



SHANARANI

European Gender Facts Handbook for Trainers



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Contents

Executive Summary.....	4
1. Introduction.....	5
2. About the project.....	6
3. Gender pay gap and it’s causes	7
3.1. Summary.....	7
3.2. National information	8
3.2.1. Bulgaria.....	8
3.2.2. Cyprus.....	8
3.2.3. Ireland	10
3.2.4. Italy.....	10
3.2.5. Lithuania.....	11
3.2.6. Spain.....	12
4. Gender balance in decision-making positions.....	13
4.1. Summary.....	13
4.2. National information	14
4.2.1. Bulgaria.....	14
4.2.2. Cyprus.....	14
4.2.3. Ireland	15
4.2.4. Italy.....	16
4.2.5. Lithuania.....	16
4.2.6. Spain.....	17
5. Pension gap and causes for it	19
5.1. Summary.....	19
5.2. National information	19
5.2.1. Bulgaria.....	19
5.2.2. Cyprus.....	20
5.2.3. Ireland	20
5.2.4. Italy.....	21
5.2.5. Lithuania.....	21
5.2.6. Spain.....	22
6. Family roles.....	23
6.1. Summary.....	23
6.2. National information	24
6.2.1. Bulgaria	24
6.2.2. Cyprus	25
6.2.3. Ireland	25
6.2.4. Italy	26
6.2.5. Lithuania	27
6.2.6. Spain.....	29
7. Gender education differences	32
7.1. Summary.....	32
7.2. National information	32



7.2.1.	Bulgaria.....	32
7.2.2.	Cyprus.....	33
7.2.3.	Ireland	34
7.2.4.	Italy.....	35
7.2.5.	Lithuania.....	36
7.2.6.	Spain.....	37
8.	Gender occupational differences.....	39
8.1.	Summary.....	39
8.2.	National information	40
8.2.1.	Bulgaria.....	40
8.2.2.	Cyprus.....	41
8.2.3.	Ireland	42
8.2.4.	Italy.....	42
8.2.5.	Lithuania.....	43
8.2.6.	Spain.....	44
9.	Country-specific statistics	46
9.1.	Summary.....	46
9.2.	National information	46
9.2.1.	Bulgaria.....	46
9.2.2.	Cyprus.....	47
9.2.3.	Ireland	49
9.2.4.	Italy.....	50
9.2.5.	Lithuania.....	50
9.2.6.	Spain.....	50
10.	Facts/stereotypes from the Film and Music industry.....	53
10.1.	Summary.....	53
10.2.	National information	53
10.2.1.	Bulgaria.....	53
10.2.2.	Cyprus.....	54
10.2.3.	Ireland	54
10.2.4.	Italy.....	54
10.2.5.	Lithuania.....	56
10.2.6.	Spain.....	57
11.	How a trainer/youth worker can use the facts to explain gender stereotypes to young people.....	59
11.1.	Pedagogical approach – methodology	59
11.2.	Suggested activities.....	59
11.2.1.	Ice-breaking activities	59
11.2.2.	Facts presentation and understanding activities.....	60
11.2.3.	Activities for overcoming gender prejudice.....	61
11.2.4.	Activities ending the workshop	62



Executive Summary

The Shanarani project (18 – months Erasmus +, Key Action 2 Strategic Partnerships project in the field of Youth 2017 – 2 – ES02 – KA205 – 009786) focuses on building attractive methods to involve young people and inform them of the issue of gender equality and reduce related stereotyping. The objective of this Handbook is to provide basic information on the gender status quo in the partner countries. It will serve youth workers as basic information tool for activities aiming to reduce stereotyping amongst young people and contributing to more gender equality.

The Handbook contains information on gender facts about:

- Gender pay gap
- Gender pension gap
- Gender balance in decision-making positions
- Educational and occupational differences between genders
- Family roles
- Gender stereotypes in the music and film industry

The Handbook also contains recommendations and ideas how trainers and youth workers can use these facts in order to raise awareness, sensitize and train young people to detect and avoid gender stereotypes.

Main findings of the partner’s research included in this Handbook.

Gender pay gap and pension gap exist in all partner countries. The numbers vary across the countries (sometimes due to methodology of calculation) but they also average pretty high: around the EU average of 15% for gender pay gap and around 30% for the pension gap. To a large extent the reasons for this lie in the gender stereotypes, which whether perceived or not still define peoples’ behavior and attitude. This conclusion is supported by many facts in the report, while one of the most striking is that in most of the countries the largest pay gap differences are in scientific and research jobs, proving that it is still very difficult for women to be accepted as equal in the scientific society.

According to family roles women are still seen as the “responsible” for the family. That is why they more often take care of children and sick and old relatives. For this reason women take up more part-time work or time off-work. Also they do the major share of unpaid work at home.

On the other hand men are still the decision-makers, taking up to 70% of the decision-making positions both in the business and in the political work. These are also the higher paying jobs.

Gender stereotypes also apply to the disciplines women and men study at the university and to the professions they take when they start working. Social work and care professions as well as administrative jobs are mainly held by women.

Last but not least the music and film industry reinforces the stereotypes by very often objectifying women and portraying them as waiting for the men to provide them with money, status and sense of meaning.

4

1. Introduction

Stereotypes: The term stereotype was first used by the French printer Didot for a printing process used to create reproductions. Later this term was adopted by the journalist Walter Lippmann and related to “pictures in the head” in other words – mental reproductions of reality. Later the term gradually evolved to meaning “generalizations” about members of a group, in our case, members of a certain generation. The positive side of stereotypes is that they are mental shortcuts to allow us to process faster the immense amount of information that we have to deal with on daily basis. The downsides that we have to remember are:

- Not a single generalization can be valid for 100% of the members of the group, so if we apply the generalization to individuals we are very likely to be wrong.
- Sometimes generalizations can be fairly accurate, but very often they would be wrong, especially if they are about a group that we don’t belong to and don’t know very well.
- Some of the stereotypes can be positive, but most of them are negative.
- Stereotypes are very “stubborn” and resistant to change.

Stereotypes are dangerous not only because of their own nature, but also because they lead to prejudice and discrimination. For example in the case of intergenerational learning very destructive stereotypes would be: young people are lazy, not motivated and irresponsible and it would lead to discrimination: it is waste of time to train them.

Target groups of the Handbook - staff, organizations and individuals working in the field of youth work who aim to improve their activities regarding gender issues and combating stereotypes.

Objectives of the Handbook - provide basic information on the gender status quo in different European countries and also do a comparison between the countries regarding gender equality and stereotyping. It will serve youth workers as basic information tool for activities aiming to reduce stereotyping amongst young people and contributing to more gender equality.

Expected Impact of the Handbook – The Handbook will provide the facts and theoretical background to be used with the innovative training methodologies to be developed with IO2 and IO3. It will help the youth workers to show up different ways to act, different role and life models and give information on facts of gender equality. For the direct target group of the project (youth workers) it will provide the basic facts about gender equality and stereotyping as well as some ideas how these facts can be used in their work with young people. For the indirect target groups of the project (young people; social workers, teachers, trainers, other stakeholders in the field and general public for dissemination). The gathered in the Handbook gender facts will create awareness about the gender equality situation in the partner countries. It will give some ideas and insights about where they come from and eventually how by understanding gender stereotyping we can start avoiding its influence on society.

In this way the Handbook will contribute to the overall objective of the project - to improve the awareness of the need of gender equal opportunities and the danger of stereotyping.



2. About the project

The Shanarani project focuses on building attractive methods to involve young people and inform them of the issue of gender equality and reduce related stereotyping. The goal is to provide a valuable contribution to reduce lifelong consequences of gender stereotyping for the specific target group of young people - their later risk of poverty or social exclusion. For this objective the project will be build up on new motivational methodologies, like film/acting and music, provision of a holistic support package composed of 3 training handbooks, a gamified platform a relating virtual manual and recommendations to be mainstreamed within decision makers. All of the innovative methodologies and tools will incorporate the gathered data and information in IO1 on gender equality facts and gender stereotypes.

The name of Shanarani has its origin from the indigenous people Purepecha. It means “walker” to indicate the union of the “feminine” and the “masculine”.

Shanarani aims to build attractive methods of film/acting and music to raise awareness of the importance of gender equal opportunities for all and reducing gender related stereotyping. We have chosen to use film/acting and music as these are areas, i which young people are interested in and where stereotypes become very clear and more visible than in daily life.

Through exchange of good practices and a sharing of lessons learned in transnational cooperation, Shanarani will develop the following objectives:

- to support youth workers **adapting and promoting good practices** in their work on gender issues and avoidance of stereotyping.
- **to enhance the participation of young people** in developing **innovative and motivational methodologies** to overcome stereotypes on gender issues.
- to involve young people and support youth workers through **online tools** such as digital handbooks and an online platform developed during the project.

to spread the project’s results at local, national and international level within relevant communities, stakeholders and decision makers and to raise awareness about gender issues and the avoidance of stereotyping.

Project partners

- Caminos (www.asoccaminos.org)
- CARDET (www.cardet.org)
- CESIE (www.cesie.org)
- Exchange House Ireland National Travellers Service (www.exchangehouse.ie)
- SIF (www.lpf.lt)
- SWI (www.swi-bg.org)

Project website: <http://www.shanarani.eu>

3. Gender pay gap and it's causes

3.1. Summary

The gender pay gap is defined differently by the different partner countries, but all definitions point to the difference between the salaries of men compared to the salaries of women. In all of the partner countries the average pay gap lies around 15 per cent. It is also important to note that not only income gap exists with working men and women, but also there is a gap in the lifetime income of both genders, including a substantial pension gap, which is described in detail in the next sections of the report.

The pay gap exists across all branches. However, it differs strongly between sectors, age groups and economic activity. Factors that influence the pay gap are age, educational level and working hours. Spain and Lithuania report that the pay gap is larger in the private sector compared to the public sector.

The biggest pay gaps by sectors among the countries are as follows: Commerce sector – Spain – 30%; Education - Spain - more than 20%; Scientific research - Bulgaria – 27%; “Creation and dissemination of information and creative products; telecommunications” – Bulgaria – 33%; Financial and insurance activities- Lithuania - 38.5%; Information and communication -Lithuania - 29.5%. The pay gap grows with the age of the women. (Spain, Cyprus). The biggest pay gaps occur in jobs requiring the highest educational levels. (Italy, Bulgaria)

The countries identify the reasons for the existence of the pay gap as lack of policies for equality in employment (Spain), salary supplements (Spain), the fact that women are more often employed in part-time jobs (Spain), occupational differences between the genders (Bulgaria).

Other reasons according to the “Factsheet: The gender pay gap in the European Union” of the European Commission¹ are:

- Management and supervisory positions are overwhelmingly held by men. Within each sector men are more often promoted than women, and paid better as a consequence. This trend culminates at the very top, where amongst CEOs less than 6% are women.
- Women take charge of important unpaid tasks, such as household work and caring for children or relatives on a far larger scale than men do. Working men spend on average 9 hours per week on unpaid care and household activities, while working women spend 22 hours – that’s almost 4 hours every day. In the labour market this is reflected by the fact that more than 1 in 3 women reduce their paid hours to part-time, while only 1 in 10 men do the same. This fact shows the influence of stereotypes on the income gap between genders. According to the stereotypes taking care of house work, children, sick and old relatives is

¹ (2017) “Factsheet: The gender pay gap in the European Union”. European Commission, retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-pay-gap/index_en.htm

the role of the women. This is the behavior society expects from them and it has direct influence on their income.

- Women tend to spend periods off the labour market more often than men. These career interruptions not only influence hourly pay, but also impact future earnings and pensions.
- Segregation in education and in the labour market; this means that in some sectors and occupations, women tend to be overrepresented, while in others men are overrepresented. In some countries, occupations predominantly carried out by women, such as teaching or sales, offer lower wages than occupations predominantly carried out by men, even when the same level of experience and education is needed.
- Pay discrimination, while illegal, continues to contribute to the gender pay gap.

In some countries measures are taken by the Government and/or private organisations to tackle the problem (Italy), in others not (Spain).

Table 1: Average pay gap

Country	European Statistics
Bulgaria	15,4%
Cyprus	14%
Ireland	13,9%
Italy	5,5%
Lithuania	14,2%
Spain	14,9%

Source: Eurostat (2015).

3.2. National information

3.2.1. Bulgaria

In terms of how the genders are paid in Bulgaria, things are close to the EU average. The average salary of men is about 540 Euro, while women earn 430 Euro per month. This difference comes mainly from the occupational differences between the genders. Women take more of the less paid jobs as clerks, administrative workers, services.

According to statistics we can clearly see that while the situation is comparatively good there are still great disparities in how the genders are paid. For example in the field of “Creation and dissemination of information and creative products; telecommunications” women earn only 67% of what men earn. In the field of scientific research women earn 73% of men’s salary.

3.2.2. Cyprus

The “gender pay gap” term refers to the overall difference between the average earnings of men and women for one year. The gender pay gap in Cyprus stands at around 15%, while the EU average gender pay gap is around 16%.

Based on a selection of statistics concerning the women in Cyprus, published by the Statistical Services of Cyprus in 2017, the following data were collected about women's social conditions: "The woman employee in Cyprus has monthly earnings around €1.600. The gender pay gap stands at 14%. (pg. 3)

Many differences can be observed regarding the gender pay gap in Cyprus, mainly depending on the age group and the economic activity. The following tables present the unadjusted gender pay gap for Cyprus based on age, economic activity and economic control.

Table 2: The unadjusted gender pay gap by age (%) for Cyprus, 2015

	<25 years	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	54 years +
Cyprus	4.9	-0.8	10.1	24.3	27.1	54.2

Source: Eurostat ([earn_gr_gpgr2ag](#))

Table 3: The unadjusted gender pay gap by economic activity (%) for Cyprus, 2015

Economic activity	Gender pay gap
Business economy	21.8
Manufacturing	29.2
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	2.8
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	-6.5
Construction	9.2
Information and communication	13.5
Financial and insurance activities	24.9
Real estate activities	9.6
Professional, scientific and technical activities	34.8

Source: Eurostat ([earn_gr_gpgr2](#))

Table 4: The unadjusted gender pay gap by economic control (%) for Cyprus, 2015

	Public	Private
Cyprus	-6.8	23.4

Source: Eurostat ([earn_gr_gpgr2ct](#))

Some factors that contribute to this situation are the following²:

- Men are usually promoted to managerial and supervisory positions which are paying better and offers more benefits.
- Women are usually more involved in household activities and motherhood which often leads them to reduce their paid working hours or work part-time.

² (2015). "The gender pay gap in Cyprus." *European Commission* (http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/gender_pay_gap/gpg_country_factsheet_cy_2015_en.pdf)

3.2.3. Ireland

Ireland ranks 25th in the Women in Work Index for ‘female economic empowerment’. There was a recorded 14.8% difference in median pay between men and women in 2015 (Irish Times 2017; OECD 2015). This shows a growth compared to the Eurostat figures from 2014 with 13.9%. However this number has improved when compared to 17.3% recorded in 2007 (Gender Equality Ireland).

According to Gender Equality Ireland this figure does not take a multitude of factors into account such as differences in education, labour market experience, hours work, and type of work. It identifies the percentage of hourly earnings.

There have been a number of measures taken to address the gender pay gap by Government and women’s charities. The current programme for Government in Ireland includes measures to review and address investment in childcare, lower pay of women, and larger companies to be transparent with wage surveys identifying their possible gender gaps.

The “National Strategy for Women and Girls 2017 – 2020”³ was launched in May 2017 and this may provide a framework for change.

"Rising to the challenge - addressing Ireland's gender pay gap" was a national symposium held on 10th January 2018 as a result of a public consultation that took place in order to tackle Ireland’s gender pay gap. Information about it is available on the following web address: <http://www.genderequality.ie/en/GE/Pages/WP17000002>

3.2.4. Italy

The gender pay gap is an urgent issue in Italy. In the last research of [ISTAT](#) on the pay differentials of the private sector⁴ referred to the data research of 2014, men have a salary of 1,8 euro per hour more than women in the same job position. The pay differentials for women is negative and it’s around 12,2%. The female disadvantage grows with the increase of the hours worked and the educational level according to geographical and sectorial sources. For the highest job position that requires a master degree, women have a salary of 16,1 euro while men have a salary of 23,3 euro. The pay differential is – 30,6%.

In *the Global Gender Gap Report 2017*⁵, published by the World Economic Forum, Italy is in the 8th position of 144 world countries analyzed in the annual report. As reported, the country “*widens its gender gap to more than 30% for the first time since 2014*”. The country lost 32 positions in the ranking. The principals’ factors are the daily unpaid workload (61,5% for Italian women and 22,9%

³ (2017) “National Strategy for Women and Girls 2017 – 2020.” Department of Justice and Equality, Ireland, retrieved from http://www.justice.ie/en/JELR/National_Strategy_for_Women_and_Girls_2017_-_2020.pdf/Files/National_Strategy_for_Women_and_Girls_2017_-_2020.pdf

⁴ [ISTAT \(Italian National Institute of Statistics\)](#) ,the following research refers to the pay differentials in private sectors in Italy (https://www.istat.it/it/files/2016/12/CS_DIFFERENZIALI-RETRIBUTIVI.pdf)

⁵ Global Gender Gap Report 2017, World Economic Forum, http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2017.pdf

for men). Many indexes, as inequality on the labor market, career opportunities and wage equality for similar works, underline the situation in Italy.

Other important data research highlights that Italian woman works 59 minutes on the average than an Italian man. Unemployment is rising among women (+12,8%) in the last year as well as the gap for the jobless (60,5%).

3.2.5. Lithuania

According to earnings statistics, in 2015⁶, the average gross monthly earnings of women made up 84.5 per cent of those of men. The gender pay gap in the private sector was bigger than in the public one and stood at 17.3 per cent (in the public sector – at 16.3 per cent). The largest gender pay gap was recorded in financial and insurance activities (38.5 per cent) and information and communication (29.5 per cent) and in the age group 35-44. Gender pay gap by employee age group is presented in a table 5.

Table 5: Gender pay gap by employee age group and by sector for Lithuania, 2015

	Whole economy							Public sector	Private sector
	Total	Age group							
		<25	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	≥65		
2010	14.6	8.8	12.5	19.2	15.9	11.8	7.2	14.2	18.8
2014	14.8	9.0	12.7	19.4	16.1	12.0	7.4	15.6	16.4
2015	15.6	12.4	16.3	20.9	16.2	12.8	13.1	16.3	17.3

Source: (Statistics Lithuania, 2016)⁶

Table 6: Gender pay gap by economic activity (%) for Lithuania, 2015

Economic activity	Gender pay gap
Business economy	17,3
Manufacturing	25,6
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	8,7
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	11,3
Construction	1,7
Information and communication	29,5
Financial and insurance activities	38,5
Real estate activities	10,7
Professional, scientific and technical activities	17,4

Source: (Statistics Lithuania, 2016)⁶

⁶ Statistics Lithuania (2016) "Women and Men in Lithuania".

https://osp.stat.gov.lt/documents/10180/2246109/13_Moterys_vyrai_Lietuvoje_2015.pdf

3.2.6. Spain

The wage gap between genders in Spain is 14.9%.⁷ (The average gender pay gap in the EU is 16.7%). According to data from the report prepared by UGT, "The lack of policies for equality in employment increases the pay gap"⁸, we have compiled the following data:

- The gender pay gap in Spain has increased from 22.55% in 2010 to 23.25% in 2014 (In 2014, the average annual gross salary of women was 19,744.82 euros while that of men 25,727.24 was euros).
- Women have been harmed the most by the measures adopted in Spain in the face of the crisis. In most EU countries, the pay gap has been reduced, while in Spain, the gap has slightly widened.
- Salary supplements and above all, overtime, increase the salary gap.
- In private companies, the wage gap increases to 28.46%. In companies with public control, the gap stands at 10.93%
- One and a half million workers in the commerce sector are affected by a pay gap of 28.1%, and receive 6,458.96 euros per year less than men.
- Pay gaps exist across all branches.
- The average salary of women is lower than that of men by more than 20% across all educational levels.
- As the age of women increases, the wage gap increases.
- The part-time journey accentuates the differences between women and men, because women with this working day tripled men.
- Women with indefinite contracts earn almost 7,000 euros per year less than men.
- In all Autonomous Communities there is a wage gap, with a great difference in salaries from one to the other. In Andalusia it is 25.68%

⁷ (2016) "The gender pay gap in Spain", http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/gender_pay_gap/2016/gpa_country_factsheet_es_2016_en.pdf

⁸ (2017) "The lack of policies for equality in employment increases the pay gap", UGT <http://www.ugt.es/Publicaciones/Informe%20Brecha%20Salarial-22feb2017-OK.PDF>



4. Gender balance in decision-making positions

4.1. Summary

Across the EU, women are underrepresented in decision-making positions, particularly in politics and business. In May 2016, women accounted for 29% of members of the single or lower houses of parliaments in the EU countries.

In business leadership the situation is even worse: in April 2016, women accounted for just 23.3% of board members of the largest publicly listed companies registered in the EU countries.

The causes for the underrepresentation of women in decision-making processes and positions are multiple, complex, and call for a comprehensive approach to tackle the problem. They stem from traditional gender roles and stereotypes, the lack of support for women and men to balance care responsibilities with work and the prevalent political and corporate cultures, to name just a few.

Table 7: Women on decision-making positions

Country	Representation of women on the boards of large listed companies in the EU, April 2016 – Source: European Institute for Gender Equality ⁹	Representation of women in national governments, 2013 – Source: “Women and men in leadership positions in the European Union, 2013” ¹⁰	Representation of women in national assemblies, 2013 – Source: “Women and men in leadership positions in the European Union, 2013” ¹¹
Bulgaria	17,9%	24%	23%
Cyprus	10,9%	8%	13%
Ireland	16% (2014)	13%	16%
Italy	30%	30%	31%
Lithuania	13%	13%	24%
Spain	20,2%	29%	40%
EU average	23,3%	27%	27%

Women are underrepresented in decision-making positions in all of the partner countries, the degree to which varies across the countries and fields. Such decision-making positions are positions in boards of directors, boards of management, higher academic positions, or positions in politics or higher administration.

⁹ “Women and Men in Decision Making” *European Institute for Gender Equality*, retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm

¹⁰ “Women and men in leadership positions in the European Union, 2013”, *European Commission*, retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/gender_balance_decision_making/131011_women_men_leadership_en.pdf

¹¹ “Women and men in leadership positions in the European Union, 2013”, *European Commission*, retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/gender_balance_decision_making/131011_women_men_leadership_en.pdf

There are a few tendencies to note:

- The higher the positions, the less women are employed in them.
- The degree to which women are underrepresented varies in the different fields as a result of gender stereotypes. Women tend to more often get higher positions in health, social and cultural work, education, whereas very rarely in construction politics and business.
- Women are better represented in European political organs than in the regional ones. (Ireland, Cyprus)
- The consequences are lack of diversity and therefore a lack of perspective and inadequate decision-making in decision-making bodies. A possible solution is gender quotas for those bodies. (Ireland)

4.2. National information

4.2.1. Bulgaria

No national statistics were available, however according to the European statistics Bulgaria has 17.9% representation of women on the boards of large listed companies in the EU, which is below the EU average of 23.3% .(April 2016) Bulgaria's has 24% Representation of women in national governments in 2013 with the EU-average for 2013 being – 27%. Bulgaria has 23% representation of women in national assemblies in 2013, 4% lower the EU-average for the year – 27%. It is to be concluded that Bulgaria is behind on reducing inequality in decision-making positions compared to the EU.

4.2.2. Cyprus

The participation of women is at a very low level in decision-making, leadership, political and economic sectors in Cyprus. The female representation in the government of the Republic of Cyprus is only at / reaches only the 9.1% (10 men ministers and only 1 woman minister - Ministry of Labor, Welfare and Social Insurance). It is important to mention that during the 57 years of the Republic of Cyprus, only 9 women served ministers out of the total of 165.

In the field of national parliaments in the European Union the participation of women is on average 28%. However Cyprus holds one of the last positions in the list of the 27 member states of the European Union, with only 17,9% of women participation.¹²

The figures are even more dramatic with regard to the representation rates of women in the economic sector and more specifically in the Boards of Directors of large companies. Cyprus holds one of the lowest rates in the European Union, with only 7% female representation, while the average in the European Union reaches the 19%. Even lower are the rates observed for the

¹² Kozakou-Marcoullis, E. (2016), Balanced participation of men and women in decision-making centers (<https://www.slideshare.net/eratokm49/o-i-27-2016>)

participation of women in the Presidency of listed companies. Cyprus has an average of 5%, which is the average of the European Union as well.¹³

It is worth noting that Cyprus is the only member country of the Eurozone with a female member of the 18-member Board of Directors of the European Central Bank (Chrystalla Georghadji - Governor, Central Bank of Cyprus).¹⁴

Unfortunately, Cyprus seems to lag behind regarding the representation and participation of women in political life, since based on European researches Cyprus is fourth from the bottom of the list of female political representation in the EU, while at a global level Cyprus ranks 107th.¹⁵

Regarding Cyprus municipalities, in Cyprus we have only 1 woman mayor at the moment (3.3%), compared to 10 men mayors.¹⁶

Also, the House of Representatives for 2017 was consisted of 46 men and 10 women (17,9%). We should also mention that during the 57 years of the Republic of Cyprus, only 24 women served as members of the House of Representatives of Cyprus.¹⁷

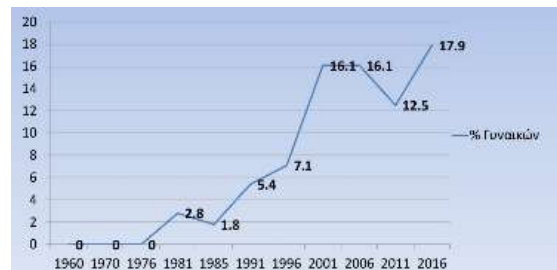


Figure 1: Proportion of women in the Cyprus House of Representatives at election years

4.2.3. Ireland

Women in Ireland are not equally represented at a decision making level. This includes boards of directors, boards of management, higher academic positions, in regional politics or Government. Director of National Women’s Council Orla O’Connor stated that women hold only 16% of Irish Stock Exchange Boards. Ireland is behind the European average of 23% (Irish Times, 2017). Ms O’Connor as an advocate for women’s right and equality suggests that Boards in Ireland should have gender quotas and women are an under tapped resource at decision making levels.

Diversity in Ireland’s Boardrooms (2017) suggests the rationale for diversity in Boardrooms is based on the Boards’ then ability to have a diversity of thought and perspectives. Thus leading to a variety of life experiences and understandings leading to better decision making and more informed and better governance.

¹³ Kozakou-Marcoullis, E. (2014), Business Activity 50+ (<https://www.slideshare.net/eratokm49/business-activity-50-50>)

¹⁴ <https://www.ecb.europa.eu/ecb/orga/decisions/govc/html/index.en.html>

¹⁵ Kozakou-Marcoullis, E. (2015), Breaking the glass ceiling in decision making positions (<https://www.slideshare.net/eratokm49/breaking-the-glass-ceiling-in-decision-making-positions>)

¹⁶ Not taking into consideration the 9 municipalities of the northern part of Cyprus, which are still maintaining their legal status

¹⁷ Kozakou-Marcoullis, E. (2016), Balanced participation of men and women in decision-making centers (<https://www.slideshare.net/eratokm49/o-i-27-2016>)

In politics the situation is changing. After the 2016 election, women representation rose from 16.3% in the previous Government to 22%. However in European representation Irish women have a higher representation with 55% which is above the EU average of 37% (European Commission, 2018).

4.2.4. Italy

The gender balance situation in decision making positions for women in Italy depends on the general trend of the country according to the reference period analyzed. As reported in the *Global Gender Gap Report*¹⁸ in 2017, Italian women are in the 46th position in the global ranking. A bad result for the country that lost 21 positions in one year.

Regarding the female representation in Parliament, on 2017 the position ranking of Italy is on 29th position: Parliament 31%; Departments 27,8%; Government 33%.

As in these two years, in Italy was recorded a high presence of women in decision making positions: 31,3 % in the Chamber of Deputies and 29,6% in the Senate. Unfortunately, the female representation in the highest position of the leadership are infrequent. As recorded last year, in the beginning of the year only 8 Ministers on 16 was occupied by women. At the end of 2017, the women presence decreased to 27,7 %. The two largest positions allocated are in Cultural and Social areas meanwhile their presence in Financial field amount to 15%. Regarding the highest administrative positions, in 11 Authority in Italy, only 13 women have a seat in the Commissions and only one woman as president.

4.2.5. Lithuania

In 2012, 33 women and 108 men were elected to the Seimas (Parliament) of the Republic of Lithuania. Women make up almost a quarter of Seimas members. Three women chair Seimas committees. In 2014, one woman and ten men were elected to the European Parliament. On 1 July 2016, there are four (29 per cent) female ministers in the sixteenth Government of the Republic of Lithuania; out of 45 vice-ministers, ten (22 per cent), out of 14 ministry chancellors – 5 (36 per cent) are women. In the Government of the Republic of Lithuania, female ministers, vice-ministers and advisors to ministers make up about 30 per cent of all ministers, vice-ministers and advisors to ministers. According to the Labour Force Survey data, in 2015, 40 per cent of all leaders (legislators, senior officers and managers) were women. At the beginning of 2016, 26 per cent of diplomatic mission leaders were women. In 2015, 363 women (25 per cent) and 1 110 men (75 per cent) were elected to the municipal councils of the Republic of Lithuania. Based on the data from the Statistical Register of Economic Entities, in 2015, there were 29.5 thousand women enterprise managers, or 30 per cent of all managers of economic entities in operation. The largest proportion of women enterprise managers was recorded in inpatient care – 64, human health and social work – 62, and education – 60 per cent, the smallest – 9 per cent – in construction.

¹⁸ Global Gender Gap Report 2017, World Economic Forum, http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2017.pdf

Top leadership of the Republic of Lithuania, 2016 *Beginning of the year*

- President - Dalia Grybauskaitė (woman)
- Speaker of the Seimas (Parliament) - Loreta Grauziniene (woman)
- Prime Minister - Algirdas Butkevicius (man)

Source: Statistic Lithuania 2016¹⁹

4.2.6. Spain

a) Political participation, women in executive positions and in the Government

- According to data from the Institute for Women and Equal Opportunities, collected in the National Statistics Institute of Spain, in September 2017²⁰, the percentage of women in the executive positions of political parties has decreased slightly compared to the previous year, standing at 37.2%, compared to the previous year to 37.5% of 2016.
- If each political party is analyzed individually (and taking into account the criterion of balance between men and women of the Spanish equality law), in 2017 only five political parties (PSOE, IU, PODEMOS, PDC and CC) met this criterion of the nine main political parties in Spain (IU, CC, PODEMOS, PSOE, PDC, PP, C's, EAJ-PNV and ERC). IU the political party with the highest percentage of women.

b) Women in the Congress of Deputies and in the Senate

- After the general elections of June 26, 2016, in the Congress of Deputies, the percentage of women elected was 39.4%, almost four points above the 2011 elections, in which the percentage was 35, 7%²¹
- As regards the Senate, at the beginning of the current legislature, the percentage of women was 39.9%, which is 4.3 percentage points higher than the percentage obtained in 2011.

c) Women in public and private positions

- In 2016, women represented less than a third of the total of those who occupied the higher bodies and high positions of the General State Administration (Government, Secretary of

¹⁹ Statistics Lithuania (2016) "Women and Men in Lithuania".

https://osp.stat.gov.lt/documents/10180/2246109/13_Moterys_vyrai_Lietuvoje_2015.pdf

²⁰ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Political participation, women in executive positions and in the Government"

http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925595348&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

²¹ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Women in the Congress of Deputies and in the Senate"

http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925595398&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888



State, Undersecretaries and General Directorates) without taking in to account the positions of the Administration with a lower category than the General Director.²²

- We found the highest percentage of female presence in the members of the Government, with a percentage of 38.5%. On the other hand, the General Directorates are those that have a lower percentage of women, with 26.4%.
- In 2016, the percentage of women in the set of Boards of Directors of the companies that are part of the Ibex-35 was 19.1%, (very low percentage), and is almost double that of the year 2010, and superior by almost one point to the year of 2014. The percentage drops three points compared to the one reached in 2015.

d) Women in constitutional bodies

- In 2017, the percentage of women in charge of the six constitutional bodies has only improved in the Central Electoral Board with respect to 2016²³.
- Except for the position of Ombudsman (where we can find a woman like holder) the highest participation is in the General Council of the Judiciary, with 42.9%, which has not changed with respect to 2016.
- The Council of State, with 20.7% has reduced the female presence compared to 24.1% in 2016.
- In the Central Electoral Board, the female representation increases by 4.5 points (it rises to 20.0% compared to the previous 15.4%).
- The General Council of the Judiciary, the Court of Auditors and the Economic and Social Council have the same percentages of female representation in relation to the percentages reached in 2016.

²² National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Women in senior public and private positions"
http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925595694&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

²³ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Women in constitutional bodies and in Royal Academies"
www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925595743&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888



5. Pension gap and causes for it

5.1. Summary

According to 2012 statistics in the EU-as a whole, men (between age 65 and 79) on average were entitled to pensions which are greater than those of women by forty per cent.

Table 8: Gender Gap in Pensions (%), 2012, pensioners aged 65-79.

Country	Pensions gap
Bulgaria	36%
Cyprus	38%
Ireland	41%
Italy	36%
Lithuania	12%
Spain	33%
EU average	40%

Source: “MEN, WOMEN AND PENSIONS” European commission²⁴

Causes for the gender pension gap, as identified by the partner countries, are that women more often work part-time or take career breaks due to child rearing or home commitments. Maternity leave means women may lose pension contributions during this time. (Ireland, Cyprus). Women often lack information about their pension insurance. (Ireland) Pension funds are managed mainly by men. (Ireland) This shows how underrepresentation in decision-making positions influences the decisions made, negatively. The economic crisis led to a number of other policies with negative repercussions. (Cyprus) Female unemployment as well as inequalities in the labor market and non-support of female employment in relation to family life, which often has as a result the interruption of women’s careers or the need to choose a more flexible form of employment that is often precarious and atypical are a major cause of the pension gap. (Cyprus)

There is not only a gap in the amount of money the pensioners are given, but also in the percentage of people that don’t get a pension at all. In some counties more men are in position, and in others – more women.

5.2. National information

5.2.1. Bulgaria

There was no regional data available, According to the European statistics however, the pension gap in Bulgaria is 36%, which is lower than the Eu-average – 40 %. It is quite substantial though as this is as a result of the fact that women, much more than men make career breaks for raising children,

²⁴ (2015) “MEN, WOMEN AND PENSIONS” *European commission*, retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/documents/150618_men_women_pensions_en.pdf -

taking care of sick and lod relatives and also sometimes work shorter hours in order to be able to catch up with household work.

5.2.2. Cyprus

In June 2017, a study on the "Gender Gap in Pensions" was overseen and published by the European Parliament's Policy Department for Citizens' Rights and Constitutional Affairs at the request of the FEMM Committee. The main finding of the study, which was based on 2013 data, is that there is a large gap in pensions with the highest percentage of 48.8% coming from in Cyprus.²⁵

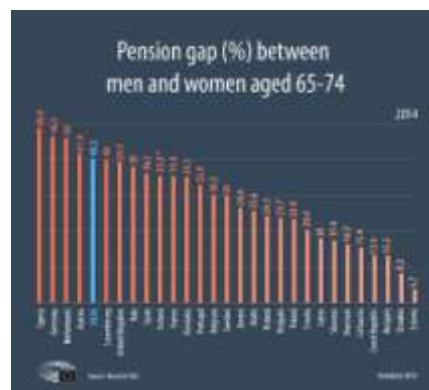


Figure 2
Pensions gap (%) between men and women aged 65 - 74

Especially after the economic crisis in Cyprus, which began in 2012 and peaked in 2013, and the austerity measures imposed by the Cypriot government there has been an increase in part-time and female unemployment, as well as a number of other policies with negative repercussions. As noted in the study, the causes of the pension gap (and the pay gap in general) are inequalities in the labor market and non-support of female employment in relation to family life, which often has as a result the interruption of women's careers or the need to choose a more flexible form of employment that is often precarious and atypical.

5.2.3. Ireland

The pension gap is twice as large as the gender pay gap in Ireland (Independent, 2017). Mercer reported the pension gap as 35% which is slightly below the average EU average but well above the pay gap of 14.8%. As life expectancy is rising, this issue is an area that may worsen.

Brian Hayes MEP for Ireland has suggests this issue needs to be discussed in public sector pay talks as well as pension talks. There is little taken into account on gender issues and that women may work part-time or take career breaks due to child rearing or home commitments.

A number of reasons for pension gaps is suggested by FORA (www.fora.ie):

- Maternity leave means women may lose pension contributions during this time.
- 73% of women reported little knowledge of pensions
- Pension funds are managed by trustees which tend to be either corporate entities or boards made up of representatives of the employer, trade unions and employee bodies. The boards tend to be composed of more men than women.

²⁵ European Parliament's Policy Department for Citizens' Rights and Constitutional Affairs (2017), Gender Gap in Pensions: Looking ahead ([http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/STUD/2017/583150/IPOL_STU\(2017\)583150_EN.pdf](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/STUD/2017/583150/IPOL_STU(2017)583150_EN.pdf))

5.2.4. Italy

In 2016, the Italian retired people are 16,1 million²⁶. The [statistic by ISTAT](#) reported that 52,7% are women. They have a retirement income of 6.000 euro less than man retired in the same job position. Only 436.000 people in 2016 are working after the retirement, and in 3 of 4 cases are men that in most of the statistics live in the northern part of the country and have a low educational level.

In the 86,6% of cases analysed by ISTAT in 2016 women have a second retirement income due to their higher life expectancy: the average amounts are higher for women than man (9.222-euro vs 5913 euro).

Most of the retirement income financed by the State for women are welfare assistance pensions (59,7%). In general, for retirement income in the following sectors there aren't payment gap among the two genders thanks to a strictly Italian legislation:

- Civil disabilities pensions;
- Social pensions;
- Disability pension granted to civilian victims of war or repression.

In 2016, ISTAT registered an exception for "war pensions": the gap between men and women is around 5.677 euro.

A remarkable data research reported that 16 women on 100 analysed don't receive any retirement income meanwhile among men only 3 on 100. The pension gender gap on 2016 increase of 23%. In the absent of direct retirement treatments from the State, in Italy one woman in four in the statistic raking, between age 65 – 79, would remain without pensions if social security pension doesn't exist.

In ten years the gender gap in pension field in Italy has decreased by 10,5% thanks to a gradual retirement of women with long and regular careers in the Italian labour market.

5.2.5. Lithuania

The average state social insurance old-age pension received by women was by almost one-fifth lower than that received by men. The proportion of women old-age pension beneficiaries who were still working (10 per cent) was lower than that of the men ones (13 per cent).

26 ISTAT, Focus pensionati 2016,
https://www.istat.it/it/files/2017/12/Focus_pensionati_DEF.pdf?title=Condizioni+di+vita+dei+pensionati+-+21%2Fdic%2F2017+-+Testo+integrale.pdf

5.2.6. Spain

According to the report made by the UGT in January of 2017: "Pensions disaggregated by sex. Analysis of some variables on pensions disaggregated by sex"²⁷, with data for the year 2015:

- The data shows that the percentage of women receiving a pension is 5.27% higher than the percentage of men. However, the average amount of their pensions is 37.79% lower.
- The average amount of retirement pensions for women is 742.81 euros. There is a difference of 454.38 euros (37.95%) in relation to the 1,197.19 euros of average pension received by more than three million of men.
- About 2819 women receive a pension of the maximum amount, compared to a total of 17,637 men. Women have a majority presence in the lower sections of pensions.
- 72.02% of the women who have a retirement pension receive less than 700 gross euros per month (1,493,173 are women compared to 918,563 men who receive pensions equal or less than 700 euros.

²⁷ UGT (2017) "Pensions disaggregated by sex. Analysis of some variables on pensions disaggregated by sex"
[http://www.ugt.es/Publicaciones/170123%20%20Análisis%20Pensiones%20con%20perspectiva%20de%20Género%20\(2\)%20\(00000002\)%20\(00000002\).pdf](http://www.ugt.es/Publicaciones/170123%20%20Análisis%20Pensiones%20con%20perspectiva%20de%20Género%20(2)%20(00000002)%20(00000002).pdf)



6. Family roles

6.1. Summary

Women take more unpaid work than men do (taking care of the household and children). Men spend 39 hours of paid work per week on average in the EU, whereas women spend 33 hours in paid work. In contrast, women do the lion's share of housework and care: working women spend 22 hours per week in unpaid work, while working men spend fewer than 10 hours.

Table 9: Unpaid work 2015

Country	Hours unpaid work women	Hours unpaid work men
Bulgaria	21	7
Cyprus	24	4
Ireland	28	14
Italy	24	9
Lithuania	22	8
Spain	25	12
EU average	22	11

Source: "2017 Report on equality between women and men in the EU", *European Commission, ISBN 978-92-79-65778-8*

Parenthood

The impact of parenthood on labour market participation is still very different for women and men - only 65.6% of women with children under 12 work, as opposed to 90.3% of men. This reflects the unequal sharing of family responsibilities, but also often signals a lack of childcare and work-life balance opportunities.

Historically, women's roles in the family were very different from today and nowadays they are getting more and more empowered. Women now work alongside men, however traditional family roles have not yet been fully changed. Women becoming a better part of the working force leads to more dual earning partnerships. However, research shows that this intimidates men and confuses them about their role in the family, although women still take the majority of the housework and household responsibility. They also take care of young kids or elderly dependents more often than men. The time and effort women spend on the household compared to that that men spend on the household increases in households with children, as they are the ones taking more actively part in parenting. Referring to the research on gendering of household labour, the routine housework such as cooking or laundering is typically analysed as "female-dominated" or "female stereotypical" tasks. On the contrary, less frequent tasks such as car or household repairs are labelled as "male-dominated" or "masculine." In general men take more active role in tasks typically associated with social skills, normative behaviour and the formation of self-expression in the public sphere. On the contrary, the female sphere includes emotional security and care usually considered as a particular

feminine norm. On average women spend less time working for their job than men. How much those stereotypes about the traditional role in the family affect the people depends on their education and place of residence.

The effect of the stereotypical family roles on women is the double stress – in work and at home. This may clarify why sometimes some women “dream” of the rich prince charming who rescues them from these responsibilities.

6.2. National information

6.2.1. Bulgaria

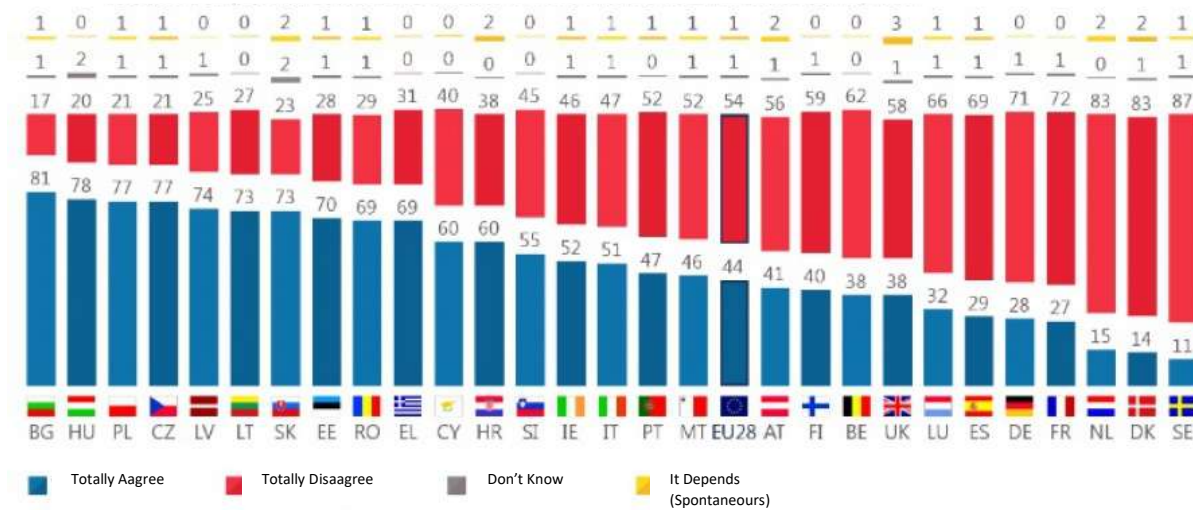
Bulgaria is a largely conservative country in terms of how family roles are viewed and new ideas do get introduced in the society but they become a staple rather slow. Family roles remain mainly how they traditionally were. Changes on that front are seen as something not necessarily bad, but unneeded by most of Bulgarians.

As per a research conducted in Germany in 2017 “Bulgaria scored the highest percentage of gender-stereotypical thinking.”²⁸ The EU research shows that Bulgaria is one of the “traditionalist” countries, where society is largely considered to function on the basis of old stereotypes. Another example of this is when the question “Should men take paternity leave” was asked, where 68% of Bulgarians were against the idea.

Figure 3: The most important role of a woman

Q1.4 Please tell me whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements

The most important role of a woman is to take care of her family (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer 465

²⁸ (November 2017), “Gender Equality 2017. Gender Equality, Stereotypes, and Women in Politics”, European Commission, Special Eurobarometer 465

6.2.2. Cyprus

The Statistical Service of Cyprus (Cyprus Ministry of Finance) press release published in October of 2017, “women in Cyprus daily, are getting together with family (relatives) at a percentage of 49% (of women aged 16 and over), are getting together with friends at a percentage of 34% and have active participation in social media (e.g Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn etc.) at a percentage of 41%” (p. 3).²⁹

Also, based on the Digital Publication “[The life of women and men in Europe – a statistical portrait](#)” of the statistical office of the European Union (Eurostat), issued in October 2017, women in Cyprus get married for the first time usually at 27,7 years (mean age), and bring in life approximately 1,32 children (total fertility rate) and on the birth of their first child they are usually 29,5 years (mean age).³⁰ Moreover, regarding people living alone with children (because of divorce, single parents etc.), the same publication mentions that 6.5% of women in Cyprus (aged 25-49) live alone with children, while only 0.9% of Cypriot men live alone with their children. Regarding the daily childcare and education of children, 96% of women in Cyprus (aged 25-49) mentioned that they are taking care of and/or educate their children daily, while only 75% of men are involved in these kind of childcare activities.

Furthermore, based on the results of the Statistical Service’s report on Cyprus Labour Force for the 3rd quarter of 2017, it seems that 369 of Cypriot women are staying at home working for the household by choice (not taking into account those who are unemployed).³¹ 81% of Cypriot women (aged 18 and over) mentions that is involved in daily cooking and housework, while only 27% of men is involved in similar activities.³²

6.2.3. Ireland

In the 1970’s Ireland was a very different place for women. Until 1977, women who married were legally not allowed to work. They had to give up their job as they were seen to be occupying one a man could hold (Advertiser, 2012). In this decade huge changes were hard fought for by women. They won the right to vote, drink in a pub, sit on a jury, refuse intimacy with their husband, own her own home etc. This framework of inequality forced women to follow in second place being men, and their husbands.

Gender roles in Ireland are now changing. Women have seen a huge increase in participation in the work force, educational attainment, earnings, rights and more. It is now common place for a dual

²⁹ Statistical Service of Cyprus (Cyprus Ministry of Finance), (2017). The Woman in Cyprus in Figures (<http://www.mof.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/All/73F947E6E0470DD2C22580D80037BA90?OpenDocument&sub=6&sele=1&e=&print>)

³⁰ Eurostat (2017), “The life of women and men in Europe – a statistical portrait” – data about Cyprus (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/infographs/womenmen/vis/lifeline/index.html>)

³¹ Republic of Cyprus Statistical Service (2017). Survey on Cyprus Labour Force (3rd quarter of 2017), (http://www.mof.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/labour_31main_en/labour_31main_en?OpenForm&sub=1&sel=2)

³² Eurostat (2017), “The life of women and men in Europe – a statistical portrait” – data about Cyprus (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/infographs/womenmen/bloc-3d.html?lang=en>)

earning partnership between men and women in many homes across the country (Attitudes to Family Formation – Findings from the National Survey)

Research conducted found that some men believe women advancing in their career are a threat to men. That housework is still not evenly shared in many households even when both partners are working. Some men suggested that by women being empowered, it left them feeling disempowered.

6.2.4. Italy

In ten years, ISTAT registered in his research on “[The life’s changes of women in Italy 2004 – 2014](#)³³” a deep change for the role of the women in family roles. Data research highlights that the parent’s experiences decreased in different phase of the women’s life, meanwhile single parents increased their number. The life experiences of women and men in Italy are changing in the last decade: in the age 25 – 34 the number of women that live in couple without children decreased from 15,3% to 12,9% and with children from 36,4% to 33,1%. Instead, the number of women that live alone are around 7,9% meanwhile who live in their birth family increased from 26,8% to 28,9%. In the next two age groups, 35 – 44, 45 – 54 and 55 – 64, the number of women in couple with children decreased of 6%, in case of single mothers or widows the percentage increased more.

Thanks to an improvement of the living conditions of the Italian population, the life’s experience of Italian women is deeply change, in particular in the last 5 years. A significant reduction of better health condition and life’s quality allow more women to live more than 75 years old. The gender differences are marked. The family experiences of men are deeply different: young men live longer in their birth families than women (+51,8%) and only in the age group 35 – 44 they move in other family roles as fathers. The number of men with children, alone or in a couple, in this age group decreased of 6% while in the next two age group decreased of 9,1%.

According to a research elaborated by ISTAT in 2016, 7.338.000 women are housewife in Italy, 518.000 less than 10 years ago. Their average age is 60 years old, 40,9%, and their mostly live in the centre and southern area of the country. In 2012, only 8,8% of them attended an educational training meanwhile the youngsters 12,9% n the age group over 34. Most of them have never been working one day in their life and their lives below the poverty line. In 2014, they produced 50 billion and 694 million of household production’s hours, 71% of the total. The average number of working hours not payed in one year is around 2.539 per housewife and 1507 per working woman and 826 per men employed and unemployed.

The women condition in family role in Italy is mainly described in a research of [OECD](#)³⁴ on the Italian situation where is reported:

³³ ISTAT, “Come cambia la vita delle donne 2004 – 2014”, <https://www.istat.it/it/files/2015/12/come-cambia-la-vita-delle-donne.pdf?title=Come+cambia+la+vita+delle+donne+-+22%2Fdic%2F2015+-+Volume+%28pdf%29.pdf>

³⁴ “Closing the gender gap. Act Now. ITALIA” OECD, <https://www.oecd.org/gender/Closing%20the%20Gender%20Gap%20-%20Italy%20FINAL.pdf>

“After Turkey and Mexico, Italy has the third lowest labour force participation rate (51%) among OECD countries (65%). Less than 30% of children under three years of age attend day-care services and about one-third of Italian working women works part-time to reconcile work and family commitments (OECD average is 24%). Women are often regarded as the main “family carer”: Italian women do on average 3.7 hours a day of household work more than men, holding back growth in female employment growth. Greater female labour force participation strengthens household incomes, which is particularly important in times of high unemployment, and also helps to address the implications of population ageing. Projections show that if female participation rates converged to those of men by 2030, the Italian labour force would increase by 7% and GDP per capita by 1 percentage point a year for the next 20 years.”

6.2.5. Lithuania

A representative quantitative survey “Gender Inequality, Public Policy and the Future of Fertility in Lithuania” was conducted in 2010–2011 in Lithuania (the survey sample consisted of 1031 respondents). The aim of this survey was to evaluate the content, scale and main tendencies of gender inequality in different economic sectors and to learn about the impact of gender inequality on procreation attitudes and behaviour in the Lithuanian context. A general bulk of the data comes from 18–45-year-old inhabitants of the reproductive age with different socio-demographic characteristics based on their sex, age, place of residence, occupational status and economic sectors.

The results of the survey indicate that the most consistent predictor of the division of domestic labour in the private sphere is the dominant gender ideology of men, and both spouses/partners’ education, sex and place of residence. Compared to men, women share greater responsibility in taking care of children and housework. In this regard, the common satisfaction in family relations influences the restructuring of traditional gender roles. The asymmetries in family relations related to domestic labour are considered as one of the main factors characterizing the nature of gendered power relations in private and public spheres, including procreation behaviour.

The satisfaction with the personal relations depends on sex. Men are more satisfied with their relations with spouse or partner compared to female respondents.

Nevertheless, both men and women are satisfied enough with their opportunities to take care of children. In this sense, the differences in the common evaluation of life quality might be explained in terms of a gap between the individual perceptions of family life based on gender. The masculine “world” is constructed using the dominant gender ideology which validates the symbol of an active man in the public sphere. Men are more satisfied with the different aspects of their personal life compared to women.

Research data indicate that in the Lithuanian families’ women have more responsibilities for household duties compared to men. Lithuanian women are more responsible for preparing food (that 75.3% of women respondents mention this duty compared to 61.6% of men also confirms that women are more responsible for cooking). The crosstabs data demonstrate that the other household

duties, such as cleaning, washing dishes, paying taxes and planning family's financial budget, laundering and ironing, are also under women's responsibility in the families. The household task types mentioned above are typically considered as routine and monotonous which in turn indicates the specificity of traditional female household work. Moreover, 57.6% of males confirm that both partners are responsible for daily shopping and organization of family's leisure and entertainment (68.6% of male and 53.1% of female answers). The statistical results reveal that household duties closely related to the social life and social skills dominate as predictor of the male sphere. These household tasks are not routine and monotonous and it is sufficient to perform only several tasks during a week (for instance, purchase food for family needs). Referring to the research on gendering of household labour, the routine housework such as cooking or laundering is typically analysed as "female-dominated" or "female stereotypical" tasks. On the contrary, less frequent tasks such as car or household repairs are labelled as "male-dominated" or "masculine."

The empirical data regarding the division of childcare labour between spouses/partners in the families indicate the differences in sharing responsibility for childcare tasks among spouses/partners and highlight the asymmetry of gender relations. They might also refer to the order of gendered interaction which demonstrates the imbalances in gender power. As it is presented in the table, in Lithuanian families female are more responsible for preparing food for children (that 76.4% of female respondents indicate this duty compared to 55.2% of men also confirms that women are more responsible for children's nourishment). Women in their families are also more likely to take more duties related to dressing children, women bear the greatest responsibility for the care of children and that they tend to emphasize their role as home careers. On the contrary, men's contribution to childcare tasks is smaller. Moreover, men typically devalue their role as an active partner in taking care of children, except playing with them and entertaining them. For instance, 68.8% of male respondents indicate that their responsibilities for childcare mostly involve playing games and entertaining children. However, the more equal share of childcare tasks among female and male refer to such daily task as picking up children from school or kindergarten.

In general men take more active role in tasks typically associated with social skills, normative behaviour and the formation of self-expression in the public sphere. On the contrary, the female sphere includes emotional security and care usually considered as a particular feminine norm. The research data complement other Lithuanian housework and marriage studies that emphasize different male and female perceptions of family and their different responsibilities for household work. For instance, Kraniauskas (2009) argues that men are taking more responsibilities for the activities related to children's social skills. Moreover, women's contribution includes biomedical childcare that is less visible. It is argued that activities associated with the public sphere allow men to demonstrate their skills and to control the socialization of children.

Male respondents would perceive their contribution to household duties as more egalitarian compared to the female position. Other important variable includes respondents' education. It is more likely that respondents who have secondary school education would perceive their contribution to household labour as less egalitarian compared to the respondents with university

education. The results of the analysis also show that respondents who live in the capital are more likely to accept their contribution to home labour as more egalitarian compared to the respondents from countryside regions³⁵.

The other representative survey was completed in 2002 - "The Crisis of Male Roles in Lithuania". It stated that traditional gender attitudes prevailed in the Lithuanian society. According to this survey, the main features of a "normal" or "real" man emphasized by both men and women were (in order of importance): 1) his ability to earn money for his family (72% of respondents); 2) a man's capability to do male housework like home-improvement and technical jobs (67% of respondents); 3) care and upbringing of his children (67%); and 4) his taking care of his woman (66%). Among most important features of a "normal" man (in order of importance), men themselves distinguished the ability to earn money, the care of a woman and children and the capability to do male housework. For women, the most important things were the man's earning power, his sensitivity and understanding, his housework abilities and child care. It is obvious that both men and women's responses were very similar except one feature that women mentioned, i. e. men's sensitivity and understanding. In the male respondents' view, the latter trait was not essential to a man. This survey demonstrated that both the Lithuanian women and men consider the breadwinning role as the most important feature of a "real" man. (Tereškinas 2004: 17-18)

6.2.6. Spain

According to the data from National Statistics Institute (2017), we have collected the following data:

- a) Average daily time dedicated to the different activities. Activities of home and family (according to type of home, according to job situation-only working people).³⁶
 - Men spend more time per day on all activities except the household and family, while women spend an average of almost two hours more a day on all household activities and family than men.
 - 38.7% of men (10 years and over) that are employed dedicate a daily average of 7 hours and 55 minutes to their job, compared to 28.2% of women who work 6 hours a day 43 daily minutes.
 - 91.9% of women (10 years and over) do domestic tasks and take care of children, the elderly and dependents for 4 hours and 29 minutes a day, while 74.7% of men spend an average of 2 hours and 32 minutes.
 - About the people who carry out domestic and family activities, according to type of home, the average daily dedication of women is the highest in all types of homes, but it increased in couples with children. In these homes, the dedication of the woman is

³⁵ Bučaitė-Vilkė, Jurga, Labor division at home and procreation intentions : the case of Lithuanian families // Culture and society : journal of social research. Kaunas: VDU. ISSN 2029-4573. 2012, nr. 3(1), p. 69-85

³⁶ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Average daily time dedicated to the different activities. Activities of home and family (according to type of household, according to work situation)" http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925472448&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

almost double that of the dedication of the man (4 hours and 37 minutes the woman, 2 hours 34 minutes the man). This difference in dedication is almost the same in the case of couples without children (4 hours and 45 minutes for women, 2 hours and 34 minutes for men).

- In households where women have a job, the daily dedication to family and household activities is still greater than that of men. The difference increases in the case of inactivity (students, retirees or pensioners...) to 4 hours and 49 minutes for women and 2 hours and 25 minutes for men.

b) People with employment, average daily time dedicated to the different activities³⁷:

- The employed men dedicate 8 hours and 19 minutes per day to their job and employed women 6 hours and 55 minutes.
- The employed women dedicates 3 hours and 46 minutes daily to the activities of the home and the family while the employed men dedicate 2 hours and 21 minutes
- The daily time employed men dedicate to social life and fun is higher (1 hour 41 minutes for men, 1 hour and 29 minutes for women), for sports (1 hour 43 minutes for men, 1 hour and 31 minutes for women), to hobbies and computers (1 hour and 33 minutes for men, 1 hour and 16 minutes for women), to the media (2 hours and 20 minutes for men, 2 hours and 2 minutes for women).

c) Unpaid work activities³⁸

People who perform unpaid work activities according to sex. Employment Survey of Time 2009-2010

- The difference in participation in the following activities (within the household and family) is especially large: culinary activities (80.5% of women and 46.4% of men), household maintenance (64.2% of women and 31.8% of men), shopping and services (47.2% of women and 31.6% of men), childcare (22.2% of women and 16.7% of men).

Men and women who carry out unpaid work activities and who live together as a couple. Employment Survey of Time 2009-2010

- Regarding the total of men and women living as a couple, women have a participation of 97.6% and men of 82.6%
- After the culinary activities, the women who live in couple have the highest values of participation throughout the day in the maintenance of the home (71.4%), in purchases

³⁷ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "People with employment, average daily time dedicated to the different activities" http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925472488&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

³⁸ 10National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Unpaid work" http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925472542&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

and services (52.3%), in journeys due to activities of home and family (49.0%), in activities necessary for clothing (44.2%) and in the care of children (30.5%).

- In men who live in couple, the second activity with the highest participation corresponds to journeys due to household and family activities with a 42.0% share, followed by shopping and services activities (37.0%), maintenance of the household (33.2%), child care (22.4%) and gardening and animal care (19.6%).
- The degree of participation is different depending on the activity carried out, the highest percentage of participation of both men and women living together correspond to culinary activities (49.8% and 90.4% respectively).
- Men have higher percentages of participation than women in gardening and animal care activities, in construction and repairs, in housework and in voluntary work.
- Hours dedicated to non-market productive activities. Employment Survey of Time 2009-2010
- In 2010, Spanish households invested 52,682 million hours in non-market productive activities, of which 67.2% (35,389 million hours) were done by women.

Hours per day dedicated to unpaid work activities by workers who carry out these activities. National Survey of Working Conditions 2015

- The highest percentage (33.9%) of working women who spend time caring for children or grandchildren is four hours a day. The highest percentage of men who work (36.7%) is two hours a day to this type of care.
- The highest percentage of women workers (43.3%) who perform domestic and kitchen tasks dedicate two hours a day to these tasks. The highest percentage of working men (42.5%) spend one hour a day on these same tasks.

7. Gender education differences

7.1. Summary

Nearly 60% of EU university graduates are women, but they account for less than 33% of scientists and engineers across Europe, yet represent nearly 80% of the total workforce in the health, education and welfare sectors. The uneven distribution of the different genders across the different fields is a result of stereotypes regarding what is in society considered to be “man’s work” and “woman’s work”. The pay gap in the educational sector and on positions that require a high educational level is bigger than the average pay gap and men workers with a university degree earn more than women with the same educational level, even though especially young women tend to perform better in education (Italy). 4 of the partners report that in their countries more boys leave school early than girls and that the higher the education is, the better the ratio women to men who acquire it is. There is a positive tendency in the last years – both more women get educated (Italy, Spain) and the pay gap in the educational sector/on positions requiring a high educational level is decreasing (Italy). Women are more active than men in life-long learning and are looking for and attaining additional training and education during the course of their life. (Bulgaria)

7.2. National information

7.2.1. Bulgaria

For the university students in Bulgaria in most universities there is a set amount of men and women they accept for studying for a certain profession. For different fields there is a set amount of men and women who can be admitted. This is done so that there could be optimal opportunities for there to be both men and women in certain studies. For example, in administration there is a larger number of girls that are allowed to join the course, while mathematics allows for more men to join. The idea is that there would always be representatives of both sexes in the courses, as in not to fill all the mathematics spots with only men and discriminate the women who would want to study mathematics. In of itself here we have a problem and a very basic solution, that while they want to fill spots with both sexes, it can be discriminating when certain spots for men are filled, no more can join.

On the other hand 60% of all people who study in tertiary education are women. Women are more active than men in life-long learning and are looking for and attaining additional training and education during the course of their life.

At the same time there are slightly more women that have no primary education. Also more men reach secondary education level than women. The reason for this is that many women from the minorities don’t go to school at all or give birth to children very early and drop out from school. It is more a cultural problem within the minority group and family itself, than a common problem of discrimination in Bulgarian society.

Table 10: Students of educational-qualification degree, citizenship, training form and gender in higher schools in the form of ownership, in the year 2016/2017 (number)

	Total	In state high schools	In private high schools
Total	243 199	209 485	33 714
Professional Bachelor	10 335	7 960	2 375
Bachelor	155 237	132 934	22 303
Master	77 627	68 591	9 036
Men	112 396	97 185	15 211
Professional Bachelor	4 918	3 701	1 217
Bachelor	74 591	63 971	10 620
Master	32 887	29 513	3 374
Women	130 803	112 300	18 503
Professional Bachelor	5 417	4 259	1 158
Bachelor	80 646	68 963	11 683
Master	44 740	39 078	5 662

Source: Bulgarian National Statistics institute (www.nsi.bg)

7.2.2. Cyprus

It is important to note that in Cyprus women have a better participation at all educational levels than men.

Based on the figures of Eurostat (2017), more Cypriot boys are dropping out of secondary school than girls. However, a comparison between the data of 2002 and 2016 shows that numbers of dropouts for both girls and boys were halved, since in 2002 around 22.5% of boys had dropped out high school, while only 8.2% of girls were dropouts. In 2016, only 11.5% of Cypriot male students were early dropouts compared with only 4.3% of female students.

The table below shows the number of Cypriots (both males and females) in education, based on the results of the “Labour Force Survey” of the Cyprus Statistical Service (2017).³⁹

Furthermore, the following table presents a comparison between the numbers of Cypriot males and females in regards to their educational background, based on data retrieved from the Cyprus Statistical Service’s “Labour Force Survey” of the 3rd quarter of 2017.

³⁹ Cyprus Statistical service (2017). “Labour Force Survey” (3rd Quarter 2017) (http://www.mof.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/labour_31main_en/labour_31main_en?OpenForm&sub=1&sel=2)

Table 11: Gender education differences in Cyprus, data of 2017 (3rd quarter)

	Male		Female	
	Percentage (%)	Actual number	Percentage (%)	Actual number
Highest Level of education completed (25-64)				
Less than Upper Secondary	18,7	41.850	18,2	44.214
Upper Secondary	42,7	95.532	35,3	85.460
Tertiary	38,6	86.203	46,5	112.608
Highest Level of education completed (20-24)				
Less than Upper Secondary	10,4	2.705	8,3	2.282
Upper Secondary	74,0	19.249	43,2	11.882
Tertiary	15,6	4.061	48,5	13.327
Highest Level of education completed (30-34)				
Less than Upper Secondary	13,4	4.381	12,4	4.473
Upper Secondary	38,4	12.489	22,6	8.119
Tertiary	48,2	15.684	65,0	23.345
Participation to education				
In education or training (25-64)	4,5	10.113	4,1	9.833
Early leavers from education and training (18-24)	8,7	2.643	8,1	2.799

7.2.3. Ireland

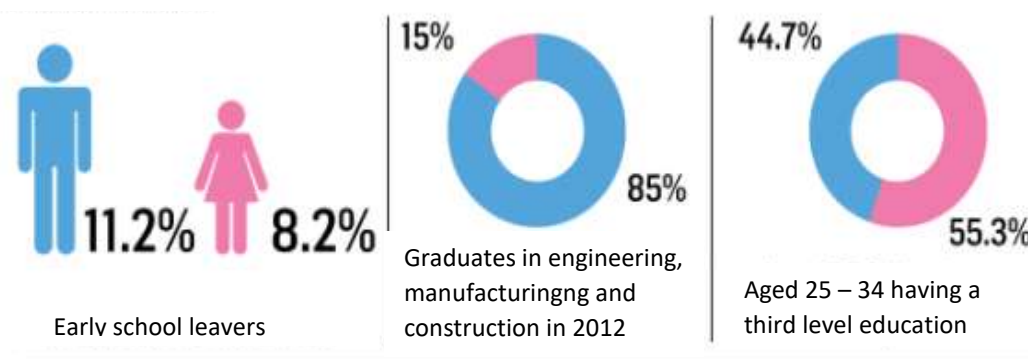
In terms of educational attainment in Ireland, women fare better. More women have third level qualifications (CSO, 2016). One in four women graduated in the areas of health and welfare. The number of women graduating from business, administrative and law was 23.4%, close to men at 25.8%

Sé Si Gender Report on Irish Education (2007)⁴⁰ found that since the provisions of free second level education in the 1960's girls have continued to consistently have higher rates of education. Men outnumber women in all age categories for having lower educational attainment. 'Women have achieved higher rates of participation and attainment in upper second-level education than men for at least fifty or sixty years. While the number of those with low levels of educational attainment has declined steadily among both sexes, the gap in favour of women has increased over time.'

⁴⁰ Sé Sí – Gender in Irish Education; 2007 Department of Education and Science; <https://www.education.ie/en/Publications/Statistics/Se-Si-Gender-in-Irish-Education-Introduction-to-Chapter-9.pdf>

Figure 4

Education



(CSO)

7.2.4. Italy

In the field of education, the gender gap in Italy, as reported in the Global Gender Pay Gap Report 2017, the situation registered a huge decrease in comparison of the last in years. The country is in the 60th position in the global ranking. The statistic of ISTAT⁴¹ highlights that the early school leavers in Italy among girls are only 11,3%, while boys have a range of 16,1%. However, the gender pay gap is limited among people without a university degree (80% of the Italian population). The reason is that the number of women with a master degree in Italy is increased only in last few years.

The number of girls with a degree is higher than boys (+32,5% vs 19,9%). Most of these people live in the centre and in the northern part of Italy.

At national level, the men workers with a university degree earn 33% more than women with the same educational level. The research data explain why women have fewer years of professional’s careers and they have no reached yet the peak of their salary curve. As reported in [Closing the Gender Gap](#) by OECD: “young women in Italy perform better than young men in education [...]. In 2010 women obtained 59% of tertiary degrees, but accounted for just 15% of degrees in computer sciences and 33% in engineering. Both offer good employment and career opportunities, but at age 15 less than 5% of girls (and over 20% of boys) plan a career in these areas. More systematic efforts at home and at school are needed to interest girls in science-oriented studies and boys in humanities.”

On “[2017 Report on equality between women and men in the EU](#)”⁴², the European Commission reported: “The Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research has started to address the stereotypes existing in the educational system by fighting the under-representation of girl students in

⁴¹ ISTAT, Audizione per la parità di genere 2017, https://www.istat.it/it/files/2017/10/A-Audizione-parit%C3%A0-di-genere-25-ottobre_definitivo.pdf?title=Parit%C3%A0+tra+donne+e+uomini+-+26/ott/2017+-+Testo+integrale.pdf

⁴² European Commission, “Report on equality between women and men in the EU 2017”, <http://data.consilium.europa.eu/doc/document/ST-7179-2017-INIT/en/pdf>

STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics). In order to encourage girls to study STEM, in February 2016 the Ministry, in collaboration with the Italian Department for Equal Opportunities, established the ‘STEM Month — Women want to count’, which is a set of dedicated initiatives to combat gender stereotypes and discrimination in schools.”

7.2.5. Lithuania

At the beginning of the 2015–2016 academic year, the estimated number of women in educational institutions totalled 259.8 thousand (50 per cent), that of men – 255.2 thousand (50 per cent). Among all students enrolled in vocational schools, women accounted for 42, men – for 58 per cent, while in higher education women accounted for 57, men – for 43 per cent.

In 2015, 93 per cent of women and 89 per cent of men aged 20–24 had at least upper secondary education. 32 thousand specialists graduated from schools of higher education, of which 63 per cent were women. Most (87 per cent) teaching staff at general schools was women. At vocational schools, women made up 69, at colleges – 68, at universities – 52 per cent of the academic staff. In 2015, according to a survey on research and development (R&D), the number of women with a scientific degree engaging in R&D (in the general government and higher education sectors) totalled 3.8 thousand (50 per cent of all researchers with a scientific degree), that of men – 3.8 thousand (51 per cent). Most women with a scientific degree were aged 35–44 (36 per cent), men – 35–44 and 55–64 (27 per cent each)

Table 12: Enrolment rates by level of education, 2015, Per cent

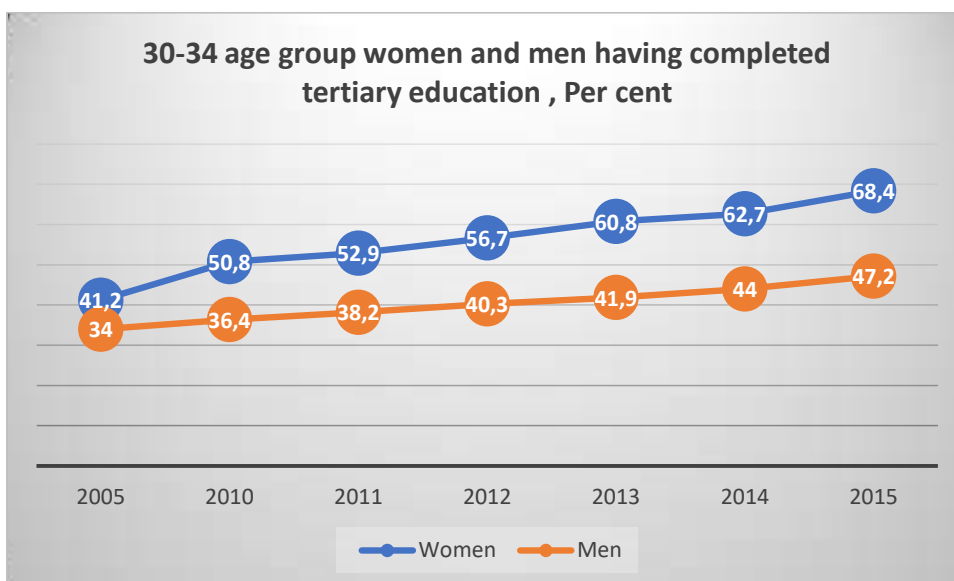
	Women		Men	
	gross	net	gross	net
Pre-primary (level 0)	104,8	86,9	105,0	87,2
Primary (level 1)	102,8	100,0	103,0	100,0
Secondary and post secondary non tertiary education (levels 2-4)	88,2	79,1	90,8	81,1
Tertiary education (levels 6-8)	40,3	33,0	29,1	24,9

According to the data of Eurostat, in 2016 percentage of early school leavers in Lithuania was one of the lowest among EU countries – 4,8 %⁴³

⁴³ Statistics Lithuania (2016) “Women and Men in Lithuania”.

https://osp.stat.gov.lt/documents/10180/2246109/13_Moterys_vyrai_Lietuvoje_2015.pdf

Figure 4



Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2016⁴⁴

7.2.6. Spain

According to the data from National Statistics Institute (2017), we have collected the following data:

- a. School enrollment rates by age at non-mandatory levels⁴⁵
 - From 16 and 17 years old, female rates are higher than male rates, which means that the number of men leaving the education system is higher.
 - At 16, there is a greater participation of women than of men. In the 2014-15 school year, the net rate of female enrollment (in post-compulsory secondary education) at 16 years exceeds that of men (92.7% in men and 93.6% in women). At age 17, the difference in rates is higher (88.3% in women and 85.7% in men).
 - In the access to the university, the enrollment in university studies of first and second cycle and the graduation in higher studies the participation of female students is higher than men. From the age of 18, the theoretical age of university education or equivalent, there are the greatest differences between the enrollment rates of women and men. In the 2014-15 academic year, at 18, the female rate exceeds 10 percentage points for men, at 19 years the difference is 11.8 points and at 20 years, 13.0 points.
- b. Early abandonment of education-training⁴⁶

⁴⁴ Statistics Lithuania (2016) "Women and Men in Lithuania".

https://osp.stat.gov.lt/documents/10180/2246109/13_Moterys_vyrai_Lietuvoje_2015.pdf

⁴⁵ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "School enrollment rates by age at non-compulsory levels"

http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925953043&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayOut¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

- The early abandonment rate of education-training has always been greater among men with 23.2% of men dropping out of education / training early, while among women, this percentage is lower (15.4%) in 2016.
- c. Young people that has completed the 2nd stage of secondary education⁴⁷
- In 2016 in, according to provisional data, the percentage of women aged 20 to 24 years who have completed at least the 2nd stage of secondary education (76.1%) is higher than that of men (64.6%).
- d. Graduates according to educational level. Entrance exams to college. Students enrolled in university education⁴⁸
- The greatest difference in percentage points between the rate of women and that of men (14.4 points) corresponds to the educational level of Baccalaureate / COU, with a rate of 62.2% for women and 47.8% for men, followed by the gross population rate that graduates in degree studies with a difference of 13.9 points between men and women. The rate was 37.2% in women and 23.3% in men.
 - Of the total number of students enrolled in the university system (first and second cycle and degree university studies) in the 2015-16 academic year, 54.4% were women.
- e. Level of education of the adult population (25 to 64 years old)⁴⁹
- In the population aged 25 to 34, 35.0% of men and 47.0% of women have a level of education corresponding to higher education and PhD (level 5-8). For the same age group, with a level of education lower than the 2nd stage of secondary education, the percentages are 40.6% of men and 28.9% of women.
 - In 2016, 44.3% of men and 39.1% of women (25 to 64 years old) had a level of education corresponding to the first stage of secondary education and lower.

⁴⁶ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Early abandonment of education-training"
http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925480602&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

⁴⁷ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Young population that has completed the 2nd stage of secondary education"
http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925481018&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

⁴⁸ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Graduates according to educational level. Entrance exams to college. Students enrolled in university education"
http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925481211&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=1259924822888

⁴⁹ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Level of education of the adult population (25 to 64 years old)"



8. Gender occupational differences

8.1. Summary

Women's employment rates across the EU range from some 48% to 80%, but the EU average is 77.4% for men and 65.5% for women (2016q3).

Table 13: Women's and men's employment rate, per Member States, people aged 20-64, 2016q3

Country	Employment rate men	Employment rate women
Bulgaria	72%	65%
Cyprus	74%	65%
Ireland	77%	64%
Italy	72%	52%
Lithuania	77%	75%
Spain	70%	59%
EU average	77.7%	65,5%

Source: "2017 Report on equality between women and men in the EU", *European Commission, ISBN 978-92-79-65778-8*

Women **work part-time** more than men (accounting for over 75% of part-timers), in less valued jobs and sectors.

- Gender gap in part-time employment among parents – 33.1 pps (percentage points)
- Part-time work due to looking after children or incapacitated adults disaggregated by sex – men - 4.4%; women – 27.2%

There is an uneven distribution of the different genders across the different fields which results from stereotypes regarding what is in society considered to be "man's work" and "woman's work". For example women are underrepresented constructions, mineral extraction, transportation and storage (Italy, Cyprus), however in these sectors they have higher wages. (Italy)

Table 14: Other sectors in which men dominate, as reported by the partners, are:

Economic Activity
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing, Machine Management (Cyprus, Spain, Ireland, Bulgaria)
Manufacturing (Cyprus)
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply (Cyprus)
Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities (Cyprus, Spain)
Supply of Electric Power, Gas, steam and Air Conditioning (Spain)
Construction (Cyprus, Lithuania)
Transportation and Storage (Cyprus, Lithuania)
Real Estate Activities (Cyprus)
Public Administration and Defence, Compulsory Social Security, Military (Cyprus, Spain)

Entrepreneurship, Skilled Trade (Italy, Ireland)
Politics (Bulgaria)

Table 15: As reported by the partners, many women take jobs in the following fields:

Economic Activity
Financial and Insurance Activities, Wholesale and Retail Trade (Cyprus, Spain, Ireland, Bulgaria, Lithuania)
Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities (Cyprus)
Education (Cyprus, Spain, Lithuania)
Food Service (Lithuania)
Human Health and Social Work Activities, Leisure (Cyprus, Italy, Spain, Ireland, Lithuania)
Activities of Households (Cyprus, Italy, Spain)
Administration (Ireland, Bulgaria)
Cleaning (Spain)

The educational level of women among entrepreneurs is higher than that of men (Italy). There are more self-employed men than women and the majority of employers are men (Bulgaria). 90.3% of employed women worked in the service sector, 7.6% in the industrial sector and 2.1% in the agriculture sector (Spain). Women work more in the public sector (which is not so well paid), while men work more in private enterprises. (Bulgaria)

8.2. National information

8.2.1. Bulgaria

Bulgarian women are a normal part of and take important positions in regards to the economy and governing of the country. There are plenty of career opportunities for both men and women who are also allowed to develop a multitude of skill during their working time.

Another thing that is important to note is that, while there are women in the parliament and in governing positions, politics are still largely occupied by men. Similar results can be seen in the numbers provided by the Bulgarian National Statistics Institute, where it is seen that as of 2016 54.6% of men in the country were employed as opposed to only 44.3% of women.

Table 16: Employment rates 2016

EMPLOYED PERSONS OF THE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS IN 2016		
	Employees - thousands	Employment rates - %
	3 016.8	49.3
By Gender		
Men	1 607.6	54.6
Women	1 409.2	44.3

Source: National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria (www.nsi.bg)

We can see the big differences in employment parity in the following statistics:

- only 28% of the employers are women
- 37% of the self employed are women
- women work more in the public sector (which is not so well paid), while men work more in private enterprises

Table 17: Employed by professional state and gender 2016

			(Thousands)
Professional status	Total	Male	Female
Total	3016.8	1607.6	1409.2
Employers	107.3	77.4	29.8
Self-employed	228.3	143.8	84.5
Employees	2662.9	1379.6	1283.3
In private enterprises	1981.8	1097.7	884.0
In public enterprises	681.1	281.8	399.3
Unpaid family workers	18.4	6.8	11.6

Source: National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria (www.nsi.bg)

8.2.2. Cyprus

Employment data

In the tables below are presented the employment differences between men and women (data only for Cypriots – EU nationals & non-EU nationals are not included), based on their economic activities.

Table 18: Occupations with highest numbers in men employees

Economic Activity	Males	Females
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	5.799	1.600
Manufacturing	16.555	6.947
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	2.063	626
Water Supply, Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	2.313	161
Construction	19.325	2.662
Transportation and Storage	11.277	4.427
Real Estate Activities	2.232	844
Public Administration and Defence, Compulsory Social Security	17.382	11.718

Table 19: Occupations with highest numbers in women employees

Economic Activity	Males	Females
-------------------	-------	---------

Financial and Insurance Activities	6.072	12.317
Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities	10.297	14.463
Education	6.210	18.227
Human Health and Social Work Activities	6.122	12.961
Activities of Households	0	369

8.2.3. Ireland

According to the Central Statistics Office there were 923,900 women and 1,091,000 men in employment in Ireland in 2016. More than a fifth (22.5%) of women in employment were in professional occupations and just under a fifth (18.1%) were in Administrative and secretarial occupations. Just over a quarter of men (26.5%) were in Skilled trades occupations while 14.3% were in Professional occupations.

In 2016 45.9% of those in employment were female. The vast majority (90.1%) of workers in Skilled trades were male while most workers (83.5%) in Caring, leisure and other services were female.

8.2.4. Italy

Most of the economic sectors analyzed in the “*Global Gender Pay Gap 2017*” highlights a gender pay gap that does not serve women in Italy. The following sectors are the exceptions: constructions, mineral extraction, transportation and storage. In these sectors women are in a small proportion than men but they have higher wages. In the financial assets sector, the average hourly wages are higher than their male colleagues with a gender pay differential of – 28%.

During the last five years, the economical growth was supported by low – skilled women professionals, in particular of housekeepers and domestic staff. In the last four years, the ISTAT research for the [Audit for the Gender Equality 2017](#) in the Parliament⁵⁰ registered an increase of skilled jobs. In the last trimester of 2017 the female employee in Italy on intellectual jobs are more than 19,2% of the total (+1,4 %) with a growth of 200.000 employees among teachers, entrepreneurs and paramedical professionals (+110 thousand with an increased number of 16,4%). The number of office workers are around 17,8% among assistants and general affairs. In the sector of families’ services nine of ten employee are women (70% of the total number), in particular in medical and paramedical careers. The most popular professions are catering staff, junior sales associates, assistants, nurses.

Businesswomen in Italy are 686,389 in **2017** and they represent the 26% of the entrepreneurs. 32,1% have enterprise with employees while the last part is composed by self – employed or freelance women. For men the statistical data research highlights the same numbers.

⁵⁰ ISTAT, Audizione per la parità di genere 25 ottobre 2017, https://www.istat.it/it/files/2017/10/A-Audizione-parit%C3%A0-di-genere-25-ottobre_definitivo.pdf?title=Parit%C3%A0+tra+donne+e+uomini+-+26/ott/2017+-+Testo+integrale.pdf

Most of the women in the enterprunership sector are investing in the innovative technologies. There are no differences between male and female in these sectors, except for the educational level: most of them have a master degree (+33,6% for women and +21,0% for men).

8.2.5. Lithuania

According to the Labour Force Survey data, in 2015⁵¹ the activity rate of women aged 15–64 stood at 72.5, that of men – at 75.8 per cent, the employment rate of women aged 15–64 stood at 66.5, that of men – at 68 per cent. Women working part-time made up 10.5 per cent of all employed women, men – 6.1 per cent of all employed men. The women unemployment rate stood at 8.2, the men one – at 10.1 per cent. Human health and social work, where women made up 85.2 per cent of all persons employed, remained the most feminine field of activity; in education, women made up 78.6, in accommodation and food service activities – 76.7 per cent. The most masculine fields of activity – construction (where men made up 88.9 per cent of all persons employed) and transportation and storage (74.4 per cent). 16 per cent of women enterprise managers worked in retail trade, except for motor vehicles and motorcycles, 14 per cent – membership organisations, 9 per cent – education, 6 per cent – wholesale trade, except for motor vehicles and motorcycles. Based on the data from the Statistical Register of Economic Entities, in 2015, there were 29.5 thousand women enterprise managers, or 30 per cent of all managers of economic entities in operation. The largest proportion of women enterprise managers was recorded in inpatient care – 64, human health and social work – 62, and education – 60 per cent, the smallest – 9 per cent – in construction.

Table 20: Activity, employment and unemployment rates, Per cent

	2010		2014		2015	
	women	men	women	men	women	men
Activity rate of persons aged 15-64	68.6	72,0	71,6	76.0	72.5	75.8
Employment rate of persons aged 15-64	58.5	56,5	64,9	66.5	66.5	68.0
Unemployment rate of persons aged 15-74	14.5	21,2	9.2	12.2	8.2	10.1

Table 21: Employment rate by educational attainment of the population aged 15-64, per cent

	2010		2014		2015	
	women	men	women	men	women	men
Total	58.5	56.5	64.9	66.5	66.5	68.0
High	85.4	85.2	87.2	90.3	87.0	91.5
Medium	55.7	59.2	61.0	68.0	62.3	69.5
Low	12.1	15.7	14.8	23.3	14.8	23.8

⁵¹ Statistics Lithuania (2016) “Women and Men in Lithuania”.

https://osp.stat.gov.lt/documents/10180/2246109/13_Moterys_vyrai_Lietuvoje_2015.pdf

Table 22: Percentage of employed men and women per sector, 2015 ⁵²

	percent	
	women	men
Agriculture, forest and fishing	37.3	62.7
Industry	43.7	56.3
Construction	11.1	88.9
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycle	55.6	44.4
Transportation and storage	25.6	74.4
Accommodation and food service activities	76.7	23.3
Information and communication	44.6	55.4
Financial and insurance activities	74.0	26.0
Real estate activities	40.9	59.1
Professional, scientific and technical activities	57.8	42.2
Administrative and support service activities	43.7	56.3
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	57.3	42.7
Education	78.6	21.4
Human health and social activities	85.2	14.8
Arts, entertainment and recreation	62.3	37.7
Other activities	69.2	30.8

Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2016

8.2.6. Spain

According to the data from National Statistics Institute (2017)⁵³, we have collected the following data:

- a. Employees by branch of activity
 - In 2016, the highest percentage of participation of the total of employed women (17.8%) by branch of economic activity corresponds to the activity of wholesale and retail trade.
 - The second place (14.0%) corresponds to the activity of health activities and social services, and the third place (10.2%) to the Education activity.
 - The lowest percentages of female activity correspond to the following branches: Water supply, sanitation activities, waste management and decontamination (0.2% of employed women) and Supply of electric power, gas, steam and air conditioning, with a 0,3% of employed women.
 - In branches of activity of extractive industries and activities of extraterritorial bodies and organizations, there is no female participation.

⁵² Statistics Lithuania (2016) "Women and Men in Lithuania".

https://osp.stat.gov.lt/documents/10180/2246109/13_Moterys_vyrai_Lietuvoje_2015.pdf

⁵³ National Institute of Statistics (2017) "Employed by branch of activity, by type of occupation, by professional situation and by type of job"

http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259931459725&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout¶m1=PYSDetalle¶m3=125992482288

- In 2014, 90.3% of employed women worked in the service sector, 7.6% in the industrial sector and 2.1% in the agriculture sector.
- b. Employee by type of occupation
- In 2016, of the total number of employed women, the highest percentage (29.6%) corresponded to employees in catering, personal care, security and sales services.
 - The second place (22.1%) is to the occupation of technicians and scientific professionals and the third place (16.9%) to the elementary occupations
 - The lowest percentages corresponded to the Military occupations (0.1%), and to the qualified workers in the agricultural, livestock, forestry and fishing sectors (1.0%).



9. Country-specific statistics

- Number of male and female students in Mathematics, Medicine, technical subjects
- Women compared to men in social sciences.
- Men/women working in technical areas
- Women/men in care and social professions

9.1. Summary

Most partners report that in their countries:

- At schools of higher education women accounted for more positions in medicine than men, but it is a relatively balanced field
- Men dominate in the technical subjects and professions.
- There are more women than men in social sciences and professions.

9.2. National information

9.2.1. Bulgaria

- Number of male and female students in Mathematics, Medicine, technical subjects and women compared to men in social sciences.

As we have already noted, in Bulgaria most Universities and for most disciplines there is a set number of men and women that are accepted to study. For example for the school year 2016/2017, the following number of students were planned to be admitted to study for the following subjects:

Table 23: Number of students to be admitted to study for specific disciplines at Sofia University

University	Subjects	Total	Men	Women
Sofia University	Physics	18	12	6
Sofia University	Engineering physics	19	13	6
Sofia University	Astrophysics	18	12	6
Sofia University	Mathmatics	71	45	26
Sofia University	Computer Science	175	115	60
Sofia University	Software engineering	125	75	50
Sofia University	Bulgarian Philology	165	60	105
Sofia University	History	105	42	63
Sofia University	Social work	110	40	80

Source: Sofia University (<https://www.uni-sofia.bg/>)

- Men/women working in technical areas and Women/men in care and social professions

In Bulgaria the technical professions are predominantly occupied by men, while the care and social professions – by women:



- while 67% of professionals are women, only 38% of managers are women
- the women's professions are – clerical and administrative work, services and sales
- the men's professions are – agriculture, forestry, fishery, crafts, plant and machine operators and assemblers.

Table 24: Employed by occupational class and gender in 2016

			(Thousands)
Occupational classes	Total	Male	Female
Total	3016.8	1607.6	1409.2
of which:			
Managers	182.6	113.5	69.2
Professionals	511.9	170.0	341.9
Technicians and associate professionals	284.3	147.4	136.9
Clerical support workers	178.1	50.4	127.7
Service and sales workers	635.2	255.4	379.8
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	104.9	67.8	37.1
Craft and related trades workers	393.6	296.4	97.2
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	389.4	292.9	96.5
Elementary occupations	311.6	192.4	119.2

Source: National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria (www.nsi.bg)

9.2.2. Cyprus

The only data that we have regarding the field of studies for primary, secondary and tertiary education in Cyprus is from 2014-2015, based on the report “Statistics of Education – 2014/2015” from the Cyprus Statistical Service.⁵⁴ The tables below presents the field of study for boys and girls for Secondary and Tertiary Education, for the period of 2014-2015, with focus on the STEM and technical subjects. For the analysis of the data we need to keep in mind that all public schools and most of the private schools (upper secondary education) in Cyprus in 2014-2015 were unified.

I. Upper secondary education

Table 25: Pupils in upper secondary education⁵⁵ by field of study and sex for 2014-2015

⁵⁴ Cyprus Statistical Service (2017). “Statistics of Education – 2014/2015” ([http://www.mof.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/All/4A240F088B34155BC22577E4002C70CD/\\$file/EDUCATION-14_15-300817.pdf?OpenElement](http://www.mof.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/All/4A240F088B34155BC22577E4002C70CD/$file/EDUCATION-14_15-300817.pdf?OpenElement))

⁵⁵ Public and Private (Unified) Lyceums and Technical/Vocational schools

Sex	Field of Study					
	Technical / Vocational	Humanities	Physics / Mathematics	Economics	Commercial	Unified Lyceum
Boys	3.663	47	18	183	9	11.058
Girls	1.022	53	6	111	4	13.419

Table 26: Number of pupils in upper secondary education by orientation, field of study, grade and sex for 2014-2015

Orientation, type of school and field of study	Boys	Girls
<i>Theoretical Stream</i>		
General engineering	192	4
Electrical engineering	146	1
Computer engineering	82	2
Civil engineering	20	2
Architecture	14	1
<i>Practical Stream</i>		
General engineering	486	2
General electrical engineering	300	1
Computer engineering	72	0
Civil engineering & Architecture	27	0

II. Post-secondary non-tertiary education

Table 27: Number of students by programme of study and sex for 2014-2015

Programme of study	Boys	Girls
Organic horticulture technician	17	7
Industrial and domestic automations technician	24	1
Logistics technician for ship purchases and supplies	13	0
Natural gas management technician in industrial and domestic installations	48	0
Computer network and communication technician	23	3

Table 28: Number of (Cypriots) graduates by programme and field of study for 2014-2015 (Secondary Technical and Vocational Education - STVE)

Programme and field of study	Boys	Girls
Computer Network and Communication Technician	13	2
Industrial Electromechanical Refrigeration Installations Technician	11	0
Natural Gas Management Technician in Industrial and Domestic Installations	23	2
Welding Technician for Natural Gas Transportation Pipes	22	0

and Industrial Constructions		
Installations and Maintenance Technician for Photovoltaic and Wind Turbine	26	0

III. Tertiary education

Table 29: Number of students and graduates by field of education and sex for 2014-2015

Field of education	Students			Graduates		
	Grand total ⁵⁶					
	Men	Women	Of which foreigners	Men	Women	Of which foreigners
Biological and related sciences (biology and related sciences)	99	323	68	10	46	3
Physical sciences (chemistry, earth sciences, physics)	86	210	18	11	51	3
Mathematics and statistics	76	259	12	15	54	2
Information and communication technologies (ICTs)	999	373	370	155	85	45
Engineering and engineering trades	2.160	473	338	460	116	60
Architecture and construction	755	683	270	140	169	31

9.2.3. Ireland

Studies from 2014/2015 show subjects such as Engineering, Math's, and Science are dominated by male students. 85.6% of those in Engineering are men. 79.3% of graduates in information and communication technologies are male. This is on contract to subjects such as education in the social sciences or humanities with women students taking up over 70% of places. Medicine has a more balanced gender quota with 52.1% reported as female.

The programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study found that boys performed better in their tests in science and maths with boys in Ireland scoring 11 points higher than girls in science and 16 points higher in maths. However it was suggested that some further analysis may be relevant on this particular study due to computers being used for the first time on these assessments. More boys had taken tests on computers than girls before within this study.

⁵⁶ Including university and non-university institutions

Generally speaking education systems still reflect a view of ‘caring’ professions as feminine and more science based subjects are often still dominated by men (Trinity News, 2017).

9.2.4. Italy

On 2015 the graduate students in STEM field was around 13,5 per 1000 residents among the age group 20 – 29. The data research highlights a positive trend for men and a stable trend for women. In general, the ranking is in the European average .

ISTAT registered that the job placement of the graduates in Italy is complex and most of them find with difficulties a job similar to their educational paths (67% for women). 22,1% have a job as manager or entrepreneur and 44,9% of them are in technical areas.

In STEM careers most of the Italian women in the ranking are part of paramedical professionals (+110 thousand with an increased number of 16,4%) and medical area (70% of the employee in the sector). Technical areas enrolled an increase of 16,4% while social sciences and social workers increased of 26,1%.

9.2.5. Lithuania

At schools of higher education, women accounted for the largest proportion in pharmacy (81 per cent), dental studies and veterinary (76 per cent in each), medicine (69 per) and pedagogy (65 per cent), men – in engineering and computer science (89 per cent in each), civil engineering (87 per cent), and transport services (83 per cent).

Male researchers with a scientific degree accounted for a larger proportion in technical (69 per cent) and physical (66 per cent) sciences, while female researchers with a scientific degree – in social and sciences humanities (66 and 61 per cent respectively) and other biomedical (natural) sciences (55 per cent)

9.2.6. Spain

a) Number of male and female students in Mathematics, Medicine, technical subjects

According to the data from National Statistics Institute (2017)⁵⁷,we have collected the following data:

- In Spain in 2012, the percentage of people who graduated in science, mathematics and technology among the total number of graduates of each sex is higher among men (36.6%) than among women (12.9%). These figures are lower than those of previous years, both among men and women.

⁵⁷ National Institute of Statistics (2017) Graduates in science, mathematics and technology

http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?L=es_ES&c=INESeccion_C&cid=1259925481712&p=1254735110672&pagename=ProductosYServicios%2FPYSLayout

- In 2015 in Spain, the rate of graduates in science, mathematics, engineering, industry, computing, construction per 1000 habitants aged 20-29 was 31.4 % among men and 13.3% among women.
- b) Women compared to men in social sciences.

According to data from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport of the 2015-2016 academic year, in the Social and Legal Sciences branch of university studies, 54,3% of the registered persons are women, compared to 45.7% of men.⁵⁸

According to the data of the report prepared by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport⁵⁹, "Data and statistics", in the academic year of 2014-2015 in baccalaureate, 53.9% of people who chose the modality of humanities and social sciences were women, compared to 44.5% of men. On the other hand, we found a percentage of 38.9% women who chose the science modality compared to 50.8% of men.

- c) Men/women working in technical areas

According to the report "The sectors in which machismo perpetuates gender inequalities"⁶⁰ from "El País" about the data on the 4th quarter of 2016 from the Survey of the Active Population (EPA) by the National Institute of Statistics (INE):

- There is very little presence of working women in the professions of this area. The labor activity where there is the largest gender gap in this sector is electricity and electrotechnology, where the percentage of women is practically 1%, compared to 99% of men.
- Among ICT technicians in communication, the percentage of women increases to 17%, but there is still a big difference with the percentage of men working in this sector being 82%.

- d) Women/men in care and social professions

According to the report "The sectors in which machismo perpetuates gender inequalities" from "El País" about the data on the 4th quarter of 2016 from the Survey of the Active Population (EPA) by the National Institute of Statistics (INE), professional activities with a greater percentage of women coincide with the health, social or care professions

- Domestic employment: 97.40% of women compared to only 2% of men
- Cleaning staff: 85.59% women versus 14.43% men

⁵⁸ Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (2016) "Data and figures of the Spanish university system".
<https://www.mecd.gob.es/dms/mecd/servicios-al-ciudadano-mecd/estadisticas/educacion/universitaria/datos-cifras/datos-y-cifras-SUE-2015-16-web-.pdf>

⁵⁹ Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (2016) "Data and figures"
<https://www.mecd.gob.es/servicios-al-ciudadano-mecd/dms/mecd/servicios-al-ciudadano-mecd/estadisticas/educacion/indicadores-publicaciones-sintesis/datos-cifras/Datosycifras1617esp.pdf>

⁶⁰ El País (2017) "The sectors in which machismo perpetuates gender inequalities"
https://politica.elpais.com/politica/2017/03/07/actualidad/1488885205_258965.html

- Care in Health services: 84.38% of women versus 15.62% of men
- Health technicians: 70.70% of women compared to 29.30% of men
- Health professionals: 68.41% of women versus 31.59% of men



10. Facts/stereotypes from the Film and Music industry

10.1. Summary

To a great extent the entertainment industry reinforces and reproduces gender stereotypes and is dominated by men. From song lyrics and videos, to films and theatre reinforce the traditional role models and stereotypes. Even worse, there are many examples, especially in rap and pop music, where we can see how women are objectified and still wait for men to live their lives. Women in these songs are trophy, vulnerable, temperamental, oriented for pleasure. Many times, women are synonymous of scandal or silliness.

10.2. National information

10.2.1. Bulgaria

The Bulgarian showbusiness is fairly straightforward, where the big offender is the music scene. Stereotypical looks are very much encouraged, what is meant by that is that people in the showbusiness are expected to be very attractive, be that through multiple plastic surgeries. Most of the popular Bulgarian music scene revolves around how the performers look and not about their talent or capabilities.



The normal image for Bulgarian singers. Picture from meloman.bg

10.2.2. Cyprus

Film and Music industries in Cyprus are not sufficiently developed, since they are largely based on the respective Greek industries. For this reason there is not enough research or information around the issue of gender equality in the media.

Based on the results of a research of the “Cyprus Research Promotion Foundation” conducted during 2004-2007, titled “The prevailing trend of gender in the Cyprus media and its relationship with the perceptions of young people. Comparison with European Union policy”, the frequencies regarding the economic life of men and women give a clear priority to the male gender. Women often appear as those who are financially dependent on men and choose partners based on their economic situation. Also, men are those who financially support their family, while women use money mainly for consumption purposes. Significant differences are also significant regarding the professional choices of women and men in media. For example, in most cases women are either housewives or working as low-paid employees, while men hold managerial positions or they generally have a very successful professional life. Also, the word "professional" is mainly used to describe men, while the word "unemployed" has a negative tone when referring to a man, but not when referring to a woman. As far as political life is concerned, women are presented not have politicized action or political and social concerns.

10.2.3. Ireland

The Irish Film Board Report 2016 shows a number of statistics highlighting the gender differences across areas such as writing, production, grants, acting etc. For example in 2016 in Ireland 17% of the produced films were directed by female directors, 21% had women writes and 60% were produced by women. From the applications received for funding 24% were with female directors and 24% with female writers and 33% with female producers.

10.2.4. Italy

On a research published by the Hertie School of Governance on August 2017 the situation in the country is mainly described as difficult in terms of practical application but positive in general for the artistic – cultural sector.

“With a view to the artistic-cultural domain, a small-scale comparison of leading Italian film schools, universities with a high profile in the area of “arts and humanities” and most popular museums reveals an overall female representation of 37% in leadership positions (such as directors, members of the board of directors, administrative councils and other statutory bodies). Women hold a majority of the highest-level positions at 63%.”

A deeply gender pay gap is registered in the last years in the country:

“In the cultural labor market, there is a high wage gap, notably in the performing arts, where female artists earn about 1/3 less than their male counterparts (CoE/ERICarts, “Italy”, 2016, p. 47). In “arts, entertainment, and recreation”, the gender pay gap was 61.3% in 2014, which is high, considering

that the gender pay gap in the economy overall was 7.4% in the same year. In the sector “information and communication”, the gender pay gap in 2014 was 18.9%.”

Stereotypes in these sectors are very common: from the lyrics to the representation of the women in films and theatre, there are many examples of non – virtues examples. It’s important to understand how lyrics and this kind of intellectual products influenced our role models and the society. Two centuries ago, in classical music was very common to find lyrics as “la donna è mobile” by Giuseppe Verdi, who described a woman silly and lunatic as “feathers in the wind” (Rigoletto, 1851). Even now we can observe the same practices in the “new” music as rap and pop music. On many lyrics they are reduced as objects that are still waiting for men to live their life. Women in these songs are trophy, vulnerable, temperamental, oriented for pleasure. Many times, women are synonymous of scandal or silliness. The dependence from love is another issue highlighted in many lyrics such as “Sei bellissima” (you are beautiful) by Loredana Berté that deal an obsessed woman addicted to her boyfriend. These portraits influenced the Italian public opinion that ignore the real meaning of the lyrics, justifying the distorted vision of the women described in these songs. Pop, in Italy, has many examples of these representations such as “Meschina” (Sneaky) by Modà that described the women as a cheater.

“Sneaky, I want to broke our relation now

But before doing that you have to kneel down, be filled and give me yourself for the last time

Indulge me, look at me, cry, pray and apologize!”

J – Ax, an Italian rap singer, in his song "Ribelle e basta" sings “se la musica è sesso sono un maniaco perfetto ti violento penetrandoti l’orecchio” (“if the music is sex, I’m a perfect maniac, I rape you entering in your ear”). This kind of women’s representation is very common in rap music in Italy. In 2013, Fabri Fibra has been deleted from the list of the singer who joined the First of May maxi event in Rome due to his two songs (“Su le mani” and “Venerdì 17”) based on two women raped, full of stereotypes and anger. Another famous singer Emis Killa wrote a song on stalking to a former girlfriend. The following text is from his song “3 messaggi in segreteria” (three voicemails):

“I know I’m an egoist, a bastard, but I prefer to watching you dead than see you with another boy

You don’t know what I’m doing and with whom I spend my nights

But sometimes I talk from the radio and I can see a picture

And the city talks of me, you hide behind a lie, we are crazy

The worst among us I don’t know who could be

Me that I block your voicemail

Or you that are silly outside but in secret you are mine”

Regarding the representation of the women in the Italian filmography, since the beginning of the famous “Italian comedy”, all films have in common this imagine that described a melodramatic character, pretty and *femmes fatales*, painful mothers or cheated wife. If we analysed famous

actresses as Sofia Loren in *“La Ciociara”* or Anna Magnani in *“Bellissima”*, they act women that fight and live only in the name of love and their families.



The logic behind this representation aims to confine the women in beauty roles, victims of the Eros and seen as an object or the opposite, seen as subject of hilarity and threatened in a cruelty way by the characters. We can observe this stereotyping in famous films as *“L’Oro di Napoli”* by Vittorio De Sica or *“Peccato che sia canaglia”* by Blasetti. On the other hand, men in Italian films are represented as a strong, smart and always reasonable as we can see in many actors of the Italian comedy as Alberto Sordi and Vittorio De Sica. Until now, we can observe this discrimination, as we can see in *“Smetto quando voglio”* by Sidney Sibilla where we follow the story of a group of scientists that lost their job, to survive they will find a non – legal way. This story focuses the attention only on the male situation, leaving women in a marginalized presence even as character.



10.2.5. Lithuania

The empirical survey in investigating the picture of a career woman in terms of her roles’ compatibility presented in Lithuanian mass media shows that the social roles of a career woman are based on the categories of family and career, to which the competitive model is applied, which is given through the prisms of role compatibility and role strain. The career woman is presented as reflecting traditional roles of mother, wife and housewife in her own way and facing the problem of

56



role compatibility as well. The conclusion is that the wider variety of roles performed by woman determines the greater role strain in the context of her interpersonal relations (Cyziute, J. "Social roles of a career woman in the context of family partnership", FILOSOFIJA. SOCIOLOGIJA. 2007. T. 18. Nr. 2, p. 55–63).

10.2.6. Spain

It is a program that is broadcast in the afternoon (thus watched by viewers of all ages), in which women and men participate in order to "find love". There are suitors for a single person, the "tronista", whom they will try to conquer through dates, in order to be finally chosen or not. This program had a big audience (though it has dropped in recent years).

The girls on this tv show are portrayed as attractive wearing make-up, with exuberant bodies, high-heeled shoes. They compete among themselves for the man's attention. The ideal of beauty is very present in this program and girls who don't comply with it are generally ridiculed and expelled by the "tronista". Most of the men have a good physique, are muscular and show off their physical qualities continuously to the women and the general public.

In most of the programs broadcasted, we find verbal violence, with sexist insults against women (such as "easy woman" "sex doll", "ugly" ...) as well as men, using gender stereotypes ("you aren't a man", "calzonazos" (sp. for coward) ,"piggy"...).

In the program, aggressive men who treat women condescendingly are considered the best by both sexes and are, in general, those who manage to conquer the woman.

Jealousy and control are present in the program and feeling jealousy is treated as a quality of the person in love and as a show of love. It also promotes control over the privacy of a partner: if you are now my boyfriend or girlfriend, I have the right to know everything you do and provide public evidence if you betray me.

Music industry: Maluma "Cuatro babys"

In Spain, the most successful music genres among young people are reaggeton and trap. Most of the lyrics of these songs are sexist. However the inequality is present not only in the lyrics of the songs, but also can be seen in the videoclips: we see attractive women with, mostly with revealing clothes, high heels, make-up, showing their body while dancing, weak and with a submissive attitude towards the man, who usually appears with several women and represents the figure of a "bad boy".

One of the most successful song in 2017 among young people was "Cuatro babys", by the Colombian singer Maluma. The song is about a man who is "in love" with four women ("four babys"). The lyrics are offensive and demeaning to women, full of sexist messages. In the song, the four women know well what he wants, which is sex: "they always give me what I want". "Have sex when I tell them"(also refers to some sexual practices, such as fellatio). Two of the women are married: "two have husbands and neither of the two respects their husband," the other is single and the other "half psycho" because if he does not phone her, she despairs (stereotype of hysterical woman).

It also refers to the power of man over them: all are weak, all give what he wants. The man of the song is a very famous person, with a lot of money, with a yacht and this is something important to the four women of the song "they all want to have sex with me over hundred-dollar bills": women are happy with it. He even says that the women in the song pay to have sex with him.

However, in addition to these four girls, the figure of another woman appears in the song, and the man refers to her as "my official wife", since "you have my bank account and the number of my Master Card " and "I'm in love with that ass, with that blonde hair "(the woman as a sexual object again, which can be bought with money, fame, power and presents).

Despite being a completely offensive song for women and with a clear discriminatory message, it has become one of the summer musical hits among young people, reinforcing sexist and macho attitudes that denigrate women and reinforce gender stereotypes.



11. How a trainer/youth worker can use the facts to explain gender stereotypes to young people

11.1. Pedagogical approach – methodology

Because of the dry and strict nature of the facts contained in this Handbook, they may be found “boring” and hard to understand by many people, including the young generations. That is why we suggest to trainers to use active and interactive training methodology, which will help keep the attention of trainees. Trainings in the field should be based on active, participatory learning. In the next pages we suggest some training methods and more approaches can be found in IO2 and IO3.

11.2. Suggested activities.

11.2.1. Ice-breaking activities

When working with a group it is suitable that trainers/youth workers use ice-breaking activity at the beginning of the training/seminar or other event. The activity should be suitable to the group size and the level to which the participants know each other. Its goal is the group to reach a suitable level of freedom of communication in order to be able to work well together on the challenging tasks of understanding and avoiding stereotypes. For example the following methods can be used:

- **Pair interview:** Divide participants in pairs and ask each person to interview their partner on topics suggested by the moderator. The topics could be about the people themselves (family, hobby, education and s.o), they could also be related to the topic of the event (for example: Do you think gender stereotypes still play a significant role in our lives?). The moderator should fix the time for which the interviews should be done (ex. 10 min for both partners totally). At the end every participant should introduce their partner to the group.
- **Postcards.** For this activity the trainer gives to the group a set of postcards (version 1) or a set of pictures related to the topic (version 2). Versions 1 of the activity aims at participants getting to know each other better and at letting tension go and entering into a mood for working together. In this version the moderator asks the participants to choose one card and share either nice memories, related to it or nice thoughts and feelings that it provokes. Version 2 of the activity has an additional goal to introduce the topic and gather initial ideas from the participants. The moderator again asks each participant to choose one picture and to share what thoughts it provokes. He/she may also give instructions to the participants to relate the picture to the topic of the training.
- **Drawing of a concept.** (goal: to introduce the topic of the workshop). The group is divided randomly by the moderator into smaller groups of 3, maximum 4 people. The moderator asks the group to draw on a flipchart paper with coloured markers their “Animal of Stereotypes (or gender stereotypes)”. The moderator explains that the

animal can be fictional, for example it can be a combination of parts of different animals. As it is a creative exercise, there is no right or wrong! After 20 minutes the groups must show the poster to the rest of the participants and explain why they chose to draw the animal the way they did, what it or its parts symbolize and how it relates to their idea of stereotypes (or gender stereotypes).

11.2.2. Facts presentation and understanding activities

Besides the traditional methods of lecture and presentation, which unfortunately allow for very low level of participation of trainees and are therefore not very suitable for young audience, we would like to suggest a few more methods that moderators (youth workers and trainers) can use to involve the participants more actively and to motivate them.

- **Learning Mind Map.** A mind map is a diagram used to visually organize information. A mind map is often created around a single concept, drawn as an image in the centre of a blank landscape page, to which associated representations of ideas such as images, words and parts of words are added. Major ideas are connected directly to the central concept, and other ideas branch out from those. The group can work as a whole or divided into smaller groups. The groups have to do a mind map around the discussed concept and try to gather all their ideas around it. For example after the moderator presents the gender pay gap facts (and the central fact that there is average gender pay gap in EU – 15%) from this report, the groups may write in the center of the mind map 15% gender pay gap and gather and organize all their ideas what are the reasons for this pay gap.
- **Group activity:** group activities are used to make the workshop both more active and more interactive. The moderator divides the group randomly into smaller groups of 3-4 people and gives either the same or different tasks to the participants. For example when working on the topic of Family roles, before presenting the information in the Handbook the moderator can divide the group into smaller groups and ask half of the groups to work on the task to identify the predominant family role of women and the other half to identify the predominant family role of men. Next question to work on for the groups could be (in case the statistics of part time work and non-paid work) have already been presented, the groups could identify how these family roles relate to the specific behaviours, mirrored in these statistics. After the end of the working time for the groups – usually between 10 and 20 minutes, depending on the difficulty of the tasks, the groups present and compare the results of their work. The moderator then summarizes the main points and adds information if there is such missing in the group work.
- **Inspiring example** (goal: to make participants think of practical examples of avoiding stereotypes and to motivate them to try to step into this type of behavior). The participants are instructed to think of the best example of gender fair behavior that they

have seen/or example of a person who stands up to gender stereotypes. They should try to remember why they admire this person and what they can learn from him/her. Then they should write a letter to this person and later share it with the group. The moderator assists the group in collecting the characteristics of the “inspiring example behavior” in a brainstorming session.

- **Quiz.** The moderator can present some of the facts under the form of a quiz in order to keep the attention of the participants. Examples of quiz questions:
 - A. What is the average percentage of women CEOs in Europe?
 - i. 33% or above
 - ii. Between 20% and 33%
 - iii. Between 6% and 20%
 - iv. Less than 6%

(right answer – less than 6%)
 - B. Is the average representation of women in EU governments (%) higher or lower than the representation of women on boards of large listed companies (%)
 - i. Yes
 - ii. No
 - iii. It is equal

(right answer – Yes – 27%, versus 23,3%)
 - C. According to the statistics presented regarding gender pay gap in different professions and the % of women in specific professions, what is according to you the professional field, where women are least equally treated:
 - i. Construction
 - ii. Social services
 - iii. Engineering
 - iv. Science

Please explain why.....

(right answer – could be science, but it is more like personal opinion question, so every answer with good reasoning could be accepted)

11.2.3. Activities for overcoming gender prejudice

- **Gingerbread.** The moderator prints out the outlines of gingerbreads for each working group or they can draw it on a flipchart. After that the men have the task to attribute to the gingerbread all the common characteristics of women that they can think of (they can do it by writing or by drawing). And vice versa – the group of women characterizes men. After that the groups present the results of their work to the whole groups and a discussion follows.
- **Slang Chart.** This is a funny way to cast a glance at the differences between genders. The groups make slang charts of words and phrases that the women, respectively men most often use. When the slang charts are discussed the differences in the way of thinking

and in the background of the prevailing perceptions become evident, but it also becomes evident that similarities are more than differences.

- **Circle of Self.** The Circles activity engages participants in a process of identifying what they consider to be the most important dimensions of their own identities. Stereotypes are examined as participants share stories about when they were proud to be part of a particular group and when it was especially hurtful to be associated with a particular group. This activity requires a certain level of trust between the participants.

11.2.4. Activities ending the workshop

At the end of the workshop is good to have an activity for summarizing the work done and/or the main learning points, as well as to achieve some group bonding.

- **Help me solve my problem.** Participants sit in circle. Every one writes on an A4 sheet of paper one problem he/she has faced or is still facing, related to gender stereotypes. Then every participant gives his paper to the person sitting to the right of him/her. Every participant writes on the paper he/she receives one tip on how to prevent or solve the problem and then gives the paper further to the next participant to the right. At the next rounds the participants read the problems and suggestions that they receive and try to write yet another idea. The activity finishes when the problems return to their original “owners”. A discussion follows where the participants share with the whole group the suggestions they received for their problem.
- **Bonding:** Story telling exercise: all participants gather in a circle, including the moderator. The moderator begins a story by saying: “Once upon a time there was a group of enthusiastic people learning about gender stereotypes.” The next participant in the circle continues the story with a sentence or two and so on until the story finishes with the last participant on the other side of the moderator.

