

Men in care

WORKPLACE SUPPORT FOR CARING MASCULINITIES

Men in Care: *Workplace Support for Caring Masculinities.* Country report. Germany



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ABOUT MiC PROJECT

Men in Care is a European 3-year project (March 2019-Feb 2022) of 12 national organizations (universities, social partners and NGOs) co-funded by the European Commission under the EaSI program (PROGRESS axis). Men in Care (MiC) aims to improve workplace conditions to promote men taking caring roles in seven countries (Austria, Germany, Iceland, Norway, Poland, Slovenia and Spain). MiC will assess how policies and workplace cultures can change to enable men to become more active in caring for children, elderly, partners, co-workers and friends. MiC partners are: National Distance Education University (project coordinator, Spain), Fundación 1 de Mayo (Spain), Verein für Männer- und Geschlechterthemen Steiermark (Austria), European Network for the Work with Perpetrators of Domestic Violence (Germany), University of Iceland, REFORM (Resources Centre for Men, Norway), Jagiellonian University (Poland), PLinEU (Poland), Diversity Hub (Poland), The Peace Institute (Slovenia), the Association of Employers of Slovenia and the Association of Free Trade Unions of Slovenia.

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1. INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

The following report¹ provides material on gender equality and caring masculinities (and the lack of these) in Germany. The data have been collected in the context of the project MiC, and the report will contribute to a transnational comparison and the analysis of good practice methods to improve the situation (mostly on a workplace level).

Like other countries (and sometimes to a particularly high degree), Germany is characterized by gender inequalities in terms of the distribution of resources, power and work. It shows one of the higher gender pay gaps in Europe, same goes for the pension gap. Although women's labour market participation grew steadily (mostly in the west, for the last decades), the working time is still quite unequal, part-time is a female domain and horizontal segregation remains substantial.

About the German development, EIGE summarizes:

"With 66.9 out of 100 points, Germany ranks 12th in the EU on the Gender Equality Index. Its score is 0.5 points lower than the EU's score. Between 2005 and 2017, Germany's score increased by 6.9 points (+ 1.4 points since 2015). Germany is progressing towards gender equality faster than the EU. Its rank is the same as in 2005.

Germany's scores are higher than the EU's scores in all domains except in the domains of knowledge and time². Compared to other domains, Germany's lowest score is in the domain of knowledge (53.7 points), ranking 24th in the EU; its highest score is in the domain of health (90.5 points), where it ranks sixth in the EU. Germany's greatest improvement is in the domain of power (+ 22.6 points). There are regressions in the domains of knowledge and time (- 1.6 points for both).

¹ Data and analysis included in national reports will be updated when post-covid19 data are available.

² The domain "knowledge" refers to gender gaps in education grades, the domain "time" measures gaps in the allocation of time for care and social activities. Other core domains are "work", "money", "health", "violence", and "power" (<https://eige.europa.eu/gender-equality-index/2019>).

Between 2005 and 2017, Germany's Index score remained lower than the EU's score. Nevertheless, its score improved more quickly than the EU as a whole. The distance between Germany and the EU has decreased over time." (<https://eige.europa.eu/publications/gender-equality-index-2019-germany>)

In West Germany, the male breadwinner/housewife model was the norm, although women's labour market participation grew in the 1970s/80s. In the GDR, women's participation in paid work was the norm (whereas unpaid family work was still mostly done by women). Although east and west converged in terms of labour market and gender gaps, some different traditions are still reflected in the data.

In terms of labour market related figures (figures 3-6), the substantial gender gaps are decreasing slowly. What can also be observed in terms of inequality, is a huge class gap in both gender groups indicated by figures on employment and education levels (which seems quite consistent with other countries studied in MiC).

Germany introduced a parental leave system in 2007 that worked well as an incentive to increase the number of fathers in parental leave. Although also good incentives for more equal part-time and working time reduction among parent couples have been introduced in 2015, the gender care gap (although narrowing) remains substantial.

Caring masculinities (or at least men's roles in private and family care) started to become part of a pro-equality discourse in academia (Scholz & Heilmann 2019, Gärtner et al. 2006) as well as in practice: The Federal Forum of Men and other initiatives developed a perspective on men that promoted care and equality. Some companies already gained experience with fathers' networks and other measures that helped to create a father friendly work space; some organizations also put some focus on men in home care for sick and elderly relatives (see section 6.).

2. GENDER GAPS IN EMPLOYMENT

2.1. Labour market participation

Gender segregation is high in Germany, which is, among other things, reflected in gender gaps in employment, working hours, income and pensions. Also, some of these indicators show a tendency of a (sometimes slightly) closing gender gap.

The gender gap in employment rates, although visible among parents, has decreased: While for men the figures show only slight or no changes (2007-2017) for parents of children of all age categories between 0 and 12, women's employment rate increased visibly (in the same period), but mostly remains below that of men.

Surprisingly, the employment rate in persons without children is lower for men (2007: 83%, 2017: 85%, figure 3) than for women (2007: 84, 2017: 87 %, figure 4). However, immediately after birth, the rate for men increases (2017: 87%), while it drops largely for women (2017: 52%). With children ages 1-2 and 3-5, men's rate remains constant at 88% (2017), women's rate increases (2017: 56% children ages 1-2, 71% children ages 3-5). For children aged 6-12, men's rate drops visibly (2007: 77%, 2017: 80), while women's increased in 2007 (65%) or stayed constant in 2017: 71%)

So the gender gap in employment (and the "motherhood penalty") rate is high with very young children, closes with children growing up, and is even slightly inverse for persons without children.

An open question is if there is a (slighter) "fatherhood penalty" for men with children older than 6, compared to men with younger (or no) children. Anyway, reasons for the decrease of employment in men with children of 6-12 y (even below the level of childless) are not clear.

Figures and gender gaps in persons with young children (0-2) show differences when looking at education levels. It is to be noted that Germany – like other countries – has a pronounced education gap in employment for both genders (which, at least in Germany, also reflects a class gap). For both men and women, employment rates rise distinctly with the level of education, with the group of lower secondary level achievements far left behind among men, and especially among women.

Womens' rates (figure 6) increased clearly between 2007 and 2017 in all groups (but the higher the education level, the higher the increase), which is the reason for a clear overall decrease of the gender gap.

However, changes in men's employment rates are very different according to the education level (figure 5): For third level graduates, they remained quite constant (2007: 97/95%, 2017: 95/96%), for the upper secondary level they increased slightly (2007: 89/90, 2017: 92/92), but the lower third level shows a heavy decrease (2007: 71/69, 2017: 57/60).

Gender gaps in weekly working hours are large in Germany; other than in the employment rate, this is also true for persons without children. However, the gap is closing/the figures in both genders (and for parents with children in all age groups) converged between 2007 and 2017. Comparing all male and female employees in Germany independent from the family situation, Kümmerling (2018: 11, Table 1) sees a slow convergence of 0.6 hours/week in the Gender Working Time Gap (2010-16) to 8.7 h/w. Men work 39.4 h/w, while women's weekly hours are 30.8. Working hours are only slightly affected by the children's age.

The convergence in gendered working hours is slow, but clear; the gap decreased from 20.1 (2007) to 15.8 (2017) for persons with children aged 0, and from 20.0 (2007) to 14.7 (2017) for children aged 1-2 years.

Especially the gender gap for persons with and without children is heavy, which is documented in Figure 9: While the working hours for singles younger than 45 without children is very similar, it slightly widens for (presumably heterosexual) couples younger than 45 without children. For couples with children the gap widens heavily, peaking in the group of parents of children age 7-12. The gap then narrows again for older couples without children in the household - and those before retirement -, but it remains still visible. This gap for couples with children is mainly caused by mothers working much lesser hours, whereas the working hours for men/fathers remain relatively constant around 40 hours/week.

The German inactivity rate shows a high gender gap: In 2017, 7.9% of the men and 17.7% of the women have been inactive (figure 10). However the gap narrowed due to a convergent change in both genders. Again, the education (class?) gap for both genders (which increased 2007-17) is even heavier. This gap is clearly higher among women, but for both genders, low achievers are increasingly left behind, while for high achieving men (and not for women) the rate declined.

Economic inactivity for family reasons shows much lower numbers for both genders (figure 11). However, the gender gap is heavy (not least due to the fact that the numbers for men are inconsiderable). Family based inactivity among women increased: Low achievers are inactive for family reasons (in particular female ones), and the education gap here is increasing.

2.2. Gender pay gap

In Germany (2014), the pay gap is higher than the median in the EU: unadjusted: 22.3%, adjusted: 5.8%³

It is, similar to other countries, relatively small in younger people, but particularly large in the three age groups "35-44" (21.9%), "45-54" (28.4%), and "55-64" (27.7). Several reasons are usually mentioned to explain this:

The gender care gap and the feminization of unpaid family work leads to a maternal care penalty, which is highlighted in the 2nd Federal Gender Equality Report (Bundesregierung 2017): A gendered career development (glass ceilings etc.) is related to an unequal distribution of power/positions and income; those career paths are in no way reconciled with an active role in families; moreover, in Germany, the income tax splitting for spouses provides a substantial incentive for wage differences within married couples.

Both reasons are related with each other, and have an impact in the MiC context. Table 2 shows that, like in other countries, but (like Austria) with a particularly strong tendency, the gap grows with age, peaking for the group age 45-54 years, then decreases again. This peaking group of 45-54 shows that the motherhood penalty has a long-term, even increasing impact.

In Germany, the pay gap is regionally highly differentiated. Busch/Holst (2013)⁴ found that the gender pay gap is higher in rural areas (2006: 33 percent) than in conurbations (2006: 12 percent). The authors attribute this difference mainly "to the greater employment opportunities for highly qualified women in large cities⁵. It also shows that, with high regional unemployment at district level, women have to accept higher deductions from their earnings than men." (ibid.: 452, translation by MiC Germany)

Beck (2018) shows the differences between federal states (Figure 12); his results seem to contradict those of Busch/Holst (2013) to some extent: Not only is the gap the biggest in some of the economically most successful states of the south-west (Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria, Hesse); it is smallest on some states in the east facing a more difficult situation. This might be attributed to the fact that in the west, the breadwinner model is still quite widespread, which – due to the labour market policy and social structure in the GDR, which to some extent still structures present mind-sets and

³ p52 in: https://www.destatis.de/DE/Methoden/WISTA-Wirtschaft-und-Statistik/2017/02/verdienstunterschiede-022017.pdf?__blob=publicationFile

⁴ DIW Wochenbericht, <https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/151648/1/08-33-1.pdf>

⁵ It can, however, be assumed that these better opportunities are also available for men. Therefore we believe that the gap between urban and rural areas is better explained by women's higher flexibility – the assumption that higher qualified women tend to move away from the countryside, while the men there tend to take the (fewer and) better paid jobs for granted.

realities – is not the case in the eastern states. Also, the comparison between adjusted and unadjusted gaps shows a surprisingly different picture: Although the adjusted gap is highest in two eastern states (Brandenburg and Mecklenburg-Vorpommern) and lowest in two western states (Northrhine-Westfalia and Schleswig-Holstein), the picture is more mixed with a less clear regional or economic segmentation.

2.3. Gender pension gap

According to – and substantially exceeding – the high pay gap, the gender pension gap was with 45% very high in 2012; the number is 7 % higher than EU average, only Lithuania showed the same gap, and only the Netherlands come close to these with 42 %. However, the gap is getting smaller for the group of 65–69 years compared with elder ones (Table 3). Reasons for the high pension gap are listed in the Gender Equality Report (Bundesregierung 2017):

“... lower labour force participation over the life course, more frequent and longer career breaks for care reasons, (care-related) part-time work and lower pay.” (ibid.: 26)

The authors propose to include unpaid work done in terms of family care into the system of retirement cover:

“The care of unrelated persons, such as neighbours or friends, should also lead to an increase in pension entitlements.” (ibid.)

3. ARRANGEMENTS TO COPE WITH WORK-LIFE BALANCE ACROSS THE LIFE COURSE

If we look at how many employees worked part-time for family reasons in 2017, we find a significant gender gap of 14.8 % for all employees, and 21.4 % in the group of 25-49 years. For men, the family reasons seem of a diminishing significance: only 0.5 % of all male employees name that as their part time cause.

However, we can also see clearly that family reasons have become more important for the (small) group of German part-time working men between 2007 and 2017 (figure 13). For employees age 25-49, the share increased by 3.8% up to 7.8%; moreover, for self-employed age 25-49, the share increased by 7.4 up to 9.9%! Also in the age group of 50-64, the rates of 3.6 (self-employed – increase of 1.4 percentage points) and 3.7 (employees – increase of 2.8 percentage points) show a clear, but weaker growth. One reason for this increase – however small it is in absolute numbers – might be the fact that within the relevant decade and due to parental leave regulations, work-life topics became more strongly an issue for men (Puchert et al. 2005, Pfahl/Reuyß 2009, Gärtner 2012).

Hobler & Pfahl (2015) found that paternal leave has an effect on the reduction of working time among men:

“It is increasingly fathers with long working hours of more than 40 hours per week before the birth of the child who reduce their working time after their parental leave period. However, these fathers reduce their working hours mainly to a small extent. In the majority of cases, they reduce their overtime and/or choose to shorten their working hours by a few hours, usually by around 20 per cent (...). By contrast, a significant reduction from a full-time job to a genuine part-time job tends to be the exception. Nevertheless, this result shows that many fathers have so far been willing in principle - and especially directly after the parental leave period - to work shorter hours.” (ibid.: 66)

Looking at family reasons for part time and income groups (deciles), not only the strong overall gender gap, but also a class gap, is remarkable: The strongest concentration of those part-timers who name family reasons as the cause of their part-time work is in the higher income groups, with men (%) and women (%) peaking in the second highest income group, decile 9. For both genders, but especially for

men, family reasons play a weaker role for low income groups. Women of the same group show smaller differences on a clearly higher level, but with the same tendency (figure 14⁶). Clearly, notwithstanding obvious gender gaps, one must be able to afford working less hours for family reasons.

However, looking at part time related to the number of all employed people, the tendency among men age 25-49 is the opposite: The lowest decile shows the highest family-related part-time, the highest (10) decile shows 0.2%. Women show the same tendency on a much higher level (figure 15).

In terms of sectors of activity, only male part-timers (25-49) in public administration show relatively high rates of family reasons (27.2%). Traditional male attributed jobs show low numbers (which is different for women).

Looking at the take-up rate of care leave (for children or others), Germany (like other states) shows a huge gender gap (2017 employees: 78 percentage points, figure 16) with clear increases for both gender groups. The increase among men from 0.8% (2007) to 5.7% (2017) as the biggest increase among all partner countries can most probably be attributed to the parental leave benefit regulation introduced in 2007 (see section 5).

⁶ Men in the group 50-64 show a similar tendency as younger men, but on a lower level of part time shares. Their median is 4% (while women's of that age is 10.5).

4. GENDER GAPS IN CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK

According to data from the most recent time use survey of 2012/13 (BMFSFJ 2018), the gender care gap is at 52.4 % (figure 17), which means that women do 1:27 h more of daily unpaid care work (ibid.: 12) than men. This work type comprises household chores (including repairs, gardening, care for pets), care for children and adults, voluntary work, informal support for other households (ibid.: 7)

Moreover, the authors of the report state (ref. to figure 17):

"The biggest gender care gap (110.6 %) is at the age of 34: Women then work an average of 5 hours and 18 minutes of care work daily, men, on the other hand, only 2 hours and 31 minutes. In this "rush hour of life", central events in life are bundled together and decisions such as career, choice of partner and responsibility for children and parents (...). With increasing age, men spend more time for care work, women a little less. Nevertheless, the gender care gap remains clearly visible. Independent women living alone from old age spend more time every day on care activities than living alone men. In couple households with children, most of the care and education costs - mainly due to childcare - are covered by the work on it. In this constellation, mothers do 2 hours and 30 minutes more care work every day than fathers, so that the total gender care gap for people in couple households with children is 83.3%." (Bundesregierung 2017: 96)

5. INCREASE OF MEN IN CARE

5.1. Men on leave 2007-2017, uptake rates/days used

The Federal Parental Benefits Act (Bundeselterngeldgesetz) was introduced in 2007. It replaced the previous flat-rate regulation with an income-dependent payment (65% of net wages). In addition, a link between both parents has now been introduced with the partner months: Only when both parents apply for at least two months of parental allowance, the full 14-month period can be used up. Together, this worked as an incentive for the fathers: in 2006, only 3.5% applied for the former upbringing allowance, while the new parental benefit was claimed by a much higher number of fathers, up to 37% in 2016.

However, the period of take-up differs: fathers usually take two to three months, whereas mothers take ten to twelve. In 2015, the regulations were made more flexible by the parental benefit plus scheme in that the period of entitlement could be extended by reducing the monthly amount (to up to 28 months). This and other regulations were intended to make a longer-term reduction in working hours more attractive. This has done little to change gender-typical patterns of use.

A study by German Institute for Economic Research (DIW Berlin) found financial disadvantages and negative occupational consequences as important motives (Samtleben et al. 2019: 611) for the comparatively low proportion of fathers. The authors recommend "to gradually increase the current share of at least two partners per month. In combination with higher income replacement rates for those on low incomes, this could ensure that more fathers take parental leave and increase incentives for a more partnership-based sharing of care work." (ibid.: 613)

Similar to parenthood, care for sick and elderly (paid/professionally or unpaid/private) is traditionally a female domain in Germany. However, men seem to do more unpaid care than they used to earlier: In 2013, a German health insurance (Barmer) identified men's share among private carers at 38%⁷, while, similarly, Hammer (2014) says that the number is at about 1.8 million men doing that sort of private care in Germany. In 2012, a Law on Family Care was introduced that enables

⁷ https://bundesforum-maenner.de/wp-content/uploads/2019/10/Kurzbericht_Fachforum_SORGE.pdf

employees in family care to reduce their working hours to up to 15 hours per week over maximum two years; losses of income are compensated by the state, partly by benefit, partly by a loan.

5.2. Men in care occupations 2007/17

Germany's labour market shows a high level on horizontal segregation: Men's and women's occupations are quite different, which often increases pay gaps since men's jobs are paid better on average. While young women chose careers as office management assistants, medical assistants or retail salespersons, male trainees prefer to choose professions with a technical focus like motor vehicle mechatronics engineers, industrial mechanics or electronics engineers. There are also big differences in the choice of studies: While three quarters of engineering sciences are taken up by men, in the humanities and cultural sciences, social or health sciences about two thirds of students are female (Bundesinstitut für Bevölkerungsforschung 2018). As Rieske und Täubrich (2018) summarize:

"Men and women still restrict their career choices to female or male-dominated careers. 58% of the employed men work in male-majority occupations, 52% of employed women work in female-majority occupations and only about 10% of women and men work in occupations in which the other sex is the majority (Bundesregierung 2017: 84)."

This applies particularly for care occupations: The share of men among care-workers in Germany decreased slightly by 2% from 2008 to 2018, when it was 24 %. (Holtermann et al. 2019).

Schildmann/Voss (2018: 3ff) state that there is a significant need for more employees in care occupations, especially in medical and elder care. The integration of men (which is an aim of initiative such as New pathways for Boys or the annual Boys' Day) would be a critical part of the solution here.

5.3. Self-care of men (health, etc.), 2007/17

For a long time the topic of men's health was not given much attention either by men themselves or by politics, but in the past two decades there has been more focus on that matter. This was supported not least by realizations of the gender medicine, men's work and education as well as the European work and research about men's health (like the European Public Health Programme 2008-13, cf. White 2011, Scambor et al. 2013). The first German men's health report was published in autumn 2010. Since then, for example, the Federal Centre for Health Education, the Robert Koch Institute (which is relevant to national policy) and the Federal Ministry of Health have established their own departments or online publication on the topic.

According to the Federal Office for Statistics, men's average life expectancy in 2015/2017 was 78.35 years compared to 83.18 for women⁸, while within these gender groups, economic situation and social status make crucial differences (RKI 2014).⁹

The homepage of the Men's Health Foundation provides some insights in gender differences in health risks:¹⁰

- > Men suffer more frequently from heart attacks 542 vs. 157 per 100,000 persons (2016)
- > Overweight: 62% vs. 43% (2017)
- > High blood pressure: men 32.8% vs. women 30.9% (2017)
- > Fatalities due to traffic accidents: men 129000 vs. women 71000 (2016)
- > More than three times as many men (about 7500) died of suicide in 2016
- > Men showed more than twice as many new cases of lung cancer in 2016: approx. 35,000.
- > Men are more addicted than women to alcohol, cigarettes, drugs and gambling.

In many publications, the connection to men's gender role, and not at least to (a lack of) work life balance is drawn to understand men's health situation and specific risks. The Federal Agency points out, that

"In everyday life, men are often less health-conscious than women. Traditional male roles tend to inhibit mindfulness and attention to one's own body and encourage a willingness to take risks. Men pay less attention to their own state of health and participate less often in health promotion programs, their diet is often less healthy and alcohol consumption is more risky. Gender-specific differences also exist in the case of mental illness. Although severe stress or depression is diagnosed less frequently among men in Germany than among women, around three quarters of all completed suicides are attributable to men. Almost every 50th death of a man is a suicide. Pressure to perform, constant availability and social crises are frequent causes."

5.4. Men caring for the community, 2007/17

According to the Federal Report on Volunteer Work/Civic Engagement (2017), 31 million people in Germany do voluntary work; 49% of the men (41% of the women)

⁸ https://www.stiftung-maennergesundheit.de/fileadmin/_processed_/csm_Folie1_6f41e896c6.jpg

⁹

https://www.rki.de/DE/Content/Gesundheitsmonitoring/Gesundheitsberichterstattung/GesundAZ/Content/M/Maennergesundheit/Inhalt/maennergesundheit_inhalt.html

¹⁰ <https://www.stiftung-maennergesundheit.de/info-bereich/fakten.html>

do so. Men are more often involved in permanent (and leading) honorary positions, while the numbers of other (non-permanent) activities are about equal to women's (ibid.: 184). The authors note "that services for others in informal networks are provided more often by women than by men, especially in the areas of care, social support and childcare" (ibid.).

There are pronounced gender differences according the areas of civic engagement (ibid.: 185):

- > Sports: Men 23%, women 10%
- > Disaster relief and emergency services: Men 11%, women 3%
- > Civic engagement in the neighborhood: Men 10%, women 6%
- > Politics: Men 9%, women 3%
- > Trade unions/professional associations: Men 5%, women 2%
- > Church/religion: Men 7%, women 9%
- > Health and social sector: Men 5%, women 9%
- > Schools and childcare institutions: Men 4%, women 12%

These differences can to a large extent be attributed to traditional gender roles in Germany.

5.5. Men wanting to work less, e.g. current versus desired hours

Female managers work an average of 41 hours per week, but wanted 34 hours. Male managers, on the other hand, work an average of 46 hours per week, but indicated 38 hours as their preference (Holst et al. 2015: 34)

In 2018, according to the Federal Office for Statistics,

"the average ordinary weekly working time of full-time employed men is higher in the West (42.0 hours) than in the East (41.5 hours). Also for full-time employed women, the working week is higher in the West (40.3 hours) than in the East (40.1 hours). In contrast, women working part-time in western Germany have a lower ordinary weekly working time of 20.0 hours than women working part-time in eastern Germany, whose weekly working time is 24.4 hours. West German men in part-time employment also have a lower working week of 17.1 hours compared to 20.0 hours for East German men in part-time employment. Accordingly, full-time employees with a desire to reduce their working hours want to reduce their weekly hours more in the West than in the East (men West/East: -11.5 hours/-10.3 hours; women West/East: -11.2 hours/-9.5 hours)

In contrast, this trend is not evident among part-time workers who want to work more hours: The extent of the desired increase in working hours is no greater here in the West than in the East (men West/East: +16.9 hours each; women West/East: +12.0 hours/+12.7 hours). In the West, women working part-time express their desire for an increase in working hours less frequently and to a lesser extent, even though their usual weekly working hours are lower than those of women working part-time in the East."¹¹

¹¹ https://www.destatis.de/DE/Presse/Pressemitteilungen/2020/01/PD20_020_133.html

6. HOW CAN WORKPLACES SUPPORT CARING MASCULINITIES ACROSS THE LIFE COURSE

In Germany, the integration of men in care activities made some progress in the last decade and beyond. This is true even though the figures make it clear that German society is still characterized by immense gender gaps. Due to the parental allowance act, more men take parental leave, and the environment for men caring for sick or elder relatives improved. Also, there are role models of men managers doing care work, work more flexible and widen the range of options for their employees. There are, already, some good practice examples that could be exploited more intensively and discussed in the MiC context.¹²

6.1. General: Lobbying, research, coordination activities

- > The Federal Forum of Men (Bundesforum Männer, <https://bundesforum-maenner.de>) does lobbying and projects around caring masculinities, on topics such as:
 - .1. Gender equal arrangement of sick and elder care: The aim is to find political strategies to get men more into the focus as clients and active carers in elder and sick care, to support male nurses (including an increase of their number) and foster caring company cultures.
 - .2. Better framework conditions for involved fathers: Introduction of a 2 weeks fathers' leave after the childbirth (independent from parental leave and allowance); more parity in the distribution of parental allowance (for example by 4 months of individual eligibility); a decrease of tax incentives for the breadwinner model.
 - .3. A more gender equal distribution of paid and unpaid work through: leave options for employees, a greater reward for caring work in retirement, flexible working time patterns according to life phase, and a change in corporate culture.

¹² Many ideas that also apply for Germany are provided in the Austrian MiC Report (Gärtner, Scambor, Posch 2019) in section 1.6.

- > The coordination office Men in Kindergartens (Männer in Kitas) works via research, outreach and lobbying to bring more men into kindergartens: "Together with representatives from politics, science and practice, we are working to win new target groups for the profession of educator and to bind them to the field of work in the long term. Greater recognition of the profession, remuneration already during training and a higher salary are also effects of discussions on the subject of professional politics about more diversity in day-care teams. With our public relations work we would like to contribute to shaping these discussions and professional developments in a gender- and diversity-conscious manner."
- > Around the topic of men in care occupations, there are other measures and initiatives: Boys' Day, annually since 2005/2011, including campaign/posters Vielfalt Mann" (Men's Diversity) for men in kindergartens; Neue Wege für Jungs (New Paths in Career and Life Planning for Boys (start in 2005); Soziale Jungs, klischee-frei.de, Daddy be cool (Parit. Bildungswerk): Training of boys of 7th grade in parenting (Gärtner et al. 2018 - BiC TNR)
- > The Family Ministry of Northrhine-Westfalia supports and informs about paternity via the internet resource <https://www.vaeter.nrw>. The country state is advanced in the topic of fatherhood due to the work of experts like Hans-Georg Nelles and others who initiated the "Expert body for paternal work/Fachstelle Väterarbeit" in Northrhine-Westfalia.

6.2. Company/organisation level:

- > Fathers' networks in companies: Hamburg-based consultant Volker Baisch initiates fathers' networks in about 20 companies (such as Axel Springer, Deutsche Bank, Caterpillar, SAP). These provide knowledge and outreach on paternal topics such as parental benefit, work-life balance etc., and also events for fathers with their children (<https://vaeternetzwerk.info>).
- > The company programme "Career with Children" by the institute EAF Berlin was launched in different companies (like Deutsche Bahn, Deutsche Telekom, VW). It offered a mentoring programme & trainings for young managers with families, but also sensitivity modules on gender/diversity and work-life issues with stakeholders/decision makers to change company cultures. Many men have been involved in this programme, as mentees, mentors, managers and stakeholders, so it also implicitly tackled the issue of caring masculinities. (<https://www.eaf-berlin.de/en/project/working-models-for-careers-with-children>)
- > The project "FlexShip - Flexible work models for managers" (by EAF Berlin and Berlin School of Economics and Law) conducted research and action on models like home office, part time, sabbaticals or jobsharing/topsharing. Good examples from companies and research organisations were collected, analysed and an up-to-date data basis on flexible working in leadership was created. In exchange, information and sensitivity workshops many

managers were involved for a cultural change through the implementation of practical models. (<https://www.eaf-berlin.de/en/project/flexible-working-arrangements-in-leadership/>).



Figure 1. Project “FlexShip – Flexible work models for managers”. Source: EAF Berlin and Berlin School of Economics and Law.

The following ideas, aggregated from different projects, may be useful for the implementation of measures aiming at men and gender in organizations:

- > If “men need gender equality, and gender equality needs men” (Scambor et al. 2014: 569) – it is obviously important to target men in gender and work-life related issues; as a prerequisite, it seems critical to also measure and evaluate their needs before. The role and positioning of men can be diverse: They can be involved (or insecure) fathers, men who (like to) care for relatives, managers or HR staff, superiors or colleagues, younger employees who are interested how to balance a career and (self) care issues throughout the life course. This diversity needs to be addressed, too.
- > In this sense, it seems necessary to integrate men into networks of change makers (as active protagonists and role models, not only as a target group), into mentoring programs and trainings aiming at work-life, gender and diversity issues.
- > It should, however, be determined that men’s privileges in society and work-life are not ignored; rather should synergies of men’s and women’s needs be identified, and also specifics for both genders. In the end flexible working time and space, a care-friendly working culture etc. are for the benefit of both genders.
- > The commitment of managers is needed: as gatekeepers (or door openers) for a care-positive culture, and as male role models. Every project aiming at

organizational change should therefore include managers and reflect the necessity of a top-down approach to meet the targets.

- > In order to convince stakeholders and gatekeepers, the business case might be important:
 - .1. Better employer branding/attractiveness: recruit and bind good personnel
 - .2. employee satisfaction through family-conscious personnel policy
 - .3. healthier staff and less burn-out
 - .4. better internal communication through innovation
- > The range of topics and measures is broad, and many of these will have to be combined to make a difference: working time/space and structures, leave regulations, communication (especially , organization culture, sensitization (especially in management and personnel) etc.
- > Sustainable solutions are more important than a short term engagement for glossy measures. Therefore we propose an intensive process following these steps in a thorough manner: (1) analysis of the needs (e.g. of fathers and other caretakers), (2) planning and piloting measures with suitable protagonists of the target group (e.g. job sharing, workplace flexibility with home office options, flexible time schedules also for managers, new communication techniques and structures etc.), (3) evaluate interim results (barriers and success factors, needs and further support), adapt and reshape measures, (4) wider pilot or roll-out in further departments or the whole organization, (5) monitoring of the development, (1) identification of needs (either emerging in the process or not yet covered by the measures implemented) etc.



Figure 2. Strategy circle of implementation of company measures. Source: own elaboration.

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APPENDIX: FIGURES AND TABLES

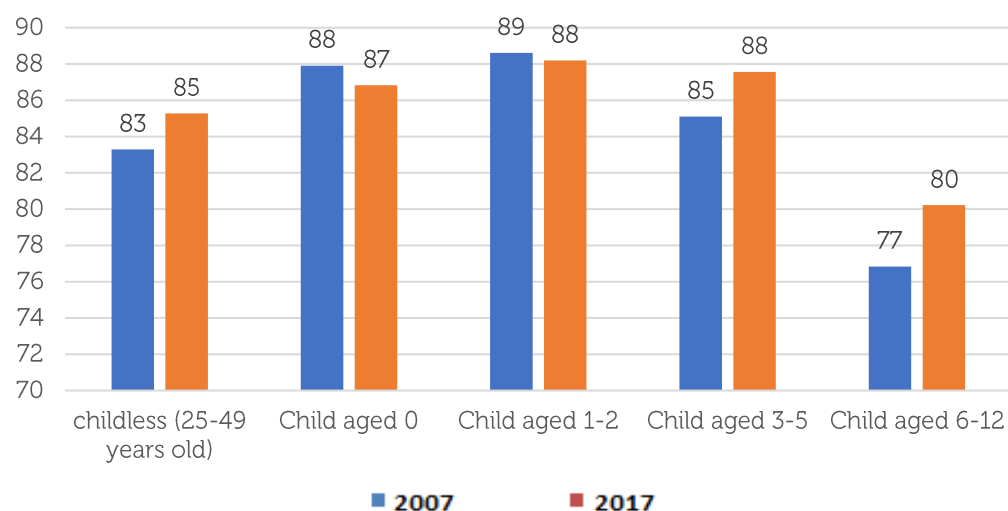


Figure 3. Employment rates by age of youngest child, men, 2007-2017.
Source: EU-LFS Microdata

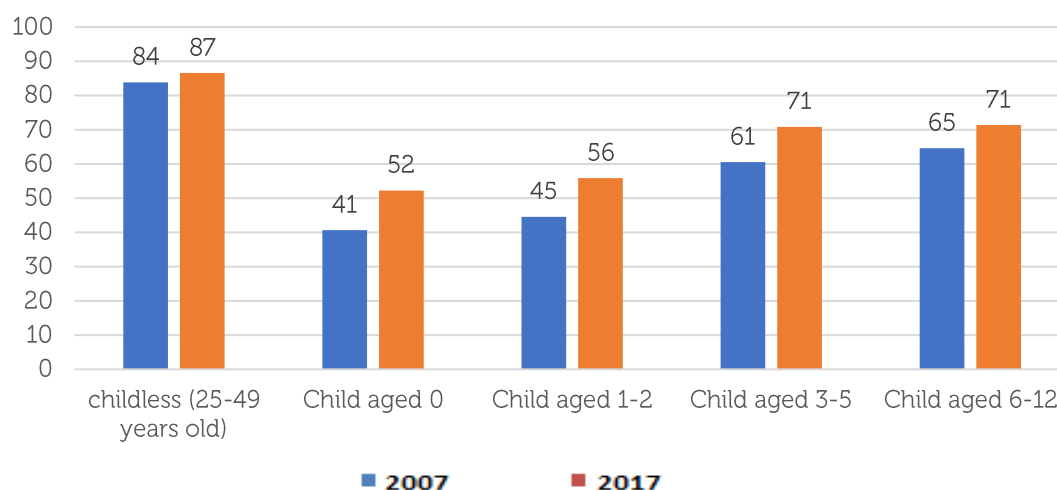


Figure 4. Employment rates by age of youngest child, women, 2007-2017.
Source: EU-LFS Microdata

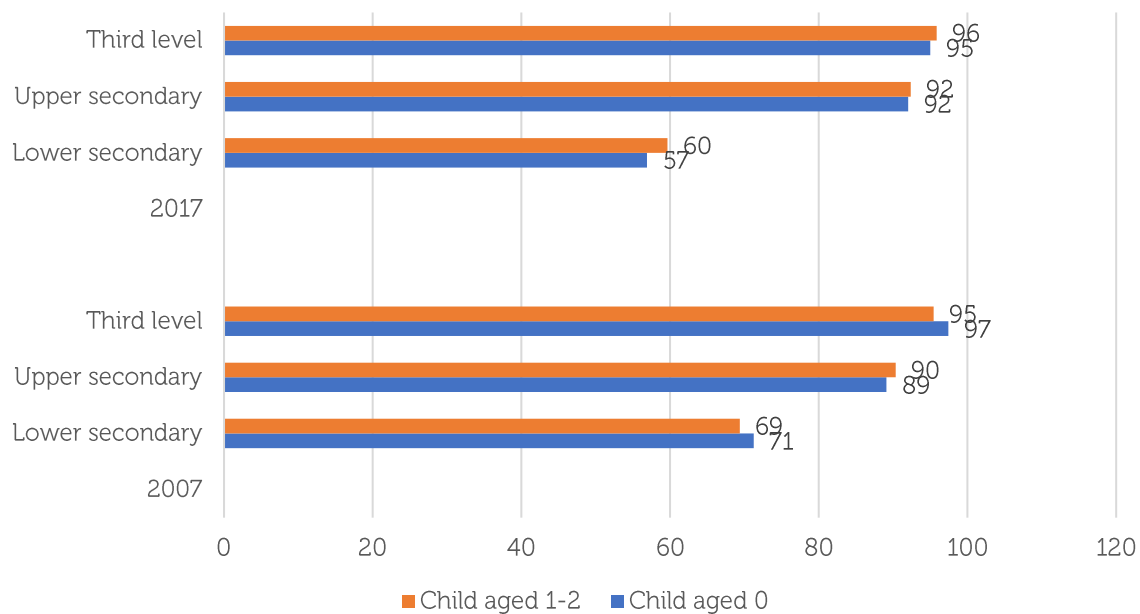


Figure 5. Employment rates of fathers, 2007-17 by age of youngest child and educational level.
Source: EU-LFS Microdata

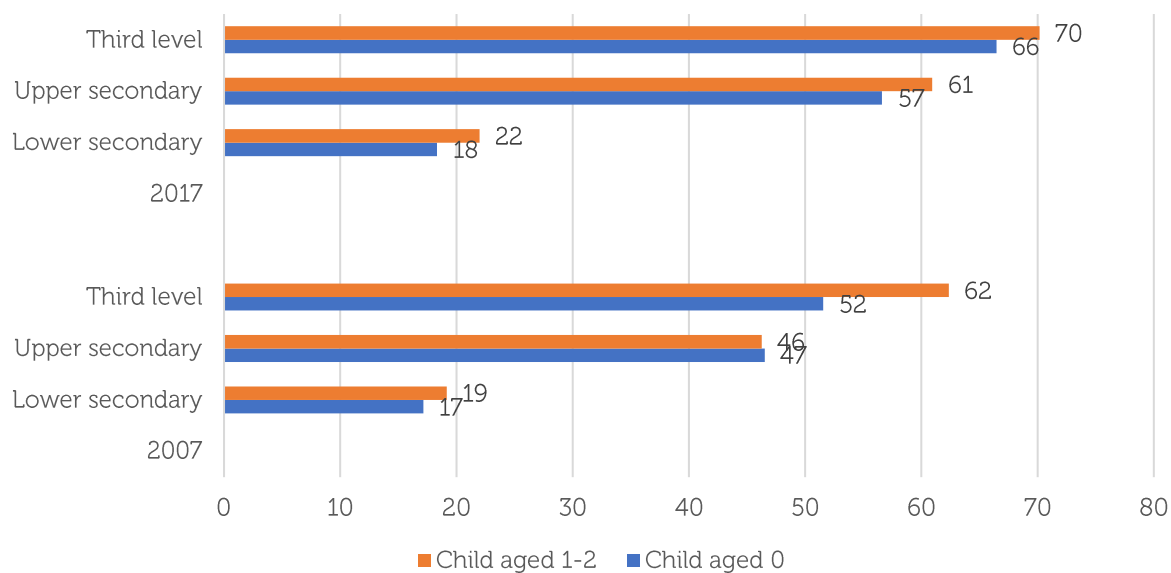


Figure 6. Employment rates of fathers, 2007-17 by age of youngest child and educational level.
Source: EU-LFS Microdata

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	Diff. 2016-2010
insgesamt	35,2	35,2	35,3	35,2	35,2	35,2	35,2	0,0
Männer	39,6	39,8	39,7	39,6	39,5	39,5	39,4	-0,2
Frauen	30,3	30,2	30,4	30,5	30,6	30,6	30,8	0,5
GTG	-9,3	-9,6	-9,3	-9,2	-8,9	-8,9	-8,7	0,6

Table 1. Development of average weekly working hours in dependent employees (2010-2016), part-time and full-time employees. Source: Kümmerling (2018)

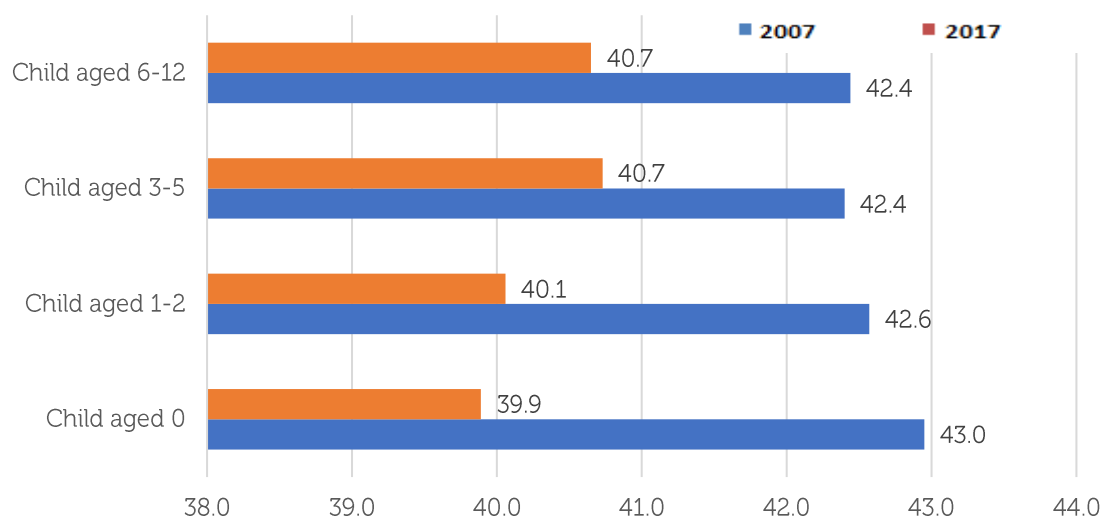


Figure 7. Weekly paid work hours of fathers, by age of youngest child, 2007/2017. Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

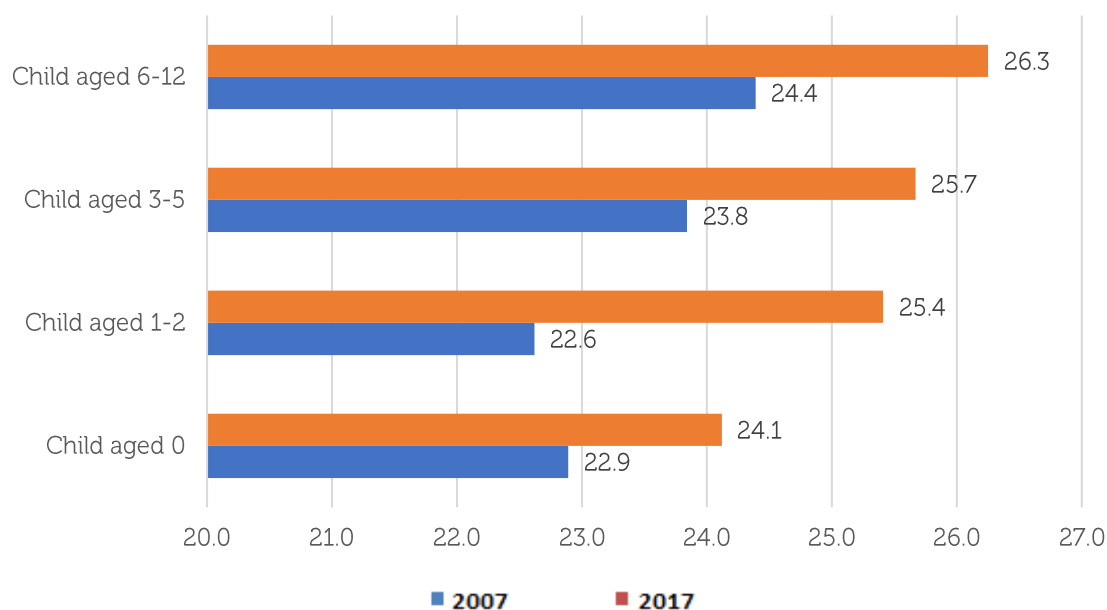


Figure 8. Weekly paid work hours of mothers, by age of youngest child, 2007/2017.
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

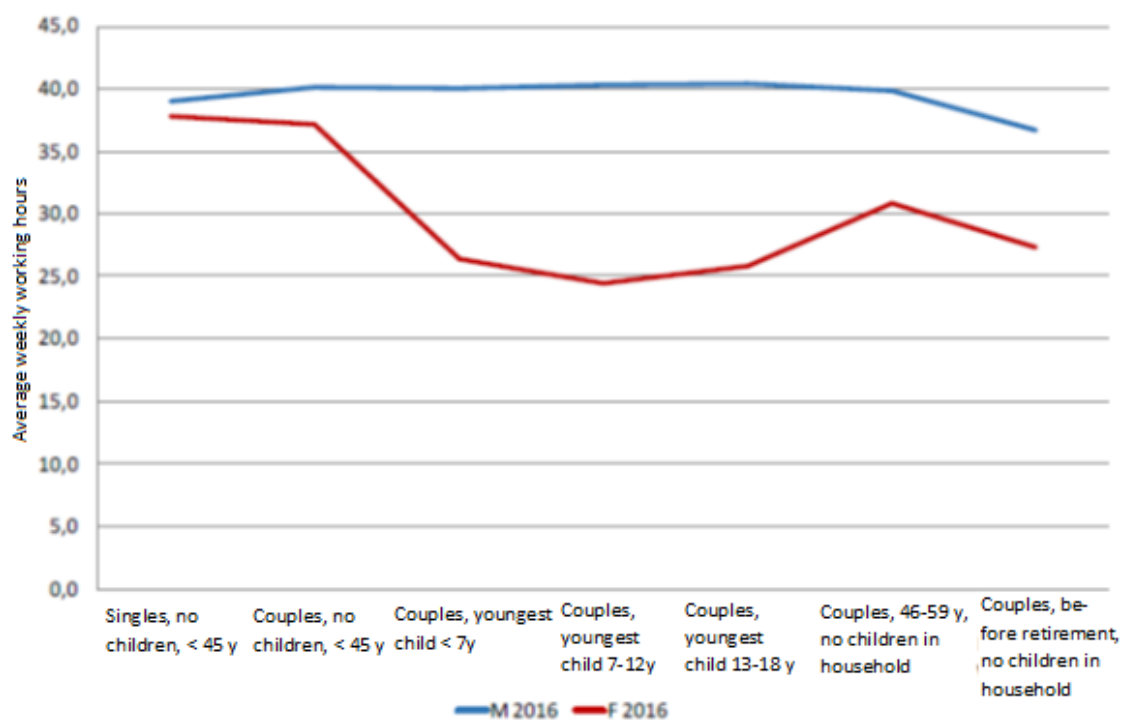


Figure 9. Hours normally worked per week by life stage and gender (F=women), employees (2016). Source: Kümmerling (2018)

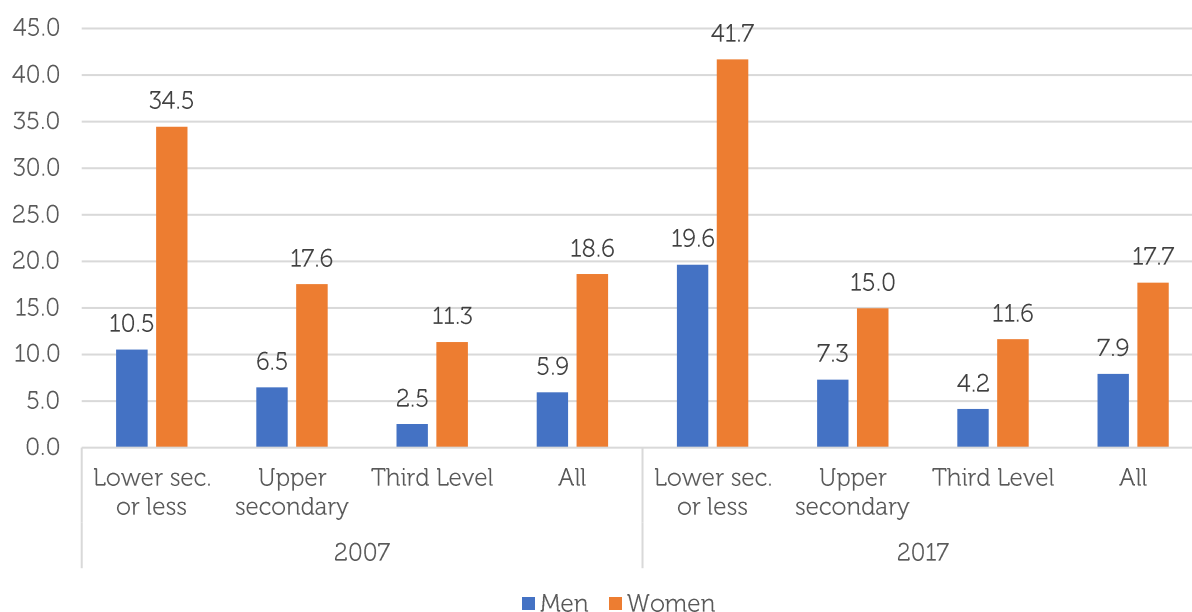


Figure 10. Inactivity rate by gender and education level (%).Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

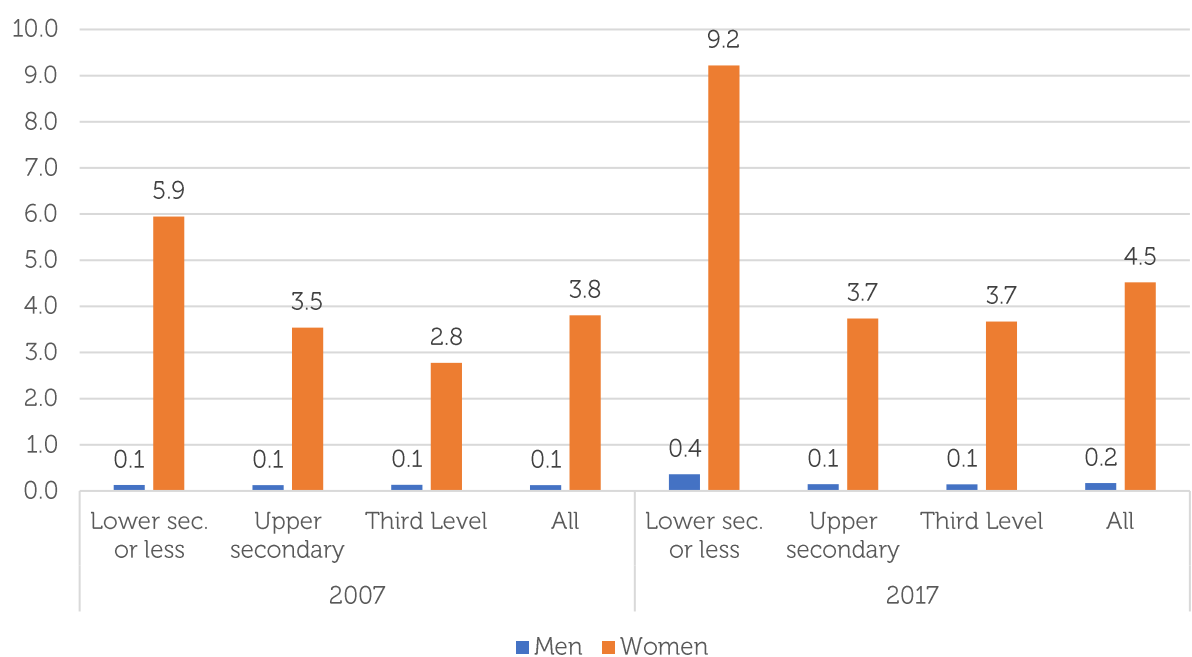
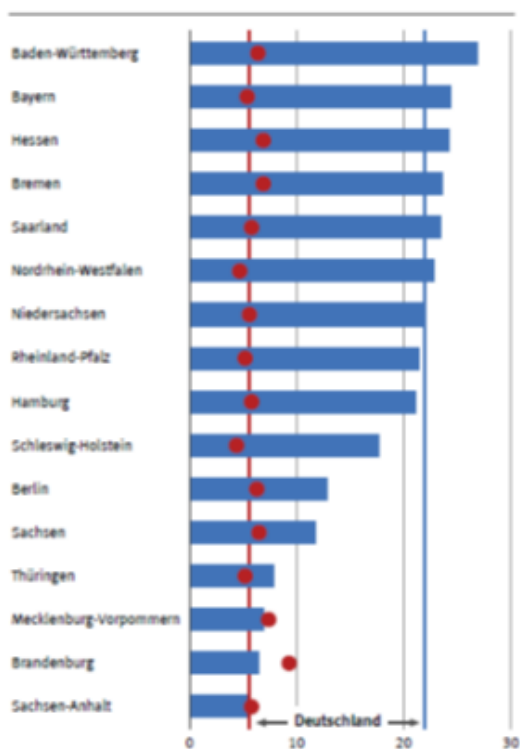


Figure 11. Inactivity rate for family reasons by gender and education level (%).Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

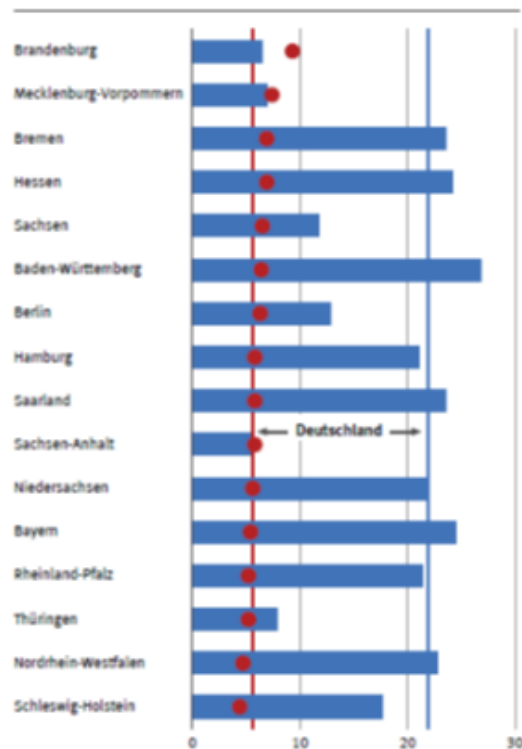
GEO	TIME/AGE	Less than 25 years	From 25 to 34 years	From 35 to 44 years	From 45 to 54 years	From 55 to 64 years	65 years or over
Germany (until 1990 former territory of the FRG)	2014	5,9	11,9	21,9	28,4	27,7	17,0
Spain	2016	7,5	8,5	12,7	16,9	22,5	44,9
Austria	2014	8,7	14,1	22,0	26,7	31,6	31,7
Poland	2016	7,6	9	12	6,9	2,3	-13,7
Slovenia	2017	6,1	7,8	9,4	12	7,5	-3,9
Iceland	2017	0,1	7,3	18,0	22,8	21,3	19,4
Norway	2017	2,1	7,3	14,1	17,8	20,2	19,8

Table 2. Gender pay gap. Source: Structure of Earnings Survey (SES) and national sources.

A) Gender pay gap by federal states, in descending order of *unadjusted* pay gap, in %



B) Gender pay gap by federal states, in descending order of *adjusted* pay gap, in %



■ adjusted pay gap

● unadjusted pay gap

Results of the salary structure survey 2014
Statistisches Bundesamt (2018)

Figure 12. Gender pay gap by German country states

	65 and over	65 to 69	70 to 74	75 and over	Difference in the GGP between those aged 65 to 69 and those aged 75 and over
AT	39%	41%	43%	34%	-8%
BE	31%	37%	28%	28%	-9%
BG	35%	35%	36%	34%	-1%
CY	37%	43%	40%	22%	-21%
CZ	14%	15%	13%	14%	-2%
DE	45%	39%	45%	46%	7%
DK	8%	6%	10%	8%	2%
EE	5%	2%	2%	9%	7%
EL	25%	21%	25%	27%	5%
ES	34%	38%	30%	31%	-7%
FI	27%	26%	28%	25%	-1%
FR	36%	31%	38%	37%	7%
HR	25%	21%	19%	29%	8%
HU	15%	18%	12%	16%	-2%
IE	37%	38%	45%	29%	-9%
IT	33%	39%	35%	28%	-11%
LT	12%	10%	9%	17%	7%
LU	45%	50%	45%	41%	-9%
LV	17%	19%	15%	15%	-4%
MT	18%	23%	18%	17%	-7%
NL	42%	52%	47%	28%	-23%
PL	25%	28%	25%	23%	-5%
PT	31%	33%	41%	22%	-11%
RO	31%	30%	30%	31%	1%
SE	30%	27%	33%	28%	1%
SI	24%	16%	20%	31%	15%
SK	8%	11%	10%	3%	-7%
UK	40%	39%	42%	39%	0%
EU-28	38%	38%	41%	37%	-1%

Source: EIGE's calculation based on EU-SILC micro data

Table 3. Gender pension gaps. Source: Burkevica et al. (2015).

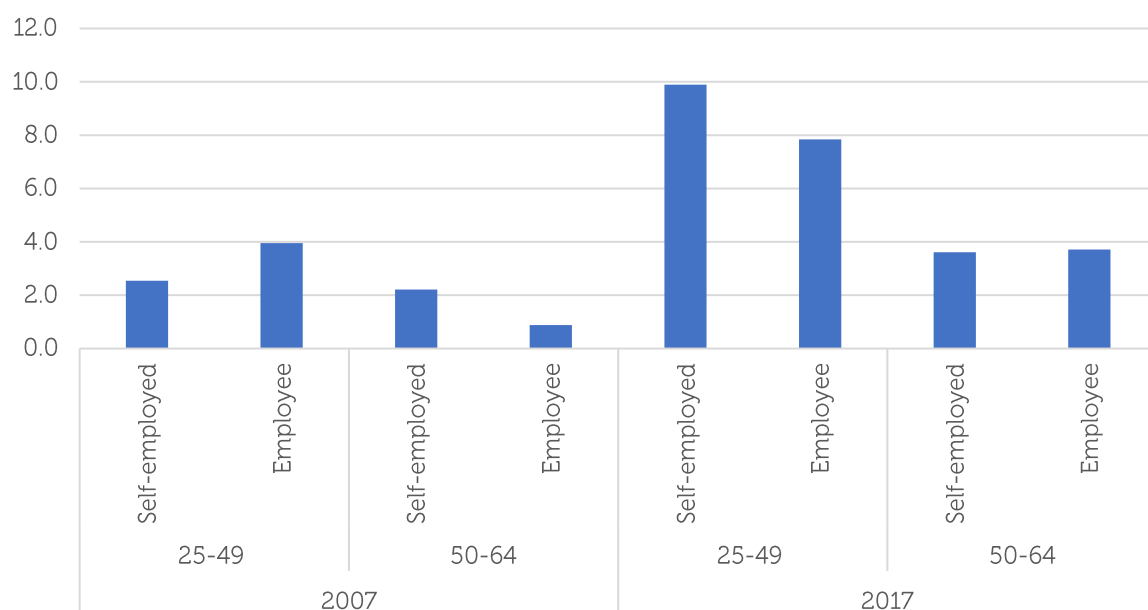


Figure 13. Percentage of male employees who work part-time due to family reasons, 2007/2017. Source: EU-LFS Microdata

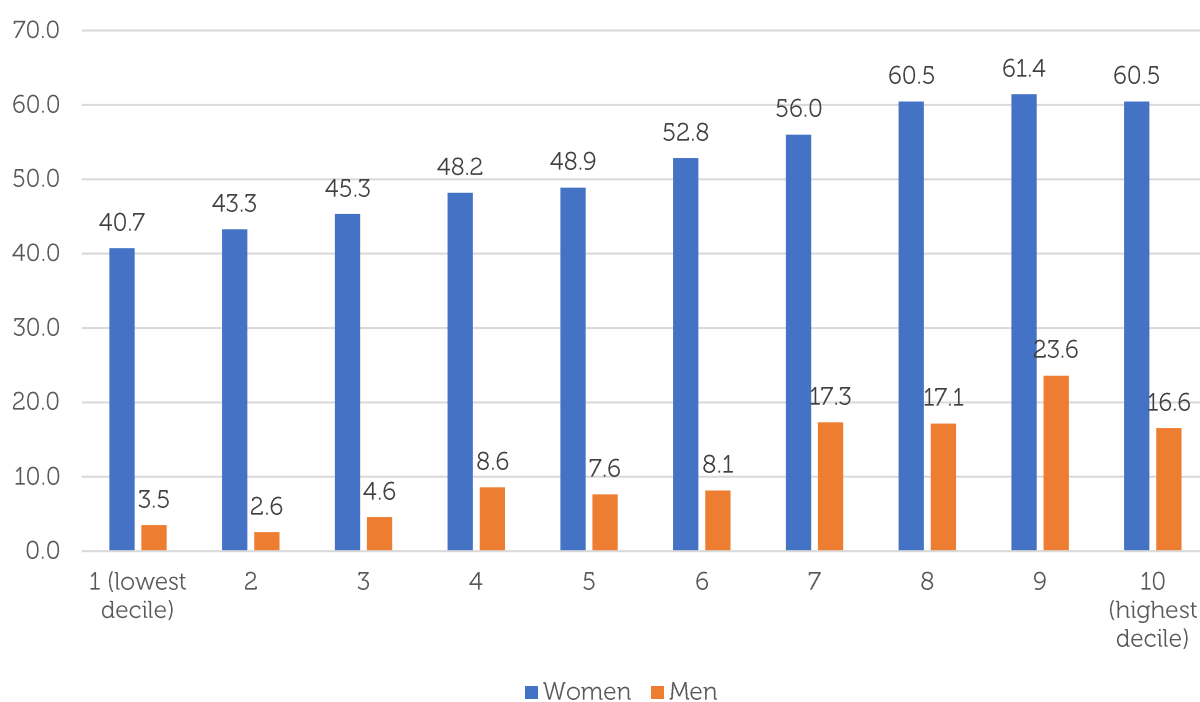


Figure 14. Percentage of part-time employees who work part-time due to family reasons, by gender and income deciles, 2017. Source: EU-LFS Microdata

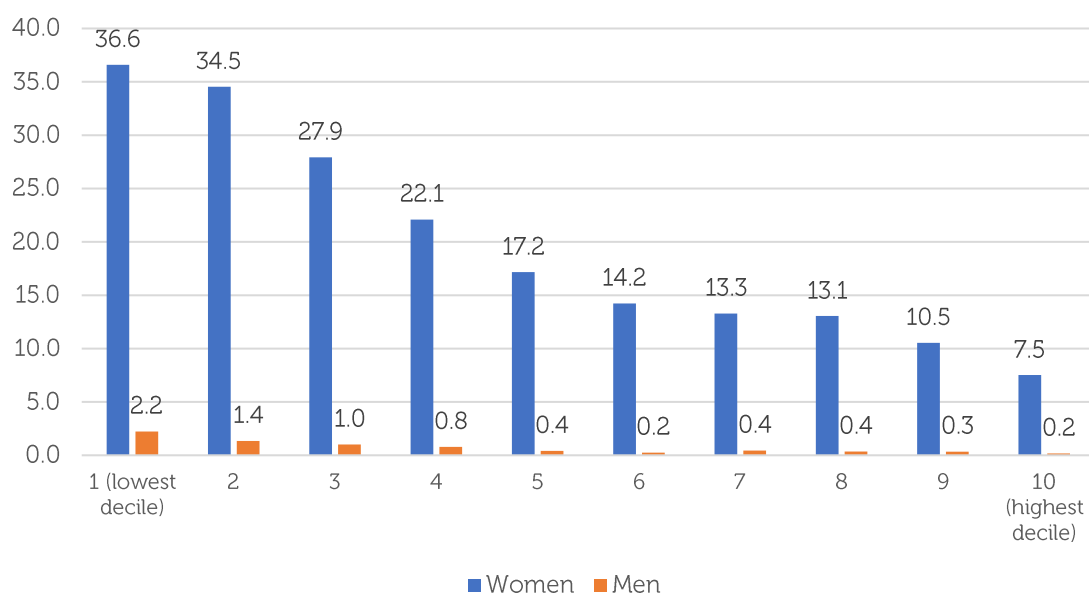


Figure 15. Percentage of employed people who work part-time due to family reasons, by gender and income deciles, 2017. Source: EU-LFS Microdata

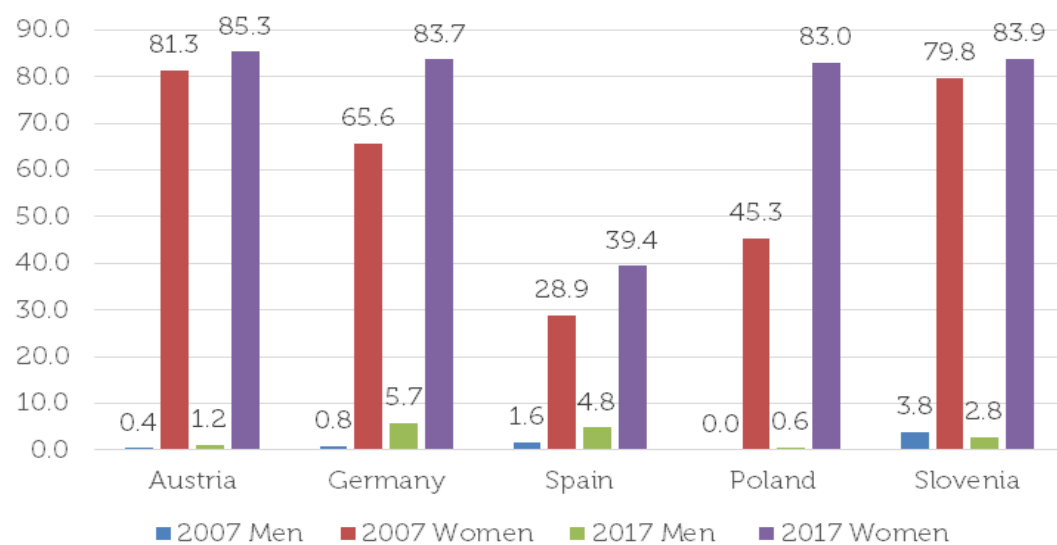


Figure 16. Percentage of employed women and men with child below age 1 on leave. Source: EU-LFS Microdata

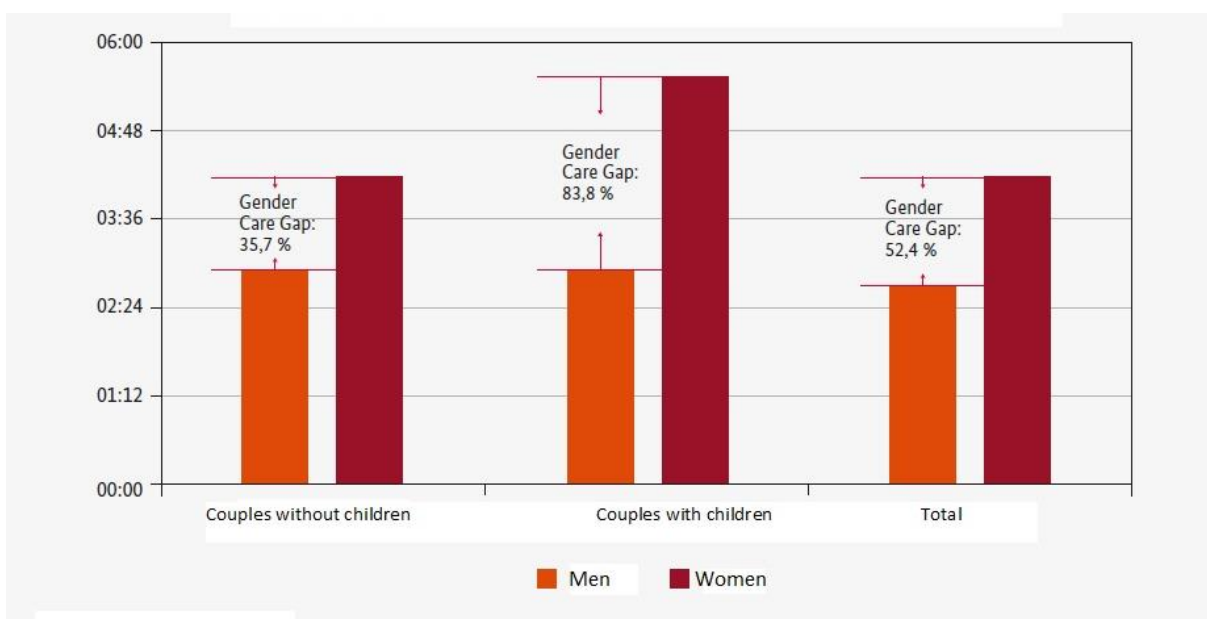


Figure 17. Daily time (hours:minutes) spent by men and women on total unpaid care work in different household types (gender care gap). Source: Bundesregierung (2017)