of soft measures targeting migrant men in their role as fathers, for example father centres (since 2008); Support in child care programmes (Opvoedingsondersteuning) (also for, and mostly used, by mothers), Centres for Youth and Family (Centra voor jeugd en gezin) and 23 Projects for men emancipation (financed by a non-governmental organization Oranjefonds). 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ There have been legal and policy measures aiming at making the combination between care and work easier (rights to flexible working hours, leave arrangements, increased childcare facilities). This has resulted in more women joining the workforce especially in part-time jobs, but it has hardly increased the gender gap in domestic and care work. After the birth of the first child, men start to do more paid work, or continue working the same hours and participate in only a small part of unpaid work. ■ The low wages in the care sector most probably prevent men from taking up care work (as well as contributing to the gender pay gap). 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ For more effective measures, both men and women would have to be targeted. To reduce the gender care gap, a paternity leave of substantial length seems crucial for the Netherlands. This should be highly paid and/ or compulsory to have an impact. The current organization of maternal and paternal leave creates a "gendered kick off" after the birth of the first child. Longer paternal leaves for men could provide fathers and mothers with a more equal start in the care for children. ■ Moreover, keeping the existing soft measures (for example flexible working hours) and/ or expanding them could contribute too. ■ Higher wages in care can help decreasing the gender pay gap and make care work more attractive for men, which could help to make care work more attractive. ■ Monitoring is needed to see why and when education inequality is linked to economic inequality and which groups suffer from this. For now, only male drop-outs seem to be in (urgent) need of attention. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Netherlands by Iris van Huis, Mieke Verloo, Marleen van der Haar

9.19 Country Factsheet Austria

Country Factsheet I Austria: Some facts and figures

Austria; national expert(s): Christian Scambor & Elli Scambor		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	8.4% men / 8.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	84.9% men / 86.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	22.5% men / 24.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	77.1% men / 66.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women with-out children younger than 6 (%)	89.3% men / 80.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	92.1% men / 67.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	7.8% men/ 43% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	14.6%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	87.2%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	24%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	26.1	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	28.3%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	14.9%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	8 weeks compulsory maternity leave for the mother; parental leave lasts until the 2 nd birthday of the child (dismissal protection). Quotas exist in childcare benefit models for partner A and partner B: 30+6 months / 20+4 / 15+3 / 12+2 (with two models of compensation; flat rate and wage compensation).	National source: http://www.arbeiterkammer.at/online/kinderbetreuungsgeld-varianten-53313.html
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	"2, 3, 4, or 6 months" of "14, 18, 24 or 36 months" are allocated to partner 2 (regulations apply to "partner 1 / partner 2", not "mother / father"). Benefit models: flat rates of 436 € / 624 € / 800€ / 1000€ or 80% of net income for the 12+2 model, respectively).	National source: http://www.arbeiterkammer.at/online/kinderbetreuungsgeld-varianten-53313.html
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	In 2011, 5% of a total of 141.694 male and female recipients of childcare benefit were men.	National source: 2011 https://www.statistik.at
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	No compulsory paternity leave, but entitlement to some periods for partner 2 (see above)	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	See above	See above
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	9%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	83%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.6 men / 0.7 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	77,9 men / 83,5 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (in %)	72%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	61%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	91%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat and Country Factsheet Austria by Christian Scambor & Elli Scambor

Country Factsheet II Austria: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Austria; national expert(s): Christian Scambor & Elli Scambor		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Public ownership enterprises of at least 50%: In the supervisory boards of these enterprises, a quota of 25% of women by the end of 2013 and a quota of 35% of women by the end of 2018 has been agreed upon in March 2011. The quotas apply to 55 enterprises.	http://www.frauen.bka.gv.at/site/6868/default.aspx
Example 2:	Women's quota at universities: In all university committees and institutions the proportion of women has to be 40%	Amendment to the University Act, October 2009.
Example 3:	Quota in public administration: Female applicants with equivalent qualification to male applicants have to be preferred in the context of tendering procedures, up to a proportion of 45% in the respective function or professional classification (before January 2010: 40%).	http://www.frauen.bka.gv.at/site/6868/default.aspx
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Campaigns can have a considerable impact, like the nation-wide "Real men share equally"-campaign (12/1996-2/1997) concerning equal participation in the household. ■ After a long time of parental leave models that reinforced traditional arrangements, more promising models have been introduced recently. These new models include: "Use it or lose it"-quotas for the second partner (mostly fathers) and the possibility of income-based wage compensation (instead of former flat rate transfer models) were introduced. ■ The number of men's initiatives, groups and professional psycho-social centres has increased since the 90s (Vienna: 80s). All of them raise issues connected to men, with gender equality being a topic, not always explicitly but often implicitly. The Family Counselling Centre Funding Act has been an important basis for this development. The federal government has been able to put an emphasis on gender equality issues, as ministries fund many of these centres. ■ New institutions and structures concerning equality politics have emerged: a Men's Politics Department on Federal Ministry level. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Austria has an extensive welfare system, but certain groups are not reached well, e.g. people with low income, insignificantly employed persons, etc. Derived entitlement to certain welfare system benefits (e.g. pensions), which make the partners economically dependent on each other ("family orientation" in the welfare system) are problematic from a gender perspective. More individualized regulations and models aiming at de-commodification are necessary. ■ In the public debate there is a reluctance concerning institutional childcare for small children, and the attitude prevails that small children are better off with their parents/mother. Demand and supply concerning Early Childhood Education Institutions have remained low. ■ The proportion of men and women in top positions, in politics as well as in business, shows quite a traditional picture. Especially women in top-positions in private enterprises are rare cases. The public discussion about quotas in this field is dominated by defensive reflexes ■ From 2000 onwards, new institutions and structures concerning equality politics have emerged, as a result of EU guidelines. From a general perspective, experts have pointed out to the problem that often there is a commitment to the strategy of Gender Mainstreaming on the top-level of organizations and institutions, but not all actors on lower levels are committed, and relevant stimulations come from individually committed persons. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The social welfare system should be re-organized in a way that it will not imply a female workforce in unpaid work or cheap care work based on low transfers (e.g. care for relatives). Derived entitlement to social security systems should be removed. Good practices should be considered, e.g. tax incentives for a full-time working person's partner to increase working hours (like in Sweden). ■ Campaigns must work towards a change in familial ideals such as the "good motherhood"-ideology, and offer a "good peers"-view, focussing on the aspect that children need other children for their development. In parallel, the supply of early childhood education centres must be increased and promoted. ■ Concerning parental leave regulations, "daddy's months" (time off work after a child's birth) are promising, following a "use it or lose it"-model. For mothers there is a prohibition to work before and after birth ("mother's protection"); a promising measure would be to transfer this model also to fathers after the birth of a child. ■ At the same time, a re-evaluation of care work is needed, valuing (i.e. paying) it at least to the same degree as technical work and promote it for the male labour force. Political action by trade union and social partners is needed here. ■ Progressive working (time) models must be promoted in organisations, e.g. part time and job sharing in leading positions. The promotion of women in leading positions and the promotion of men and care must be based on smart models as well as quotas. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Austria by Christian Scambor & Elli Scambor

9.20 Country Factsheet Poland

Country Factsheet I Poland: Some facts and figures

Poland; national expert(s): Katarzyna Wojnicka		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	7.2% men / 3.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	88.4% men / 93.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	29.8% men / 40.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	65.6% men / 53% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	84.6% men / 73.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	90.6% men / 62.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	5% men / 10.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	85.4%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	4.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	31.1	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	29.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	14.3%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Maternity leave is not compulsory and last 20 weeks (in case of a one-child birth) with the possibility of extending it to 4 weeks (2012). Parental leave in Poland is a maximum of 36 months of unpaid leave which can be taken both by men and women during the first 4 years of their child's life.	
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Fathers can share maternity leave with mothers after the first 14 weeks of the leave and therefore can be paid (100%) for 6 weeks. Fathers can take a maximum 36 months of unpaid leave during the first 4 years of their child's life.	
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	1%	National source: 2011, Polish Labor Code (data for 2010)
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave is not compulsory and lasts 2 weeks (100 % paid).	
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	2%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	42%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.5 men / 0.6 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	72.1 men / 80.7 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	80%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	82%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	88%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Poland by Katarzyna Wojnicka

Country Factsheet II Poland: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Poland; national expert(s): Katarzyna Wojnicka		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Since 2011, gender quotas for Local Parliament, Polish Parliament, European Parliament and electoral lists exist in Poland. Each gender must be represented by 35% on the electoral lists of each party or electoral committee.	http://orka.sejm.gov.pl/proc6.nsf/ustawy/2713_u.htm
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The most important measure in Poland concerning men which can increase the level of gender equality is the implementation of paternal leave by the Polish Parliament in 2010. At that moment, an official message was sent to the Polish society, saying that men can and should participate in child care. Despite the fact that currently the length of paternal leave is only two weeks, it is a milestone in thinking about gender roles in Poland and the first step towards increasing participation of men in household and care work, which is essential for the elimination of gender inequality on both the legislative and the discursive level. ■ Another meaningful measure on the legislation level again is implementation of gender quotas for the electoral lists for Local Parliaments, National Parliament and European Parliament alike by Polish Parliament in 2011. Although there was much resistance among both genders against this initiative and politicians and still many people do not see any sense in a quota system, another step forward in gender equality in Poland has been done. ■ It is important to underline that both initiatives have been undertaken by members of many social movements who started a public debate about paternal leave and gender quotas and for some years lobbied for its implementation. The rapid increase of NGOs dealing with gender and other forms of social inequality in the past decade can also be considered a kind of success in the struggle for equality between men and women. ■ Last but not least, another good step for involving the issue of men in gender equality has been the increase of critical masculinities studies among Polish academia. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The main obstacle connected to paternity leave is the fact that knowledge of paternal leave is still not widespread and many people are not familiar with its principles. Moreover, there is a number of employers who do not accept the fact that a male employee might be willing to take the leave and try to discourage them by using different tools, such as decreasing annual merit bonuses. ■ The problem with a quota system is that the character of the Polish Representation of the People Act assumes that only people on top positions of electoral lists have chances to be elected, and many times women are pushed on the lower places, thus having a smaller chance of becoming members of Parliament, despite the quota system. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ . The first task to increase gender equality in Poland is changing restrictive anti-abortion laws. Without acting for women's reproduction rights, any kind of attempt to increase gender equality (with or without men) will fail. ■ Regarding men and gender equality, the most important task is to build strong and meaningful profeminist movements which will not only empower female activism both also send a significant message to Polish men that gender equality is not only a women's issue. ■ Another important issue is the extension of paternal leave on a regular basis, which will eventually result in equalizing the time which men and women can spend with their children. This step will increase men's participation in the private sphere and also enable women to appear more strongly in the public. It can also help with decreasing the pay-gap because neither men nor women will be considered a "more productive" and "more valuable" employees. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Poland by Katarzyna Wojnicka

9.21 Country Factsheet Portugal

Country Factsheet I Portugal: Some facts and figures

Portugal; national expert(s): Sofia Aboim		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	32.7% men / 24.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	54.8% men / 62.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	17.7% men / 29.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	70.1% men / 61.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	84.3% men / 75.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	90.1% men / 72.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	4.9% men / 12.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	9.1%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	77.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	12.8%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	33.7	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	38.1%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	13.4%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	120 or 150 calendar days, depending on payment level. It is obligatory for the mother to take 45 days (6 weeks) after birth; the remaining period may be divided between parents by mutual agreement. An extra 30 days ('sharing bonus') is available if both parents share the leave and if the father stays alone with the child during this period.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Father can share the parental leave, and in that case they have extra 30 days.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	36.8% 25%	National source: 2010, Instituto de Informática e Estatística da Segurança Social.
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There are 10 obligatory days plus 10 optional days of 100% paid leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	37%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	79%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.3 men / 0.5 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	76.7% men / 82.2% women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	70%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	82%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	95%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Portugal by Sofia Aboim

Country Factsheet II Portugal: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Portugal; national expert(s): Sofia Aboim		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ There are a number of important measures that promote gender equality. One landmark advance is related to the expansion of parental leave and the flexibility it provides men with from a gender equality perspective. This policy measure has had almost immediate effects on men's practices after childbirth, with an increase of take-up rates of fathers. ■ Secondly, the measures aiming at an increase of women's political participation has also produced positive effects. However, the political system is still male dominated and further measures are needed. ■ Thirdly, another major advance is related to the recognition of same-sex marriage in 2010. We can say that in Portugal the legal measures applied to promote gender equality and overall equality between different groups of men (and women) show, until now, a clear-cut political agenda that considers equality a priority. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In the context of the current debt and financial crisis, a major problem that can endanger what has been achieved is, of course, the financial cut-backs in the Portuguese welfare state. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ We believe that some of the barriers preventing gender equality can only be overcome by a strong improvement of the overall educational levels of the population. Class-based inequalities, even with regard to gender equality, show a striking gap between those who are more qualified and those who are not. The latter tend to be more conservative and to have more difficulties with coping with the measures already undertaken. ■ It is important to promote family policies that might be suitable to deal with persisting gender inequalities. ■ Possible solutions would include granting men more flexibility in working hours, according to the number and age of their children. ■ One important point would be to increase the supervision of private employers in order to guarantee that the Law is not ignored (one must note that many men are still not making use of the compulsory parental leave). ■ On the other hand, measures to support lone fathers or fathers in post-divorce family arrangements should be a key priority of legal regulation and of social policies: lone or guardian fathers could benefit, for instance, from reduced working hours, etc. ■ In short, the promotion of positive discrimination measures encompassing multiple types of families, including same-sex couples, could help increase the pace of social change in gender relations and equality. ■ On the other hand, violence should also be addressed in a more profound and enlarged manner, not limiting the discussion and measures of fighting violence against women, even if this is a real problem. Nonetheless, the violence of some men against other men should be introduced into the public debate and brought onto the political agenda. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Portugal by Sofia Aboim

9.22 Country Factsheet Romania

Country Factsheet I Romania: Some facts and figures

Romania; national expert(s): Ovidiu Anemțoaicei		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	18.6% men / 18.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	77.7% men / 78.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	16.7% men / 19.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	65.7% men / 52% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	82.5% men / 69% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	85.2% men / 63.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	9.6% men / 9.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	12.7%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	75%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	8.8%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	33.3	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	27.5%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	11.2%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is for parents with children under the age of 2 years; monthly allowance amounts to 85% of the average net income of the past 12 months. Both parents are entitled to it. One of the partners is required by law to take up at least one month of the parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	The father can take the entire period of parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	16.73%	National source: 2011, http://www.mmuncii.ro/pub/imagemanager/images/file/Statistica/Buletin%20statistic/2011/Asistenta%20trim%20I%202011-site.pdf
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	3 forms of paternity leave: max. 5 days paid with 25% from an average of 20 working days; max. 15 days with child-care certificate paid with 75% from an average of 20 working days or max. 7 days for fathers enrolled in military service.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	8%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	66%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	3 men / 1.3 women	2009, Eurostat; standardized death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	70.1 men (provisional) / 77.6 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	89%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	88%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	79%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Romania by Ovidiu Anemțoaicei

Country Factsheet II Romania: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Romania; national expert(s): Ovidiu Anemțoaicei		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ While the first Romanian strategy on gender equality (2006-2009) was barely implemented, the second one (2010-2012) remained on paper. According to these documents, one of the objectives is work-life balance. Therefore, at the governmental level, men's issues and men's involvement in promoting gender equality became somewhat relevant topics mainly with regard to this objective, gender violence and the labour market in the post-communist transition (mostly awareness campaigns), however outside a critical pro-feminist analytical framework and an explicit topicalization of men qua men. ■ Anti-discrimination Alliance of All Fathers (T.A.T.A organization) promotes father's rights and fatherhood (http://www.t-a-t-a.ro/). 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No single organization dealing explicitly with men's issues, apart from the few which are either gender conservative or gender blind (such as T.A.T.A. organization). ■ At the academic level, the field of critical studies on men and masculinities is almost absent; effect of, among others, the very small number of MA programmes in gender studies and the particular theorization of gender under the gender equality umbrella. Another important variable is the uneasy relationship between feminist or pro-feminist NGOs and LGBT organizations. During the past decade their agendas were quite different, even if coalitions were not missing, preventing the possible emergence at the academic level of sexualities and/or masculinities studies. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Increasing women's participation in the decision-making process, their economic and political representation at various levels and structures via electoral compulsory or voluntary (internal) quotas. ■ Opening the feminized fields of the labour market to men (educational system, health care system). ■ More work-life balance programmes for men as explicit target groups. ■ More comprehensive, coherent and explicit statistical system on men and women's issues. ■ Changes in the legislation on audio-visual and mass media, given the difficulty of amending various mass media productions which are reinforcing gender, racist and heteronormative stereotypes. ■ Encouraging research on boys, young men, men and masculinities on various issues related to gender equality by developing university programs (MA and PhD) and courses in gender studies, sexuality studies, etc. ■ Introduction of curricula on gender equality in the educational system at all levels (including early childhood education). ■ Health, sexual and reproductive health policies targeted to men (including analyses of how "masculinities" build on men's understanding of health) ■ Gender violence policies 		

Source: Country Factsheet Romania by Ovidiu Anemțoaicei

9.23 Country Factsheet Slovenia

Country Factsheet I Slovenia: Some facts and figures

Slovenia; national expert(s): Majda Hrženjak		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	6.4% men* / 3.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education *unreliable
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	86.1% men / 92.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	26.4% men / 44% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	69.6% men / 62.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	86.1% men / 83.8% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	94.1% men / 83.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	7.4% men / 13.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	70.1%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	0.9%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	23.8	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	42.6%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	16.8%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Maternity leave takes 105 days, it is compulsory for the mother after child's birth. Then the parental leave starts and may take 260 days. Maternity and parental leaves are paid for to the amount of 90% of the previous salary. The limit is double the average income in Slovenia.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	The father can take or share parental leave, which means 260 fully paid days. In addition he is eligible to 90 days of paternal leave; 15 days of which are fully paid.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Fathers are eligible to 90 days (63 working days) of paternal leave: 15 days of leave which have to be taken in the first 6 months after child's birth; and 75 days of unpaid paternal leave (only social contributions at the level of the minimum wage are paid by the state) which have to be spent by the time the child is 3 years old.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	80.75% (refers to 15 days paternal leave take up rate)	National source: 2010, www.mdds.gov
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	36%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	91%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.5 men / 0.5 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	76.4 men / 83.1 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	84%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	64%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	90%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Slovenia by Majda Hrženjak

Country Factsheet II Slovenia: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Slovenia; national expert(s): Majda Hrženjak		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Female quotas for elections for EU parliament : 40%	CEDAW 2006
Example 2:	Female quotas for local elections : 40% by 2014	CEDAW 2006
Example 3:	Female quotas for national elections : 40% by 2014	CEDAW 2006
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The introduction of paternal leave in 2001 can be identified as one of the most salient policy measure aiming to influence men and encourage them to share domestic and care work. However, the extent of paternal leave represents too short a period to have a decisive impact on sharing care and domestic work in the family. The first part of paternal leave takes place in the period when also the mother is at home, using her maternity or child care leave (first six months); this situation even strengthens the perception of men not as a main carer but as mother's assistant and supporter. One of the possible ways to improve paternal leave in Slovenia can be introduction of part of the paid non-transferable paternal leave which could not be taken at the same time as the partner does. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Today one of the main obstacles in the way towards active fatherhood relates to employment and labour market requirements. The subordination of family life to the labour market, not only for men but also for women, clearly represents one of the key obstacles to changes in gender division in family work. It seems that structural gender inequalities go hand in hand with the limiting factors of neoliberal capitalism, creating conditions which are not in favour of gender equality in the family. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Gender education as a necessary part of curricula at all levels of the educational system, which would enable both girls and boys, men and women to understand how constructions of masculinities and femininities influence their lives, relationships, life choices, career trajectories etc. ■ Proactive policy and organizational measures to promote men's involvement in care and domestic work and to encourage them to opt for women dominated occupations. ■ Special attention should be put on the aging of society and on considering not only child-care but also elderly care burdens within the families. ■ Awareness and recognition among all who are concerned with gender equality that recent developments on the labour market (intensification, precarization, flexibilization, insecurity, reduction in working costs, globalization) and reductions in the welfare state have direct negative impacts on gender equality processes. ■ More research on men in general and more research on diverse social locations of men and women along the categories of class, ethnicity/race, sexual orientation, education, age, body etc. and their effect on gender equality is required. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Slovenia by Majda Hrženjak

9.24 Country Factsheet Slovakia

Country Factsheet I Slovakia: Some facts and figures

Slovakia; national expert(s): Mariana Szapuová		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	4.6% men / 4.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	93.2% men / 93.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	18.2% men / 26.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	65.2% men / 52.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	82.1% men / 69.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	86.4% men / 37.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	2.6% men / 5.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	9.6%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	73%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	19.6%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	25.9	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	26%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	10.6%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	There is a maternity and an additional parental leave. The maternity leave (34 weeks/ 60% payment) is primarily meant for mothers. Fathers can be beneficiaries in case of the mother's death or illness.	National expert (Country factsheet) 2011
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Parental leave could be taken after the maternity leave both by fathers and mothers according to their agreement (until the 3rd birthday of the child, i.e. approximately 120 weeks) and is rewarded by a parental allowance of € 190 monthly.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	0.9%	National source: 2010 Statistical Office of SR
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	3%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	72%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.4 men / 0.8 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	71.7% men / 79.3% women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	84%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	85%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	78%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Slovakia by Mariana Szapuová

Country Factsheet II Slovakia: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Slovakia; national expert(s): Mariana Szapuová		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	No reliable information.	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The maternal leave was changed to parental leave and after that both fathers and mothers were voluntary entitled to taking the leave and allowances. However, the usage of the leave by fathers has never been more than 2% of all beneficiaries. The current amendments in family policy are declared to be gender neutral but communicated by representatives mostly as a gain for mothers ■ The pension for widowers as a counterpart of the widows' pension was implemented. ■ The equalisation of the retirement age both for women and for men was introduced. Currently, the retirement age of women is continually rising to the retirement age of the men (62 years) 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The labour market, especially in times of economic crisis and growing unemployment rates, is strengthening traditional patriarchal patterns. ■ Men - heroes in "feminine jobs" or sectors – as a specific subject have not been researched yet. ■ A fundamental change in people's attitudes and behavior is needed to overcome both structural/institutional and cultural barriers. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Going on with the uncovering of the gender based disadvantages and discrimination of men and women rooted in artificial and socially-constructed gender stereotyping (e.g., boys way of growing-up; men's experience and acceptance of violence, effects of women's sexualisation on men's relationship to women and to themselves) ■ Identifying and challenging men's unjustified privileges in their freedom of choice; especially in terms of child care and point to its disadvantages (e.g. in case of after- divorce arrangements) ■ Using the EU-level influence for keeping the agenda of gender equality at the top of the political debate and strengthening the proper and real implementation of gender mainstreaming ■ Pointing out to the necessity of the universal interchangeability of the roles of women and men by maintaining their individual and autonomous development (e.g. the right to choose their own study programmes, to shape the partnership, even sexuality) ■ Drawing the attention to the outcomes of the current policy settings and challenging their apparent gender neutrality (e.g. the equalised retirement age of women is a controversial issue in case the care and unpaid workload stays to be significantly gender unequal) ■ Involving men in general in the topic and making them accountable for the current state of art, pointing out to their power and gender-blindness; winning over and supporting groups of men strongly committed to gender equality who might appeal other men ■ Preparing proper and strong evidence - based reasoning of the androcentric nature of macroeconomics and global trends in monetary policies; pointing out to alternatives (e.g. relation between the exploitation of nature and instrumentalisation of human beings) ■ Formalization of joint custody after divorce by law since 2010 has not brought any substantial change and children are continually attributed mostly to mothers. The League of Fathers - first Slovak men's initiatives fighting for their rights is further exerting pressure to approve a stronger legislation of joint custody after divorce. This is perceived more and more controversially. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Slovakia by Mariana Szapuová

9.25 Country Factsheet Finland

Country Factsheet I Finland: Some facts and figures

Finland; national expert(s): Hertta Niemi		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	11.6% men / 9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	82.8% men / 85.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	37.7% men / 54% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	69.4% men / 66.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	85% men / 78.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	92.4 men / 62.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	8.9% men / 19% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	8.8%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	83%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	20.3%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	25.4	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	44.1%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	29.8%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is not compulsory and lasts 23 weeks (158 days).	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	23 eligible weeks for fathers of 23 weeks in total. They will be paid the whole time, approximately 70% of their wage.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	7.1%	National source: KELA The Social Insurance Institute of Finland, Statistics department, 2011.
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is a separate paternity leave which is 1-18 days and then the possibility of a father's month: max 36 days. The whole period is paid, approximately 70%.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	74%	National source: KELA The Social Insurance Institute of Finland, Statistics department, 2011.
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	28%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	77%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	2.9 men / 0.9 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	76.9 men / 83.5 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	60%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	48%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	74%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Finland by Hertta Niemi

Country Factsheet II Finland: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Finland; national expert(s):Hertta Niemi		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	At least 40% of women/men in municipal or state level decision making bodies.	Equality Act/Finnish equality legislation
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The Men's Section (officially the Subcommittee on Men's Issues) is an important part of the equality work on men in Finland. The Section's tasks are: 1) to be a forum for discussions between experts in men's politics, 2) to initiate public debates on men's political issues, 3) to prepare and introduce initiatives on men's political issues for the Council of Equality, and 4) to produce reports on men's issues. The men's section has given concrete action proposals and recommendations for policy development e.g. on men and childbearing, work, male images in culture, heteronormativity, fatherhood, violence committed by men etc. ■ The national legal and governmental policy is framed and characterised by a complex formal mixture of statements favouring gender equality in principle and statements using gender-neutrality as the major form of governmental communication. There are relatively few explicit governmental statements on or about men. Gendered exceptions to this generally gender-neutral pattern in which men are explicitly or implicitly named include: compulsory conscription into the army; a strongly pro-fatherhood policy and ideology; a national programme against violence; and a recent political and legal debate on same-sex marriage. ■ Important equality objectives include gender mainstreaming in state administration and municipalities; the implementation of the principle of equal pay; the development of more flexible family leaves in co-operation with labour market organisations; and the strengthening of gender equality, especially through initiatives in EU policies. Finland together with other Nordic countries has also accepted a gender equality programme 'Men and gender equality' in 1995-2000. ■ Fatherhood related legislation has been much on the governmental agenda, and the introduction of the "father's month" in 2003 is one of the achievements of changing politics regarding men 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The situation of men in Finland is complex and in some ways contradictory. There is a rather strong gender-neutral ideology of gender equality and citizenship, compared with most European countries. There is indeed less inequality in terms of women's participation in public life, social class differences, and much greater ethnic homogeneity. On the other hand, Finland has a highly gender-segregated employment, strong domination of management positions by men, especially in the private sector, and high levels of men's violence against women. Traditional patriarchal ways of being men persist alongside notions of "neutral" citizenship and late modern ways. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The existing facts, measures and qualitative analyses on gender related issues need to be re-examined and men as an explicit category need to be added in order to evaluate what the actual equality situation is like. ■ There are specific fields demanding both more critical gendered research and more policy related action: generations, work and family; gay men; disabled men; ethnicity, language, racism; men's violence against women and children; racist violence, homophobic violence; suicide; men's health practices; men and alcohol; health and violence, men in positions of power, politics, economy and management, associations, and friendship and support networks. The connections between men's misfortunes and men's powers and privileges are another crucial field of future research. Even studies that are more explicitly on gender, for example on gender in working life, usually do not include an explicit gendered analysis of men and men's practices. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Finland by Hertta Niemi

9.26 Country Factsheet Sweden

Country Factsheet I Sweden: Some facts and figures

Sweden; national expert(s): Dag Balkmar		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	10.9% men / 8.5% women (provisional)	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	84.9% men / 86.9% women (provisional)	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	39.8% men / 52.1% women (provisional)	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	75.1% men / 70.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	12.2% men / 39.7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	13.7%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	83.7%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	15.4%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	24.1	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	42.2%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	36.9%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parents are entitled to paid parental leave (80%) up to a total of 480 days (96 weeks). Each parent is entitled to half of the 96 weeks, all but 12 weeks can be transferred to the other parent (480 days in total, 190 days to each of the parents, 60 of which are non-transferable).	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	Since 1974 men have been able to take paternity (10 days) and parental leave (48 weeks are eligible for him). Both are paid (80%).	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	22%	National source: scb 2009, scb 2010, Föräkringskassan 2011
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	2 weeks equals 10 paid days (80%) the father can take in connection to child birth.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	74 %	National source: 2012 Försäkringskassan
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	51%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	94%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	1.1 men / 0.7 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79.6 men / 83.6 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	54%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	54%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	74%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Sweden by Dag Balkmar

Country Factsheet II Sweden: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Sweden; national expert(s): Dag Balkmar		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	A quota does only exist in 'positive special treatment', i.e. favouring underrepresented sex if same merits prevails. A quota that violates this principle is illegal.	www.do.se
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The most important measure implemented is challenging the male breadwinner ideal. Governments have sought to facilitate men's active involvement in efforts to increase gender equality, encouraging them to increase their share of household responsibilities and childrearing. ■ One of the most important measures is the highly developed government-funded child care that in turn facilitated women's participation in the labour market. ■ Furthermore, health care, education, care for the young and old, and social welfare are seen as primary responsibilities of the state rather than the family/women. Men have been involved in the gender equality project, this is important in order not to make it a woman's issue. ■ One central social insurance measure is the 1995 and 2002 implemented so called 'daddy month', which has somewhat boosted men's share of parental leave days. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Obstacles are both structural and individual. The gender segregated labour market still prevails. This can partly be explained by the size of the welfare state and public sector, where many women work. Men work mostly in the private sector. ■ Individual: Today, Swedish men have in some ways internalized gender equality such as fairness and justice and at least verbally repeat the Swedish gender equality discourse. However, only some men practice the discourse, respect women and children and try to live gender equally. This gap between talk and practice is in fact a problematic obstacle because the repetition of the gender equality discourse may make the on-going reproduction of gender inequality less visible, hence, less may be done to reduce its reproduction ■ The current Swedish policy debate on the matter claims that the government should not interfere with families and their 'freedom' to decide who should stay at home with the child. Traditionally, this person is usually the mother. The consequences of these policies are that women continually become signifiers of 'insecure labour', a person that in the eyes of an employer is likely to be the sole responsible person for childcare rather than being able to prioritize full time work. In addition, it is fair to say that labour market for women is to large extent adjusted to a reality where women take the main responsibility for care work, i.e. that women take parental leave and part time jobs in order to perform care work (SOU 2005:66). 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ As this report shows, the reduction of gender-segregation on the labour market happens very slowly. Still the majority of managers is male, the same holds for full time workers and those who take the least parental leave days. ■ Even though Sweden may stand strong in international comparisons on gender equality, men's share of parenting, care work and domestic work is not gender equal in practice. This is, according to this author, one of the central obstacles for creating more gender equal family practices, in itself tightly interlinked with gender equality in the work force. To split the parental leave days equally (i.e. make the days non transferable) would, I think, mean a significant help to gender equality at home and on the labour market, it could have the potential to counteract this traditionally gendered division of labour/care work. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Sweden by Dag Balkmar

9.27 Country Factsheet United Kingdom

Country Factsheet I United Kingdom: Some facts and figures

United Kingdom; national expert(s): Gary Raine, Alan White		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	15.8% men / 14% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	78.9% men / 82% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	40.9% men / 45.1% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	74.5% men / 64.6% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	85.8% men / 74.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	90.2% men / 61.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	11% men / 42.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	14.1%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	86.8%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	19.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	33	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	33.1%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	26.9%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	A woman is entitled to 26 weeks of ordinary maternity leave and 26 weeks of additional maternity leave. However, statutory maternity pay is only paid to women meeting specific criteria including length of employment. If the mother does not take a full year for maternity leave, the father (if eligible) can take over the remaining time (unpaid), for a maximum of 6 months.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	If eligible, a father can take up to 26 unpaid weeks of parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	60%	National source: http://www.hmrc.gov.uk
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	If eligible, men are entitled to 2 weeks of paid paternity leave. From April 2012 it is £135.45 per week or 90% of average earnings, if that is less.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	60%	National source: Burgess (2011)
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	35%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	90%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.4 men / 0.2 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	78.7 men / 82.6 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	78%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	86%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	87%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet United Kingdom by Gary Raine, Alan White

Country Factsheet II United Kingdom: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

United Kingdom; national expert(s): Gary Raine, Alan White		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	If they wish to do so, political parties can use women only shortlists for their selection of candidates.	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Over the past decade, policies have been implemented to facilitate greater paternal responsibility and involvement in their children's/families' lives. These include the introduction of paternity leave, recognition of the EU working time directive and increased rights to flexible working. ■ The Equality Act 2010 was introduced to simplify and strengthen the law related to discrimination and inequality. The public sector Equality duty implemented as part of the Equality Act represents a potentially valuable opportunity to promote gender equality across policy fields by addressing concerns that are relevant for both males and females. It requires, for example, all relevant bodies to consider the differing needs of men and boys and to ensure that they will have access to the services they need. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The beneficial outcomes of some of the above mentioned initiatives have potentially been weakened by specific aspects of the respective policies. For example, individuals in the UK can opt out of the regulations related to maximum working time if they wish to do so. In 2008, almost 1 in 5 UK workers still worked more than the maximum number of hours stipulated by the EU working time directive. ■ Furthermore, in 2011, men meeting the eligibility requirements were given the right to take over up to 6 months of their partners' maternity leave entitlement. However, aside from the first 2 weeks, this remains unpaid, and therefore it seems unlikely that the majority of families will be in a financial position to enable the father to take an extended period of unpaid leave. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ More needs to be done to encourage men to devote a greater amount of time to childcare and other domestic work. Not permitting workers to opt out of the EU Working Time Directive would be beneficial in this regard. It would also potentially improve individuals' work-home balance as well as their health and well-being. ■ Further support for working fathers' parental and domestic responsibilities could be given by facilitating greater uptake of flexible working. ■ There are many competing demands on schools, and curriculum time is limited. Nonetheless, schools are ideally positioned to play a key role in fostering the beliefs, attitudes and values integral to the development of gender equality and for preventative work in relation to violence in society. ■ In relation to improving the health of men, it is important to recognise the need to adopt a social determinants perspective. This perspective involves working on multiple levels and across sectors to tackle the economic, social and environmental factors that can influence health. ■ Policies related to promoting gender equality more broadly need to be joined up to a greater extent, recognising the significant inter-linkage between specific policy fields, e.g. between work and health, and health and education. Such a synergistic approach will be more likely to succeed and generate greater positive outcomes. 		

Source: Country Factsheet United Kingdom by Gary Raine, Alan White

9.28 Country Factsheet Iceland

Country Factsheet I Iceland: Some facts and figures

Iceland; national expert(s): Ingólfur V. Gíslason		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	26% men / 19% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	51.4% men / 55.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	34.5% men / 47.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	80.1% men / 76.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	11.2% men / 34.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	11.5%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	25.7	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	No data	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	No data	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave is not compulsory. The Icelandic system is that fathers and mothers have 3 months each, and then there are 3 months they can share.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	12 weeks of the parental leave are paid with 80% of the wage and in addition fathers can share another 3 months.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	23%	National source: Fæðingarrorlofssjóður, 2008
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Paternity leave is not compulsory and lasts 3 months.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	90%	National source: Fæðingarrorlofssjóður, 2008
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	40%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	98%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.6 men / 0.6 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79.8 men / 84.1 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	59%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	60%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	84%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Iceland by Ingólfur V. Gíslason

Country Factsheet II Iceland: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Iceland; national expert(s): Ingólfur V. Gíslason		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	The Icelandic parliament passed laws in 2010 to the effect that on the boards of publicly owned companies and on the boards of privately owned companies with more than 50 employees the percentage of either sex shall be no less than 40%. For private companies this is to take effect from September 1st 2013.	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The single most important thing that has been done regarding gender equality in general and the situation of men in particular is the change in laws on parental leave from 2000 when men received an independent, non-transferable right to parental leave. It has meant a completely new situation for men as fathers and also in a major way reduced stereotypical ideas about men and also to some degree about women. Another initiative worth mentioning is the efforts of (young) men to distance themselves and men in general from rape and other violence against women. This has meant a slow change in the debate about violence, on the one hand making rape less "cool" among young men and on the other countering the idea of all men being violent and potential rapists. The treatment centre for violent men has worked in the same direction. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The most urgent task is to restore the economic compensation paid to parents during parental leave. If that is not done, the whole project could be damaged beyond repair. The most important thing to do then and in order to fully realize the full potential of the parental leave is to extend it so that there is little or no gap from the end of parental leave to play-school. Such an extension needs to go on with the same principle of non transferability as the existing laws, so that if the leave was extended to 12 months it would be divided 4-4-4, 5-5-2 or 6-6. ■ Increasing support for fathers-to-be during pregnancy to better prepare them for their role as primary caregivers. They have few to turn to for advice and really need this support. ■ Something is not right with the way in which boys experience school, reflected by drop out rates. This is an issue that needs to be taken seriously and addressed through research and institutional change. ■ The initiatives regarding men and violence need support in order to expand. But there is also a need to take those men serious who are themselves victims of domestic violence. ■ A concentrated effort should be made to increase the number of men in female dominated work. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Iceland by Ingólfur V. Gíslason

9.29 Country Factsheet Liechtenstein

Country Factsheet I Liechtenstein: Some facts and figures

Liechtenstein; national expert(s): Klaus Schwerma		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	No data	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	No data	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	No data	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	The parental leave is unpaid for the duration of three months. It can be made full-time, part time or in parts until the completion of the third year of the child.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	12 eligible weeks for fathers out of a total of 12 weeks.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	No data	National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	No information	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	No data	National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	No data	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	No data	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	No data	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79.5 men / 84.3 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	76%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	70%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	No data	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Liechtenstein by Klaus Schwerma

Country Factsheet II Liechtenstein: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Liechtenstein; national expert(s): Klaus Schwerma		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	There are no quotas .	
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The transformation of the Department for Gender Equality into the Equal Opportunities Department has introduced an intersectional perspective and therefore a differentiated perception of gender discrimination. However, what is important is the distribution of financial, time and technical resources, as well as the practical implementation of this approach, it should not happen by an opposite process. ■ The cooperation of the Department for Gender Equality with the "Verein für Männerfragen" (association for men issues) is well developed and positive. Especially in a small country like Liechtenstein a good networking between government bodies and NGO's offers good opportunities for implementing gender-sensitive men's policies. ■ The well-developed regional networking of both Liechtenstein Department for Gender Equality as well as NGO's in gender fields with actors in the neighbouring regions of St. Gallen and Graubünden (Switzerland) and Vorarlberg (Austria) offers opportunities for a transnational perspective on gender and women issues, for example in transnational events, exchange of experts and the consulting and information service for people affected and seeking advice. ■ The information brochure for SMEs to implement parental leave is a good approach - but for its better implementation and improvement more advice and support is necessary for both firms and employees. Currently, only men working at large companies or public bodies take parental leave (see answer Interpellation 2006) 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Improving Parental leave, e.g. paid parental leave and reserved parental leave for fathers like the "daddy month". ■ Obligation for companies to implement gender equality measures and gender mainstreaming (e.g. according to legislation for gender equality) ■ Proactive measures to support men in companies particularly in SME's, e.g. measures for work-life-balance and sensitization for the situation of men and fathers, health promotion, reconciliation of work life and family life, anti-homophobia measure ■ Extension and improvement of sensitization and consulting for men in different life situations, e.g. fathering, sexual orientation, health prevention, work-life-balance. ■ More measures / incentives for information and consulting to increase the participation of men in social and care professions ■ More projects and activities at schools concerning differentiated role models of boys and men, for example the expansion and improvement of "Papatag" (father's day), projects and measures for gender-sensitive professional orientation and life planning at school and gender-sensitive trainings for teachers and educational staff. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Lichtenstein by Klaus Schwerma

9.30 Country Factsheet Norway

Country Factsheet I Norway: Some facts and figures

Norway; national expert(s): Øystein Gullvåg Holter, Linn Veronica Blindheim Andersen		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	21.4% men / 13.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	66.4% men / 75.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	39.7% men / 55.2% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	77.3% men / 73.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	14.3% men / 42.4% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	15.3%	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	86.5%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	15.8%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	23.6	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	34.6%	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	23.5%	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	Parental leave consists of 47 weeks, which are fully paid. Of these, 26 weeks (in addition to the father quotas) are eligible for the father. 9 weeks are reserved for the mother.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.	The father can take 26 fully paid weeks of parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave	63%	National source: 2011, http://www.nav.no/Familie/Svangere-og-foreldrepenge-tilfarverved
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	Fathers can take 12 fully paid weeks. In addition to these 12 weeks they have the possibility to take 10 days in connection to birth. Only those working in the public sector are guaranteed a compensation when the baby is born.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave	77%	National source: 2011, see above
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	48%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	81%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.8 men / 0.5 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	79 men / 83.3 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	61%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	55%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	61%	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Norway by Øystein Gullvåg Holter, Linn Veronica Blindheim Andersen

Country Factsheet II Norway: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Norway; national expert(s): Øystein Gullvåg Holter, Linn Veronica Blindheim Andersen		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Business boards: 40% each of both genders. This includes both state-owned companies and private shareholding companies.	http://www.regjeringen.no/nb/dep/bld/dok/nouer/2008/nou-2008-6/15/5/4.html?id=501233
Example 2:		
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The Norwegian gender equality policy has been fairly successful in balancing political life, and partly successful regarding business. A main challenge is the shift from the male breadwinner role towards balanced provider/care roles. Both genders are expected to be productive and to participate in the labour market. Governments have sought to facilitate men's active involvement in efforts to increase gender equality, encouraging them to take over a bigger share of household responsibilities and childrearing. Hence the quotas for fathers, now 12 weeks, these are reserved for the father and not transferrable to the mother. At the same time, Norway has a tradition of part-time work for women and gender segregation in work life, as well as generous welfare schemes that can contribute to maintaining traditional roles. The government has legally established a claim to one full day of care in August for every child born before 1st of September the year before, making it easier for women to participate in the labour market as full-time employees. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In the 1980s, Norway was early in raising the issue of men in gender equality, with a government committee, followed by the father quota (1993), a research network, centres against men's violence, etc. This has worked - e.g. men's share of caring and household work has increased. Yet the reforms involving men have only target limited areas (like birth-related leave) and resistance is visible also, including criticism of current policy as being too "women and career"-focused. About half of men agree that "gender equality has come far enough", especially lowly-educated, work-segregated and "familistic" oriented men with traditional gender conceptions, even if also they mainly agree with the equality ideal. ■ Especially, the cash benefit for parents who want to stay home with their children (less than three years) has prevented full employment, and work/family policy has sent contradictory signals. The current (red-green) government plans to phase out cash benefit from August 2012, yet the opposition wants to reduce the active equality support (father quotas). ■ The wage gap has not changed much in Norway for the past 30 years, and economic power is still skewed, despite gender quotas on company boards there is a minority of women in senior executive positions. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ It is urgent to make sure that the paternity leave arrangement actually works as intended. The "numerical" approach is important, like quotas for boards and regarding leave, but other change is also needed, both structural and cultural, to ensure improvement. ■ A main challenge is to develop a more consistent policy that helps gender-equal individuals, couples and families alike, despite obstacles in a still partly unequal society, rather than encouraging an unequal division of money and power. A first step could be to reduce women's involuntary part-time positions together with a reform that benefits parents balancing the care/work division. An option for a "balanced caring contract" could be identified, together with the need to codify the right to fulltime position and make the employers accountable, so that they have to offer fulltime positions. 		

Source: Country Factsheet Norway by Øystein Gullvåg Holter, Linn Veronica Blindheim Andersen

9.31 Country Factsheet Switzerland

Country Factsheet I Switzerland: Some facts and figures

Switzerland; national expert(s): Gesine Fuchs		
	Main information	Source/additional explanations
Facts and figures – Education		
Early leavers from education and training (male in % / female in %)	6.1% men / 7% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education
Graduates upper secondary level (male in % / female in %)	80.5% men / 84.3% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education
Tertiary educational attainment (male in % / female in %)	47.5% men / 40.9% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS, % of the population aged 30-34 with tertiary education attainment
Facts and figures – Work		
Employment rate, men/women (%)	84.6% men / 72.5% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 15 to 64
Employment rate, men/women without children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Employment rate, men/women with children younger than 6 (%)	No data	2010, Eurostat, LFS; population aged 25-49
Part-time rate, men/women (%)	12.3% men / 60% women	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Men's share among care workers (%)	No data	2009, Eurostat, LFS, own calculation
Men's share among plant and machine operators (%)	84.3%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gender pay gap (unadjusted)	19.1%	2010, Eurostat, LFS
Gini Index	29.5	2010, Eurostat, SILC
Facts and figures – Care		
Men's share in caring/educating activities (%)	No data	2010, EWCS
Men's share in cooking and household activities (%)	No data	2010, EWCS
Short description parental leave scheme (both parents)	There is no statutory parental leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Short description men's entitlement, benefit/pay conditions etc.		National expert (Country factsheet)
Men's share/take-up rate of parental leave		National source:
Short description paternity leave (fathers only)	There is no paternity leave.	National expert (Country factsheet)
Usage/take-up rate paternity leave		National source:
Formal childcare participation in the age of 0 to under 3 years	26%	2010, Eurostat
Formal childcare participation in the age of 3 to the mandatory school age	72%	2010, Eurostat
Facts and figures – Overall Topics		
Death due to homicide, assault (men/women)	0.6 men / 0.6 women	2009, Eurostat; standardised death rate by 100 000 inhabitants
Life expectancy in years (men / women)	80.2 men / 84.8 women	2010, Eurostat
Share of men in parliaments (both houses in %)	No data	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in governments (in %)	No data	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making
Share of men in executive boards of publicly listed companies (in %)	No data	2010, European Commission, DG Justice, Database on women and decision-making

Source: Eurostat, EWCS and Country Factsheet Switzerland by Gesine Fuchs

Country Factsheet II Switzerland: Description of quota systems, measures, needs and recommendations

Switzerland; national expert(s): Gesine Fuchs		
	Main information given by national expert	Source/additional explanations
Examples of quotas identified by national expert		
Example 1:	Social Democrat party , min. 40% of all candidatures for elections for each gender	
Example 2:	Federal experts' commissions : min. 30% for each gender	
Most important measures implemented / success factors identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Since the late 1990s, gender equality has been discussed more and more in terms of both genders. Measures and campaigns are increasingly addressed to men and women. ■ Several NGOs specialize in counselling services for enterprises and individuals/couples for better work-life-balance arrangements and family friendly measures. ■ Good practices at enterprises are widely advertised via websites, brochures and conferences, thus contributing to awareness raising. 		
Barriers identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In the political discourse, equality for men and women mostly remains rhetoric and does not lead to the abolition, for example, of discriminating leave policies of public employers. ■ A great obstacle is the lack of parental and paternal leave. Without such entitlements, all progress is left to the personal negotiation powers of employees and the responsiveness of employers. 		
Needs and recommendations identified by national expert		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ An urgent need seems to be to further empower gender equality oriented men's organizations and to enhance their organizational and political capacities. These men's organizations should be integrated into established political structures. However, it is unclear who would promote such empowerment and integration. ■ Established gender equality experts and state feminists view attempts to re-define gender equality most critically, and most male politicians are not interested in this issue. ■ Politically, it would be necessary to define relevant political fields and define issues from a male gender equality perspective. ■ Furthermore, men should identify independent fields of male concern of equality, like the military or sexuality. ■ In order to popularize the demands of the movement, it would be especially important to search for frames that resonate well with men's experiences. ■ For sure, the question of men and gender equality needs more research by qualified (male) scholars with gender expertise. ■ The most important political measure is the introduction of legal entitlements concerning paid and care work for both genders, i. e. the right to parental and paternal leave as well as a right to part time work for family reasons (with the right to increase working time at a later time). 		

Source: Country Factsheet Switzerland by Gesine Fuchs

10 Annex: An international perspective on the current situation of men and gender equality

10.1 Australia

The description of the current situation in Australia is based on an expert interview with Bob Pease. (See Pease, 2012)

As Australia is a multicultural country with great diversity in society, Pease underlines the need for understanding that there are important differences between men (based on race, ethnicity, migration background, place of living, but also age, sexual orientation, social class, etc).

Education

Current studies showed “[...] that girls have higher levels of educational attainment in primary and secondary schools compared to boys [...].” It is important to underline the intersectional dimension of these results because “[...] boys who are missing out are indigenous boys, Aborigines, refugees, and boys from rural, lower income backgrounds.”

Another issue connected to education which is discussed in Australia is the limited number of male teachers compared to female teachers. One of the proposals of solving the problem was offering specific scholarships for male students. This proposal met some critical voices though, since scholarship exclusively for men can be seen as practice which discriminates women.

Work

One of the most important issues connected to gender and work in Australia is the problem of the gender pay gap. Public discussions focus on the question of how to reduce it. Currently there are certain campaigns (conducted by progressive unions) around this issue, articulating the necessity to improve women’s salaries in relation to men’s. For example, *Fair Work Australia* – a national workplace relations tribunal – has appealed for pay increases to workers in the community service industry, human service workers and welfare officers (e.g. social workers). Community service and welfare work is usually poorly paid and mainly dominated by women.

Also horizontal and vertical segregation seem to be problematic on the Australian labour market: *“We’ve certainly got both horizontal and vertical gender segregation in paid work in Australia. Gender studies show that the salaries of women who are working in workplaces with a mix of women and men are higher than those of women in workplaces which primarily consist of women [...] There have probably been much stronger pushes by women to break the ‘class ceiling’, and there have been less campaigns [...] targeted to encourage more men to move into more female majority professions.”*

According to Pease, there is some potential for change on the labour market.

- One of them is the economic crisis as well as other crises (the rural area in Australia has been and still is especially affected by natural catastrophes like bushfires, droughts and floods), which has already changed the distribution of work between couples.
- But also certain changes in the educational system such as a shift in educational programmes to postgraduate courses, has had effects on re-segregation: *“What we see is that men [...] [with] university degree [...] are more likely to come into social work at a postgraduate level. They are less likely to be adhering to more gender-stereotypical notions of women’s work and men’s work, whereas when they are leaving school after completion of their high-school [...]*

[they] are much more likely to think of engineering or architecture, medicine or other occupations that are much more traditionally male”.

Care, family and households

In Australia, men still do most of the paid work and women do most of the unpaid work. Although some differences between social classes and generations are visible, in general studies show that women do almost twice as much domestic work and childcare work than men. This situation deepens when couples have children.

The importance of factors like migration and rural/urban location underline the necessity of an intersectional approach in order to understand arrangement patterns between couples (from less to more balanced work-family division models).

Regarding male entitlements to parental leave, the situation in Australia is changing rapidly. Currently authorities *”[...] are creating more possibilities for men to access parental leave. In the past a gendered stereotypical framing of maternity leave rather than paternity leave was obvious. Only mothers have had access to parental leave with the birth of the child. Fathers were not able to access this programme. It’s been a big shift in Australia just in 2011 to a more gender-neutral parenting leave programme.”*

Pease singled out potentials for the increase of men’s share in care work and domestic work. Among them there are

- the fact that men are challenged by their partners,
- material resources and the increase of women’s income and
- gender ideologies, as it is well known that men with a more egalitarian attitude are more likely to engage and share domestic work than others.

Overall topics

According to Pease, one of the most important strategies for changing attitudes regarding gender roles (both male and female) and engaging men in gender equality is *gender mainstreaming*. At the same time, this strategy may lead to unpleasant side-effects, such as a legitimisation of men’s rights groups and antifeminist discourses: *“When you start to bring men’s issues into the discourse [...] of gender equality, you open up a place for anti-feminist men who can frame and construct a scenario about how difficult and disadvantaged men are. How difficult it is for men and how the changes that made it better for women have gone too far. They want to see a return to more traditional rights, but all under a kind of notion that men are missing out.”* According to Pease, this problem can be solved by the support of evidence based policies, linked to current results of critical men’s and masculinity studies instead of framing policies and public debate within essentialist concepts of traditional sex role theory.

10.2 Canada

The description of the current situation in Canada is based on an expert interview with Michael Kaufman. (See Kaufman, 2012)

Gender equality has become a widespread concept in Canada, and the majority of both men and women believe that equality has already become the social norm. Some main issues are addressed, such as actions and campaigns of men and women against men’s violence, active and engaged fatherhood and supportive ideas about gay peers and same-sex marriage. This situation creates the danger of abandonment of further pro-gender equality actions which are still needed, as Canada is not entirely a gender equal society yet.

Education

In Canada, the majority of university students are women. In fact, many boys have difficulties at school and therefore public debates raise the issue of a so called 'boys crisis'. According to Kaufman, this situation is not an effect of the 'feminisation of schools' (female teachers) but rather a particular type of lifestyle and cultural patterns which are popular among boys, such as spending time on playing video games and celebrating a kind of 'hyper-masculinity' (glamorisation of muscles far beyond what most men can achieve; increased celebration of casual stupidity; rejection of intellectual engagement among young men).

Work

The labour market participation of women in Canada is high. This leads to the situation that the majority of children grow up in families where both parents work. Although the number of male dominated occupations is smaller than three decades ago, some gender segregated occupations still remain (engineering or computer science). Women are under-represented in these professions where long working hours still serve as a norm.

Recently, some initiatives have been undertaken to combat gender segregation (both horizontal and vertical), but these initiatives are mainly targeted towards women: *"In the public sector, we've seen a steady growth of women in management, in part sparked by affirmative action programmes back in the 1990s. Now we see many more women in upper management, including deputy ministers – our highest civil service position in government ministries. The private sector still lags behind."*

Huge effects on increasing women's participation in paid labour are connected to the existence and support of childcare programmes: *"In Quebec we have another example on the impact of a progressive social policy, in this case, concerning childcare. There, they started a new policy in 1998, I believe. The actual cost of the day-care is around \$40 per day, but parents only have to pay \$7 per day."*

Care, family and households

Mainly young men in urban areas of Canada share domestic and care work, as being an active father has increasingly become part of masculine identities. Nevertheless, men *"[...] still lag behind women in taking responsibility and equally sharing tasks, but it's no longer unusual to see men caring for babies in the public."* The legal right to paternity leave was introduced in 1990: *"Yet, by 1990, only 3% of fathers had paid leave under this policy. In 2001, leave was increased to 45 weeks which could be split between the father and the mother [...] and by 2006, 11% of fathers had parental leave paid for by the state [...] in 2006, 55% of our fathers took at least some time off."*

The main barriers regarding taking paternity leave are well known: traditional concepts of gender roles, a lack of employers support and financial reasons (e.g., pay gap – women earn 79% of male salaries).

Overall topics

In general, a lack of discourse on the topic of men in vulnerable positions (health, drug abuse, violence) is outlined. The only exception is a discourse about sexual abuse of boys, which is strongly connected to the discussion about former 'residential schools' for native Canadians (physical abuse if children speaking their native languages; sexual abuse).

The topic of violence is well known in the country where the *White Ribbon Campaign* was first introduced. Kaufman underlines that the campaign has led to many positive changes, such as public and private discussions about men's violence against women on different levels and societal areas (police, male dominated organisations, universities, schools, etc), and the struggle against this type

of violence has become a mainstream issue. As a result, violence against women has started to decrease. Also men-to-men violence is decreasing, although discussions about this issue are not that common yet. Therefore, the topic should be developed: *“We’ve also begun to have a more serious discussion about fighting in our national sport, ice hockey. Here I’m speaking about on-ice fights and the fact that certain players are paid millions of dollars a year primarily to fight or injure other players. But not a single professional player is speaking out against it for the simple reason they’re too scared. They are young men, stars and multimillionaires, who are in a strangely vulnerable position.”*

Health is not treated as a gendered issue in public debates across the country: *“In terms of a real discussion about the gender determinants of men’s health – the fact that men don’t ask for help, go to doctors less frequently than women, smoke more and drink more than women, commit suicide more often, live far shorter, and so forth – we’ve had little discussion of such things with a clear, gender analysis.”*

10.3 Brazil and Mexico (OECD countries)

The description of the current situation in the selected OECD countries is based on an expert interview with Gary Barker. (See Barker, 2012)

In general, men’s engagement in gender equality in the respective countries is still being marginalised and gender issues are linked mostly with women. Governments usually do not see an urgent need for creating special men’s policies, and therefore social campaigns focussing on men and boys which have been initiated by NGOs from time to time have not had any measurable effects yet.

Education

Concerning education, social class based and ethnic based discrimination seems to be more important than gender based discrimination. For example, in Brazil a quota system at universities was put in place which favoured people with African descent. That means that a basic intersectional approach in education instead of a gendered approach seems to be presented.

The respective countries suffer from a *“[...] huge drop out rate during secondary education, at the beginning of secondary education.”* Among the most affected groups are boys and girls of African descent who usually are members of the lowest social class: *“The poorest segment of that are boys, they are the group most in risk of dropping out of school when they are 13, 14. They are still able to get some kinds of employment, so this wage is still on average slightly higher than women’s of the same income cohorts, the same ethnicity. But that is starting to change, as their sisters are seeing the benefits from staying in school in average a year or longer than they are.”*

Work

According to Barker, the labour markets in Brazil and Mexico are still very segregated – especially related to vertical segregation. Globalisation and changes on labour markets result in needs for more specialised technical workforce which are usually men. Consequently, men are still a huge minority in the female occupations, and very little changes towards re-segregation are connected to growing wages (for example more men are interested in teaching professions since primary school teacher salaries have increased). It is worth underlining that some groups of men are increasingly affected by changes in industries where the need for lowly qualified workforce is decreasing. This leads to higher unemployment rates and a need for institutionalised forms of family support. For example, in Brazil the *Bolsa Familia* currently programme supports 12 million families with a monthly grant of 10 to 25 Euros.

There are also some types of initiatives focussing mostly on young unemployed men. For example, local community projects employ men for building community infrastructure, roadways, parks and schools and provide scholarship funds for young men to retain at school.

Care, family and households

An increase of men's involvement in domestic and care work is reported. Mostly young, well-educated and middle-class men take over care-giving roles. However, men's care-giving roles are mainly connected to childcare activities whereas domestic work is done by men on a much lower lever. Specific cultural patterns related to gender roles in societies lead to a victimisation of men who decide to stay at home, which results in insecure male identities: *"They were constantly worried in many repetitions in their interviews, like: 'I am worried about what others will think and what my children – especially my sons – will think if they see their father as only being a care-giver at home.' In other words, that shows the low importance we, the world and the society, give to care work."*

Regarding legal regulations, paternity leave systems do not exist in the respective countries, and only in selected sectors and branches men are allowed to take a few days off when their child is born. In general, men are not associated with care, and benefits connected to childcare are almost exclusively available for women.

Some NGOs support men's involvement mainly through engaging men in childcare in connection to child birth and prenatal visits.

Overall topics

Regarding violence, men are perceived as perpetrators and victims of gender-based violence: *"The typical victim of homicide in Brazil is an African descent young man who has fewer than 9 years of education and is typically unemployed. What is often forgotten is that Brazil has this demographic gap, that by 2050, based on high rates of homicide and high rate of traffic accidents and men's mortality, there will be about 7 million more women than men."*

Some countries are trying to fight violence committed by men by creating a network of shelters and legal support for victims of violence. These initiatives mainly focus on female victims who are members of the lower social classes.

It is very important to underline that *"There are a lot of genderless policies. There are a lot of public security efforts in all three countries, with a lot of angry middle-class groups wanting increased policing (more police on the streets). Brazil has an increase of community policing which is beginning to show some interesting effects. We've been part of local voices together with other NGO voices saying arresting low income men in a 'Favela' is not the way to reduce crime and you wipe out a generation of young men. So we've been trying to give a gender face to those policies."*

Men and health issues are linked with the campaigns which encourage men to assist their partners in the birth of their children and also first attempts are made to create a so called 'men's health sector'. Another important topic is connected to engaging men in reproductive health, such as: vasectomy use, the AIDS programme and HIV prevention. These programmes are sometimes connected to the fight against homophobia and act in support of LGBTQ people's rights.

10.4 USA

The description of the current situation in the USA is based on an expert interview with Michael Kimmel. (See Kimmel, 2012)

The situation regarding institutional support of the topic of men and gender equality is described as much worse for the USA compared to Europe. In general, individual motivations towards gender

equality lead to changes at individual level without any structural support (legislation, government, stakeholders, etc). A lack of structural forces and measures, which may help men to change their practices and attitudes (paternity leave, health programmes, etc) is seen as the biggest barrier in improving men's engagement in gender equality. This is connected to the fact that the only official institution dealing with problems such as childcare, health issues, etc is the Church: *"For us, the church is not a place that nobody goes on Sunday, except tourists. For us, the church is the community centre, because we have no state centre. We have no funding for this sort of things [...] the churches tend to be one of the mayor obstacles to gender equality in some aspects. They also encourage people to be civic participants so that they have some centre of community, but they tend to be very right wing – and their vision is actually more traditional than progressive."*

Education

Currently, there is a big media debate in the US about *"failing boys at school"*, but school programmes do not seem to deal with this situation. The whole debate tends to generalise the problem in an essentialist way, while an intersectional approach would be more appropriate, as boys who fail at school are predominantly part of underprivileged social groups: *"I think everything here has to be nuanced, not simplified by gender, but also by race and class. We have a lot of middle-class white boys that are doing fine. The real problems are among boys with colour and poor boys."*

Work

Gender segregation at work is still a huge problem in the US and it is seen as the greatest obstacle for improving gender equality at the workplace. In spite of the fact that some of the professions have become more integrated, vertical and horizontal segregation is still found in the majority of occupations. Men are willing to enter women's professions if good working conditions are provided: *"There is a small increase in male nurses in nursing, they get good salaries. So there has been a movement of men into women's positions. We are finding [...] that men into women's positions tend to be much more successful. In the research, it is called the 'glass escalator'"*.

It is worth underlining that in the US there is no part-time work culture and the majority of employees work full-time, very often longer than 40 hours per week.

The economic crisis has recently changed the American labour market in a significant way. It has led to a growth in the private sector (dominated by men) and a dramatic loss of jobs in the public sector (dominated by women). These impacts derived from cutting taxes and reducing federal expenses: *"So 'his' jobs have returned in the private sector and 'her' jobs have disappeared in the public sector."*

Care, family and households

In general, men are much more involved in domestic work and care for children than ever before. On average, men spend around two hours a day on domestic work and childcare in 2012. Men who care are predominantly those of the younger generation and, therefore, age is one of the most significant factors for care (race, social class and other social categories have an impact as well).

Kimmel underlines that a growing number of active fathers can bring some danger, that men increasingly are becoming the *"fun-parent"* while women still remain those who do the *"dirty, daily work"*.

Beside individual choices for care-giving roles (the most important change factors in the US), the economic crisis can also be seen as a factor which has increased men's participation at home: *"The major reason for that is because today a two-career couple, a couple where both work outside the home, is no longer a lifestyle option. It is now a financial requirement. So as a result there is enormous pressure on men to do more around the house because their wives are working out-*

side the home. That actually is the reason that men are doing more, I believe. It's not because they had some great ideological change of mind, but rather because somebody has to do it."

As there is no paternity leave in the US, after the birth of their first child it is mostly the woman who takes a couple of months off from paid labour. In general: *"Everything there, all of our reforms and activities are employer based. So if there are any numbers of men doing things on a voluntary basis that has to be because the employers permit it."*

Overall topics

The most significant change related to violence is the introduction of the *Violence against Women Act* which enables innovative programmes around (domestic) violence against women and rape. These programmes are implemented at a federal level and have a great impact on fighting against gender-based violence. Kimmel underlines the fact that these programmes have further developed and integrated an intersectional approach as well as a focus on men as victims of violence (men-to-men violence).

In the past few years, a growing number of non-governmental men's organisations and networks (men's rights groups, especially father rights groups) have emerged. It is worth underlining that actors of these groups are mainly focussing on men and health as well as on the distribution of health-resources (breast cancer versus prostate cancer). The public discourse about men's health centres on the issue of screening: *"[...] the public health campaigns for men's activities are especially around prostate screening, [which] has been entirely geared to the minority communities."*

According to Kimmel, major barriers connected to engaging men in gender equality are

- the absence of state sector based funding programmes which can help to engage men in care in particular and gender equality in general,
- the fact that all questions are reduced to market forces, which then require the state to withdraw,
- public discourse in which men see themselves as 'victims' of contemporary society and trying to gain more 'place for men' instead of working with women for gender equality.



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