

Men in care

WORKPLACE SUPPORT FOR CARING MASCULINITIES

Austrian Country Report

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0 Summary and context

The present report summarizes key findings on the issue of gender equality in Austria. It is part of the project Men in Care (MiC) of twelve national organisations from seven different European countries, which will help reduce barriers for men who want to become involved in caring activities. The MiC partner countries are: Spain, Slovenia, Poland, Germany, Norway, Iceland, and Austria. MiC aims to improve workplace conditions to promote men taking caring roles and 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. Therefore, the project team conducted reports on the national contexts of each country.

In terms of gender and welfare regimes (cf. Scambor et al 2013: 7), Austria is characterised by a conservative-corporatist welfare regime with impact on gender relations: The male breadwinner/female co-earner model is strongly represented, with men usually working full-time and women part-time. Children lead to a shift in the division of labour from gender equal models towards additional earner models. Bergmann and Scambor (2014c) state for the countries' situation, *“that the norm of male-dominated work-centeredness is starting to stagger under the impression of the economic crisis and the structural change that has been taking place for a long time.”*

In EU comparison, Austria is at mid-level in terms of gender equality in general, e.g. in regard to gendered segregation of educational and vocational choice patterns, men's participation in unpaid labor, health aspects, or institutionalized structures of work with men & boys.

Nevertheless, gender gaps are significant, as Austria has one of the highest EU gender pay gaps of gross annual income: 37.3% (2017)¹. The segregated school and vocational system (Gärtner & Scambor 2017) contributes to labour market segregation and gender gaps. Labour market activity divides male and female parents. Persons of both genders with lower school education are hit by unemployment much harder (and with increasing probability) than those with higher graduation. In the former segment the gender gap is also higher. Men in Austria perform about one third of unpaid work while 39% of the paid work is done by women and 61% by men². Also the high gap in working time for family reasons (26.1% for employees aged 25-49) can be interpreted as a 'motherhood penalty'.

Men contribute much less than women to private/unpaid sick, elder and childcare. In spite of improved regulations for fathers, the uptake rate of paternal leave is still low- In 2018 only 4.5%

¹ https://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/menschen_und_gesellschaft/soziales/gender-statistik/einkommen/index.html

² Austrian time use data 2008/09,

http://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/menschen_und_gesellschaft/soziales/zeitverwendung/index.html

of the days for parental leave were taken by fathers. However, 32% of the Austrian male employees want to work less. To reach this significant target group and bridge the gap between their attitudes and practices, legal, societal and work-place conditions should improve. Especially in organizations, workplace culture, leave management (also substitutes) and working time and space should be organized in more father friendly ways (Bergmann and Sorger 2017).

1 Gender gaps in work, payment and pensions

The employment rate for both genders increased between 2007 and 2017 (Figure 1.1. and Figure 1.2.). However, we can see a downward trend for parents of both genders on lower levels of graduation (Figure 1.3. and Figure 1.4.). Consistently with other European countries, the Austrian gender gap in employment is hugely different for fathers and mothers (while it is low among men and women without children):

For persons age 25-49 without children, the small gender gap of 3% (in 2007) changed into an inverse gap of -2 (in 2017, compare Figures 1.1. and 1.2.). But while 83% men of these age without children (2017) were employed (women: 85%), the rate increases in men and decreases in women (with a 2017 maximum of 89% in men and 63% in women of persons with children age 1-2). A high influence can be identified (children age 0) in terms of education, where we can see a class gap of 48% (2017) in men of lower secondary level achievement and those of tertiary level (94%). For women, this education/class gap is even wider (26 vs. 81%).

Consistently with other countries, the Austrian inactivity rate of men (age 25-49, Figure 1.5.) is – throughout all educational levels – significantly lower than women’s; however, a convergence is taking place that narrows the gender gap here (gap 2007: 12.2%, 2017: 7.1%).

Also consistently with other countries, inactivity for both genders is inversely proportional to the educational level. For men, the inactivity rate rose from 6.3% to 7.5% (2017); the increase was by far highest in lower education levels (lower secondary or less: went 6.7% up to 20.2%). This can be explained with the crisis of male dominated jobs (mainly in industry, see Scambor et al. 2013).

For women, this gap of inactivity in lower education is rising (especially because women of upper secondary level are significantly more active), while women’s total inactivity rate dropped by 3.9%; for men, the inactivity rate has increased on all levels, by 1.2% in total.

The Austrian gender pay gap is one of the highest in Europe. . Wage tax data of 2017 show that employed women earned 21,996 Euro on average, which was 37.3% less than men (34.730 Euro

gross).³ Statistik Austria investigated the influence of observable factors on the gender pay gap in Austria. Measured in terms of gross hourly earnings in the private sector, the gender pay gap was 22.2% overall. If characteristics such as employment status (Figure 1.8.) sector, occupation, educational level, age, length of service, full-time/part-time, type of employment contract, region and company size are taken into account, the pay gap between women and men is reduced to 13.6%. Taking into account the differences in the extent of employment (part-time) and limiting the comparison to full-time employees throughout the year, the gross annual income of women (36.99 Euro) was still 15.6% lower than that of men (43.84 Euro). But more than half of the gender pay gap remains unexplained even when all the factors mentioned are taken into account.⁴

The Austrian pension gap is slightly above the European median (with the exception of the group 75 and over, which is slightly below the EU median).

The average Gender Pension Gap between the newly awarded retirement pensions for women (2017) and men is 43 percent.⁵ Between 2010 and 2012 the Gender Pension Gap has even increased due to a growth for men's pension and a remaining retirement pension for women (EIGE, 2017).

There are several reasons for the high gap: On average, women have 10 contribution years less than men, largely due to interruptions in their careers for childcare duties. Furthermore the average age at which women and men start old-age pension differs by around 3 years. The Austrian social security system punishes every missing year: in the old-age pensions newly recognised in 2017, only two percent of women and 52 percent of men, reached the 45 years of insurance that guarantee 80 percent of the average monthly income as a pension.⁶ The gender pay gap mentioned above is also contributing heavily to the pension gap. A causal link can also be drawn to a strongly segregated Austrian labour market: Women often work in so-called women's sectors, which are much worse paid than sectors in which men predominate. This also contributes to the gender pay gap.

³ https://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/menschen_und_gesellschaft/soziales/gender-statistik/einkommen/index.html

⁴ https://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/menschen_und_gesellschaft/soziales/gender-statistik/einkommen/index.html

⁵ https://www.ots.at/presseaussendung/OTS_20190729_OTS0023/equal-pension-day-2019-leichte-verbesserung-gegenueber-vorjahr

⁶ https://www.wko.at/service/arbeitsrecht-sozialrecht/Pensionsberechnung_nach_Neurecht_Pensionskonto.html

2 Arrangements to cope with Work Life Balance across the life course

Also in terms of working time reduction for family reasons, Austria shows the highest gender gap in Europe: While in 2017 only 0.7% of all male employees (age 25-64, see Figure 2.1.) do so, it is 19.9% of female employees. The gap is especially high for employees aged 25-49 (men: 0.8%, women: 26.9%), which can be attributed to parenthood and interpreted as a motherhood penalty. The numbers increased for all genders; for men, the share grew by 0.5 on a very low level, and the gender gap widened. Austrian part time rates for family reasons (and especially that of women) is the highest in Europe, and so is the Austrian gender gap.

For men, the status of being employed or self-employed has only little impact on working part-time for family reasons (difference age 25-49: 1.1%; for age 50-64: 0.2%); for women, this difference is much higher: about 10.3% age 25-49, 3.8% for the elders (see Figure 2.2.). While most female part-timers age 25-49 had family reasons (44.6% of the self-employed, 55.1% of the employed), only 7.1% of the self-employed and 8.2% of the employed male part-timers had family reason for part-time (Figure 2.2.).

In terms of income, we can see a clear tendency for both genders (however on quite different levels): the higher the income, the rarer it is that persons work part-time for family reasons. For all female employees (age 25-49), 49.8% of the lowest income decile indicates family-related part-time, while it is only 5.8 of the highest decile. For men of the relevant group, it is 2.0 in the lowest, 0.1% in the highest decile (Figure 2.3.).

3 Gender gaps in care and domestic work

Note: Reliable data in Austria have been collected in 2008/09. These are represented in 3.3. A more recent time budget study was announced but postponed. The Federal minister for women explained this with distortions due to the corona pandemic.⁷

Consistently with other countries in 2010, the Austrian gender gap in household chores is significant. The pattern here is: all chores except construction & repairs is (mainly exceedingly) more often done by women (Figures 3.1., 3.2.). Austrian women perform about 66% of unpaid labor and men 34% (household duties, childcare, care work for adults, and volunteer work); for paid labor numbers are flipped: 39% of paid labor is being performed by women and 61% by men (cf. Statistik Austria 2009, Gärtner & Scambor 2018). If only data of employed persons are

⁷ <https://www.derstandard.at/story/2000119120044/oevp-frauenministerin-raab-eltern-sollen-kindern-gleichberechtigung-vorleben>.

being considered, the share of men engaged in unpaid labor is slightly higher (38%).⁸ Between men in the MiC partner countries, the main difference seems to be the one between Norwegians (who do significantly more) and the others; there are slight differences in the other nation groups (Figures 3.1. and 3.2.). Austrian men seem to participate significantly less in household chores than others, the gender gap of 15.3% is higher than in the other countries represented with data. Consistently, according to a comparison drawn by the Hamburg based research institute Statista (based on Eurostat and Destatis data), the share of adults who cook and/or do household chores on a daily basis shows a visible gender gap.⁹ The share of men in Austria in household chores (28%) is clearly below the EU median (34%), while the gender gap in Austria (55%) is considerably higher than in the EU median (45%). The Austrian time use survey 2008/09 outlined slightly different results:

“From Monday to Sunday, 92.2% of women and 74.3% of men work around the household. This means that the proportion of men who take part in household chores since the beginning of the 1980s, increased from less than a quarter to almost three quarters. The amount of time has remained more or less the same for men, but has decreased somewhat for women: Today women spend around 4 hours a day cooking, washing, cleaning and shopping for men it's almost 1 ½ hours less.” (Time Use Survey 2008/09: 29, translated by authors)

International studies that analyse differences between men and women in informal care show that women still take on long-term care more often than men. Women more often perform intensive personal care and offer care for several family members at the same time (Rimmer, 1983; Russell, 2007); therefore they reduce paid work (Ungerson, 1987; Mooney, 2002). Men more often take on the supporting role, assisting their partner or they enter care role, when caring for their female partner, and less often for other family members. Usually men contribute to the

⁸ Comparative data of the past decades show that the share of men who engage in domestic work has risen. In 1981 only about 40% of men have participated in domestic work, while in 1992 about 68% and 2008/09 almost 78% of men did chores (in comparison the development for women was: 1981: 88%, 1992 and 2008/09: 95%). However, only 33% of the time spent in unpaid labor is done by men; in childcare, they do 31%. Within the different areas of activity connected to childcare we also find significant differences: body hygiene, accompanying/mobility, feeding/nursing, learning/speaking/reading as well as supervising/cuddling are predominantly done by women; only in the area of play and games there is gender balance. There is relatively little literature on the question of participation of men in care for adult persons, be it parents with care needs or other relatives or the partner.

Zulehner & Steinmair-Pösel (2014) have collected data on this aspect. According to their study 42% of men (and 21% of women) cannot even imagine to reduce their paid employment hours for reasons of care, 9% would quit working altogether (25% of women) and the rest of men and women would opt for some sort of part time model if care for a relative would become necessary. Analyzing more questionnaire elements Zulehner and Steinmair-Pösel (2014) conclude that men prefer a ‘mix’ of different caregivers which has to be negotiated. Additionally men are more apt to care for the own partner, than other relatives. “In contrast to women who seem to carry care work as an inner responsibility, men view care work as ‘voluntary obligation’ that is not necessarily part of their identity” (Zulehner & Steinmair-Pösel, 2014: 118).

⁹ <https://de.statista.com/infografik/15857/verteilung-von-hausarbeit-bei-maennern-und-frauen/>

family care capital by establishing the access to informal female caregiver through marriage (Anttonen, 2007).

Looking at informal care in older age groups, studies from Hoffmann & Rodrigues (2009, Figure 3.3.) showed that men are increasingly involved in informal care by age, usually caring for their partners when they are retired. Therefore the increase of life expectancy could lead to an increase of men's involvement in informal care.

4 Men in care

4.1 Parental/paternal leave 2007-2017

Parental leave for fathers was introduced in 1990 in Austria. The entitlement to this applied to the mother or father of the child and was therefore optional. In 2000 an independent claim for fathers was established, but with a first claim for mothers. Since 2005 an equal claim for both parents is valid in Austria. (Cf. Parent Report Austria 2019: 6)

Leave policies have been reformed several times in the last decades. In 2002 the so-called Childcare Benefit Law was enacted. Since 2010 parents can choose between an income dependent and several different flat-rate childcare allowances, which differ in the amount and duration of the parental leave allowance. In 2017 the different childcare allowance opportunities were merged to one flat-rate childcare account. The currently valid model provides that 20% of the parental leave period is reserved for the second partner. One parent is eligible to up to 28 months of childcare allowance. Both parents applying for it, are eligible to up to 36 months. Depending on the period applied for, the childcare allowance ranges between 33.88 € for the shortest and 14.53 € for the longest period.¹⁰ Also, parents that share their leave equal or 60:40 receive a partnership bonus (500€ per parent).

Exact data sets on the uptake rate, the mean duration of parental benefits by fathers or the fathers' overall share of parental leave benefit months are not available for Austria. The gap in reliable official statistics is criticized by several studies in this subject area (cf. Rille-Pfeiffer et al., 2018: 63; or Pointecker et al. 2018: 9). For example, Rille-Pfeiffer et al. in this regard:

“Since the replacement of the Parental leave benefit by the new Childcare benefit in 2002, there is only information on the number of women and men taking Childcare benefit, which is different to the number of persons taking up Parental leave (i.e. parents not on leave receive Childcare

¹⁰ https://wien.arbeiterkammer.at/beratung/berufundfamilie/karenz/Karenz-Regelung.html#heading_Dauer_der_Karenz.

benefit as well as those who are taking leave). There is no way of telling from these figures what proportion of parents take parental leave and it is doubtful whether data on the take-up of Parental leave will be available in the future.” (Rille-Pfeiffer et al., 2018: 62; translated by authors)

The monthly published official statistics suggest that the percentage of participating fathers is relatively low (between 0.6 and 2%), but if one considers that fathers usually choose shorter periods of parental leave it becomes clear, that they also appear less often in the statistics. Looking at fathers who take any period of childcare benefits the numbers are much higher. (Cf. *ibid.*: 63).

Despite the justified criticism of the official statistics, values and their development about take-up rate and used-days by fathers can be found. According to figures by the federal government, 85.380 women and 4.976 men received childcare allowance in October 2017 (childbirth until 28th of February 2017, BMFJ, see Figure 4.1.) The take-up rate has increased from 10% in 2007 (cf. Riesenfelder and Danzer 2017:37) to 19,4% in 2017 (cf. Pointecker et al. 2018: 8).

Considering the different options of parental leave in Austria, men’s take-up rate is 30,66% within the income-dependent childcare allowance and varies between 10,3% and 26,7% within the different flat-rate allowances depending on the duration of the leave (cf. BMFJ 2018).

As mentioned above, fathers in Austria normally choose shorter time periods of allowance than women, therefore it is important to look at the childcare days used by men for a deeper insight into the topic. According to Riesenfelder and Danzer, in 2007 only 4,7% of all childcare days were used by men. 2012 this share increased to 7,7% (cf. Riesenfelder and Danzer: 40).

According to Reidl and Schiffbänker this proportion has increased from 1,7% in 2002 to 4,2% in 2011 (cf. Reidl and Schiffsbänker 2013: 10). In 2020, the Federal Accounting Office (Bundesrechnungshof) called the gender distribution in parental leave “extremely unequal”: Only 4.5% of the days for leave were taken by fathers.¹¹

4.2 Care occupations

According to figures from LFS and Eurostat (Figure 4.2.), the Austrian share of men in different care occupations in 2018 was the same as EU-28 median, 24% (with a drop of 1% from 2008). More differentiated, in the Austrian Boys’ Day Fact Sheet (Pflügl 2019), care occupations in Austria are usually narrowed to child care educators, primary school teachers, and health care employees/nurses. The following figures on male employees are presented:

¹¹ <https://orf.at/stories/3178297/>

- Child care facilities (total in 2016/17): 1441 male employees (2.33%, see Figure 4.3.)
- Health care/home care/nurses (total in 2016 broken down to full time equivalents): 6406 (13.5%)
- Volksschulen/Primary schools (total in 2016/17): 2642 men (8%);

The low share rate of men in caring occupations reflects the highly segregated labour market in Austria; women are – consistently to other European states – usually in occupations with lower income, while men more often chose careers related to science, tech, engineering and math (STEM occupations). The reason for the high level of segregation is threefold: persistent gender stereotypes in society that prescribe particular, gendered paths throughout the life course of individuals; a high level of gender segregation of school types that promotes a gender stereotypical occupational orientation and training; a mind-set within business lines and organizations that works as a barrier against change (cf: Scambor et al., 2019; Gärtner & Scambor 2018; Bergmann et al., 2017; Scambor, 2015)

4.3 Health and self care

According to the Austrian Gender Index,

"(l)ife expectancy has risen steadily since 1960. For those born in 2017, life expectancy was 83.9 years for women and 79.3 years for men. Life expectancy tends to be higher for women than for men. However, this difference has fallen since the 1960s (1960: 7 years) and was 4.6 years in 2017. According to the forecast, it will continue to decrease: to 3.8 years in 2050 and 3.3 years in 2070". (Austrian Gender Index 2018: 17; translated by authors)

Self care in terms of caring practices is important to maintain health. Below, we focus on nutrition, sports/physical activities, substance abuse and violence.

According to WHO definitions, 16% of men and 13% of women are obese (obese or heavily overweight). In absolute figures, 550.000 men and 480.000 women in Austria are affected by obesity. Obesity is an increasingly frequent problem with age. Only a small percentage of the young population (15 to 29 years) is heavily overweight (7%). Obesity is most common among 60- to 75-year-olds: Every fifth person at this age is severely overweight (women: 20%, men 22%). The proportion of heavily overweight men (taking the age effect into account) has risen by 3.3 percentage points since 2006/07, while the prevalence of obesity among women has remained the same.

A report on health in the Austrian state of Styria shows a more differentiated picture; it states that

“... the proportion of overweight and obese people in men and women* increases with increasing age, and this proportion decreases again from the age of 75. 40% of men* and 28% of women* can be classified as overweight on the basis of their self-report of body size and weight, 16% of men* and 12% of women* as obese (...). In terms of educational attainment, it can be seen that people with a master degree or university degree are significantly less likely to be obese (university entrance diploma: 5%; university: 6%) and overweight (university entrance diploma: 27%; university: 26%) than people with lower educational attainment. Among those with compulsory schooling, 26% have a body mass index (BMI) in the area of obesity and 35% have a BMI in the overweight area. Of those who have completed an apprenticeship, 16% are obese and 39% overweight.” (Kirchengast and Scambor, 2019: 23f.; translated by authors)¹²*

A gendered difference in nutrition is visible: The Austrian Health Survey (2014¹³) states that, *“(t)wo out of three women eat fruit every day, more than half of the women eat vegetables every day. Men eat much less fruit and vegetables every day (45% and 40% respectively). However, only 10% of women and 4% of men reach the Ministry of Health's recommendation to eat five portions of fruit and/or vegetables a day.*

Almost every second woman and every second man do at least 150 minutes of sport, fitness or physical activity per week and thus fulfil one of the WHO movement recommendations. The recommendation to strengthen muscles twice a week reaches more men than women (36% and 29% respectively). About a quarter of all persons (21% of Austrian women and 28% of Austrians) meet both movement criteria. Young men (18 to 29 years of age) are particularly active in sports: 43% do sufficient fitness and muscle training in accordance with WHO recommendations. (...)

1.76 million Austrians (every fourth person aged 15 and over) smoke daily, 134.000 more than in 2006/07. This increase is mainly due to the fact that more and more women are reaching for cigarettes every day. The smoking rate for men is currently 27% and for women 22%. Compared to the last survey in 2006/07, this means a decrease of one percentage point in the smoking rate among men and an increase of three percentage points among women. About one fifth of the population not smoking daily was exposed to passive smoking. The greatest exposure was among 15-29 year olds, where almost one in three people was affected by passive smoking.”

(Translated by authors)

¹² Kirchengast, Anna & Elli Scambor (2019). GeFöM - Bedarfe und Handlungsempfehlungen zur Gesundheitsförderung von Männern* in der Steiermark. Ergebnisbericht einer Bedarfsanalyse in Steirischen Regionen. Gefördert vom Land Steiermark/ Gesundheit.

¹³ https://www.statistik.at/web_de/frageboegen/private_haushalte/gesundheitsbefragung/index.html

Violence is also a threat to health and well-being, and also here gendered patterns are visible: *“More than half of all women surveyed (56.8%) and almost two out of three men surveyed (61.4%) in adulthood, aged 16 and over, reported having experienced at least one physical assault. 29.6% of women and 27.9% of men experienced these physical assaults as threatening.”* (Gender Index 2018: 92; translated by authors)

Scambor and Scambor (2015) point out that men not only become perpetrators more frequently, but that many acts of the (mostly male) violence against boys and men (especially in public spaces) are an unreflected normality. They therefore advocate a concept of gender-based violence that also includes such acts.

It can be summarized that – mostly in terms of better nutrition and the prevention of violence, but for some groups also in terms of movement and sports – the care and self-care situation of men in Austria could be improved.

4.4 Community care

According to the Austrian report on volunteer work (Freiwilligenbericht, BMASK 2015), 49% of the male and 43% of the female population are involved in volunteer work (ibid.: 19); in the 2009 report, the respective rates were 47% (men) and 41% (women). The report reasons: *“Men tend to be attracted to volunteer positions that offer functions or opportunities to gain prestige and thereby enhance their own social status.”* (ibid.: 20; translated by authors)

The authors differentiate voluntary work in formal and informal work:

- in formal volunteer work, the proportion is m: 32%, f: 24% (2009: m: 33%, f: 23%)
- in informal volunteer work, the proportion is m: 32%, f: 31% (2009: m: 27%, f: 28%)

On formal volunteer work, the report specifies:

“The participation rate of men compared to women is significantly higher in disaster relief and emergency services (7% versus 2%), in sports (12% versus 5%) and in political honorary offices (4% versus 2%). In the case of women, on the other hand, participation predominates in the church-religious sector (6% versus 4%) and in the social and health sector (5% versus 3%).” (ibid.: 26, see Fig. 4.4)

Similar traits can be seen in informal care: „As with formal volunteering, informal engagement also has some women's and men's specific focuses. For example, if disaster relief is needed or if repairs or crafts services are required, it is mainly men who are involved. Visiting and care services as well as tutoring or housework support, on the other hand, are mainly provided by women. There are no significant gender differences in the other areas of involvement.” (ibid.: 30,

translated by authors; see also Fig. 4.5.)

„Nearly half of the informal volunteers are involved for up to 10 days a year, a quarter for up to 30 days and another quarter for more than 30 days. On average, women spend more days helping their neighbours than men. While only 19 percent of men spend more than 30 days doing community work, the figure for women is around 30 percent.” (ibid.: 32, translated by authors)

In the summary of the 1st report (Städtebund 2009¹⁴), the authors also state that

“(t)he participation rate of persons with children in the household tends to be higher than that without children. For women, this is strongly related to the age of the children. If children under the age of 3 are in the household, the participation rate in both formal and informal voluntary work is significantly lower than for women who do not have small children. Only 17.6% of women with children under the age of 3 engage in formal volunteering, 24.6% in informal volunteering. For men, the presence of children does not make a significant difference in the level of participation. 31.2% of men with children under the age of 3 are involved in formal volunteering.” (ibid.: 12)

5 How can workplaces support Caring Masculinities across the life course?

5.1 Men and working conditions

Results of recent studies on working time and satisfaction indicate that satisfaction with the work situation of male employees is highest in countries with low average working hours and lowest in countries with long average working hours (Scambor, Wojnicka and Bergmann, 2013, 69ff), which can certainly be interpreted as an indication of a desire to turn away from the dictates of the male full-time work culture. Comparative studies show an increasing convergence of working time wishes between men and women and "that the gendered nature of working time is more an expression of institutional and company characteristics (...) which no longer match the needs of employees" (Kümmerling, 2013: 15; translated by the authors). Many men now seem to reject a one-sided employment orientation and increasingly align their identity concepts with other realities of life (e.g. family and care work) (cf. Bergmann, Danzer and Schmatz, 2014; Gärtner, 2012; Kapella, Rille-Pfeiffer et al., 2011; Scambor & Kirchengast 2014; Scambor and Scambor, 2006). At the same time, developments in employment patterns point in the direction of an increasing 'delimitation' of paid labour. The so-called flexible time regime makes it more

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https://www.staedtebund.gv.at/fileadmin/USERDATA/aktuelles/dokumente/freiwilligenjahr_freiwilligenbericht_zusammenfassung.pdf

difficult for men and women to reconcile paid and unpaid work and entails the danger of an intensification of gender-specific role attributions (Böhnisch 2004). This might be an even more significant danger in the current situation in Austria, since the former ÖVP/FPÖ government flexibilized working regulations as of October 2018: daily working hours were raised from a maximum of 10 to 12; weekly working hours from a maximum of 50 to 60.¹⁵

What men/fathers want

According to EWCS data of 2015, 32% of the Austrian men want to work less (25% of the women want this, see Fig. 5.1.). This is slightly higher than the median of all MiC partner countries, and it can be seen as a clear request to offer measures for this third of men.

A study in Austria in the year 2014, which examined the possibilities of work-family balance for women and men with children under the age of 12 (cf. Bergmann, Danzer and Schmatz, 2014) illustrated enormous working time requirements for full-time working fathers. Almost half of the fathers surveyed (full-time) state that they regularly work overtime and extra hours (mainly based on all-in clauses or flat rates for overtime). Excessively long working hours result in significant dissatisfaction with possibilities for reconciliation. In male-dominated production sectors, the greatest need for change is registered.

At the same time, the study shows the desire of many fathers to balance working time and childcare well, a desire that is realized through some strategies (care leave, working time flexibility with spontaneous requirements of childcare):

"Here (...) the results of the survey can be used to support the observation expressed in recent studies that it is not so much the (male) employees who allegedly do not want to reconcile but are often the traditional industry-specific structures that prevent this from happening"
(Bergmann, Danzer and Schmatz, 2014: 74, translated by authors).

What organizations can do

In general, measures are recommended that widen the range of working times and spaces in order to enable employees, and men in particular, to better balance paid and unpaid care work. These usually include leave arrangements and working time reductions, but they can comprise a diversity of measures and ideas that should be combined; moreover, flexibility measures should

¹⁵ <https://www.wko.at/service/arbeitsrecht-sozialrecht/arbeitszeit-regelungen-alt-neu-vergleich.html>

reflect that a maximum sovereignty in working time and space is important for work life balance measures (see Huesmann & Gärtner 2015).

Bergmann and Sorger (2017) listed a couple of measures for father-friendly companies in Austria, that can serve as a good model:

„*Father-friendly company culture:*

- *Positive communication and anchoring of the topic in the existing communication and exchange structures*
- *a fixed component within the framework of employee conversations, Jour-Fixe and/or team meetings*
- *Superiors take a stand on the issue of compatibility and profession and report on their own experiences.*
- *Subject of the works council/staff representation*
- *Visibility of men on parental leave and part-time parental leave increase by: Short portraits, via intranet, works council mailings, etc.*
- *Mentor system: Men with parental leave or part-time parental leave experience will be available as contact persons*

Parental leave management:

- *(...) Positive visualization of men on maternity leave on all levels: Management level, management functions, different groups of employees*
- *Active communication via various internal media, works council, etc. - invitation to joint planning*
- *Active information management: legal framework conditions and operational possibilities*
- *Creation of representation arrangements, e.g. substitute staff etc., to allow longer absences.*

Father-friendly working hours:

- *Survey of the working time needs of all employees*
- *Adapting working hours to the care needs of employees, men and women alike*
- *Extension of reconciliation-friendly working hours such as flexitime models to as many employees as possible*
- *Adaptation of shift models along the reconciliation needs of employees*
- *General consideration of given time targets by school, kindergarten etc.” (ibid.: 4, translated by authors)*

These measures should be widened and reflected towards men who care for sick and elderly.
Moreover, self-care should be implemented (or integrated in company cultures) thoroughly.

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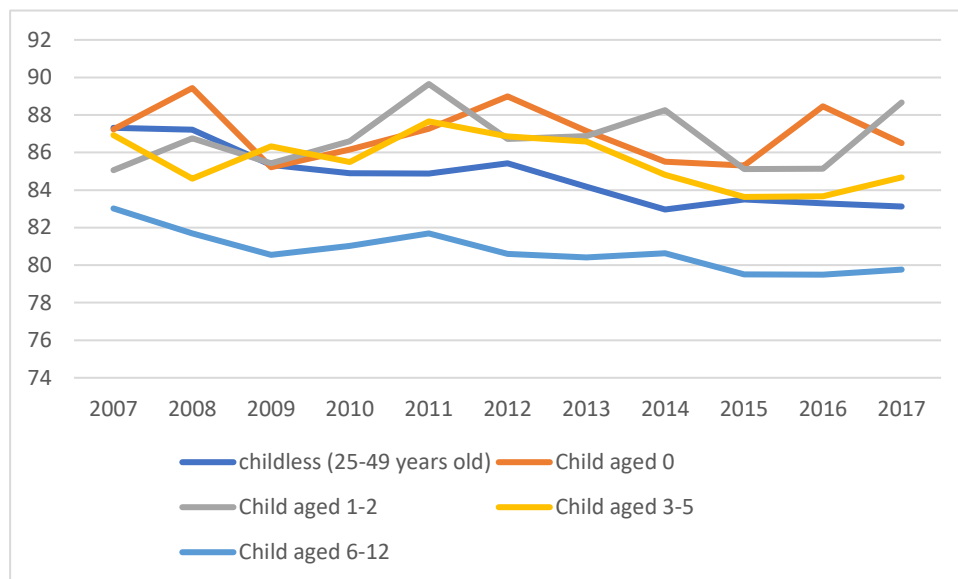
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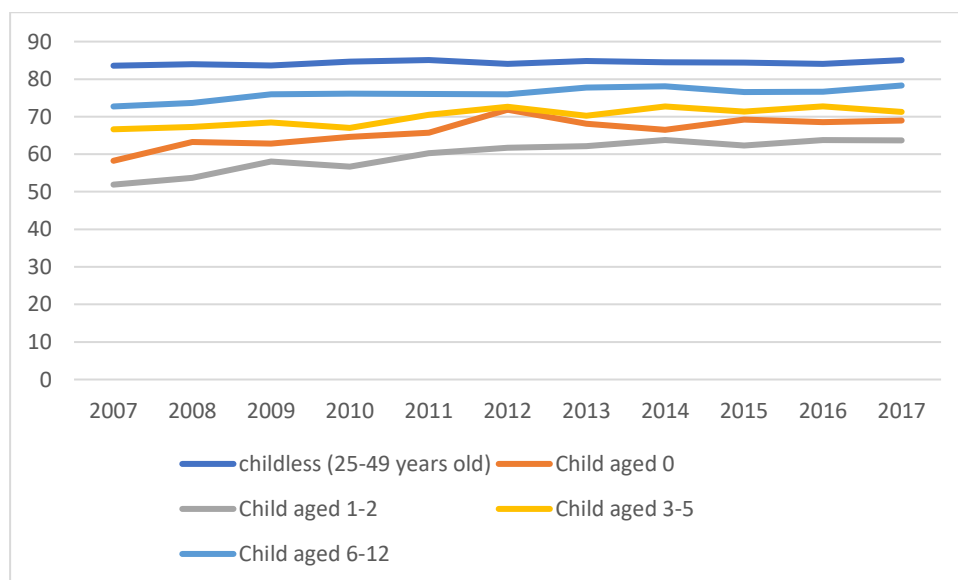
7 Annex

Figure 1.1. Employment rates of Men, 2007-17 by age of child



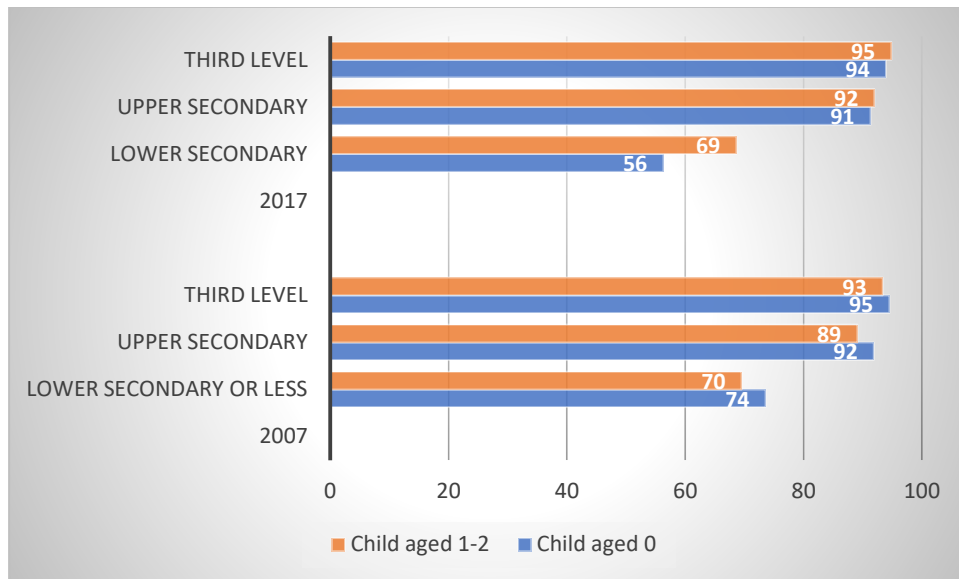
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 1.2. Employment rates of Women, 2007-17 by age of child



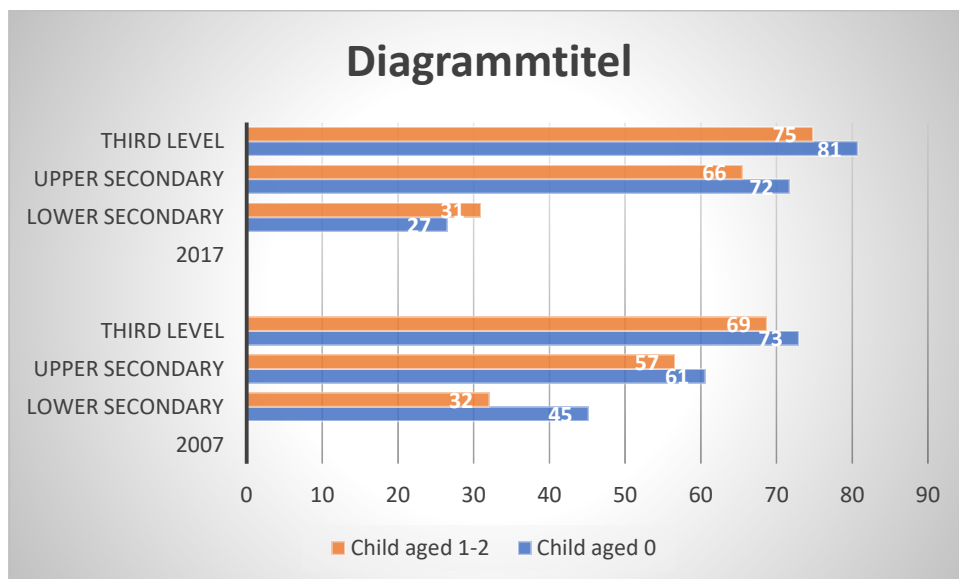
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 1.3. Employment rates of fathers, 2007-17 by age of child and education



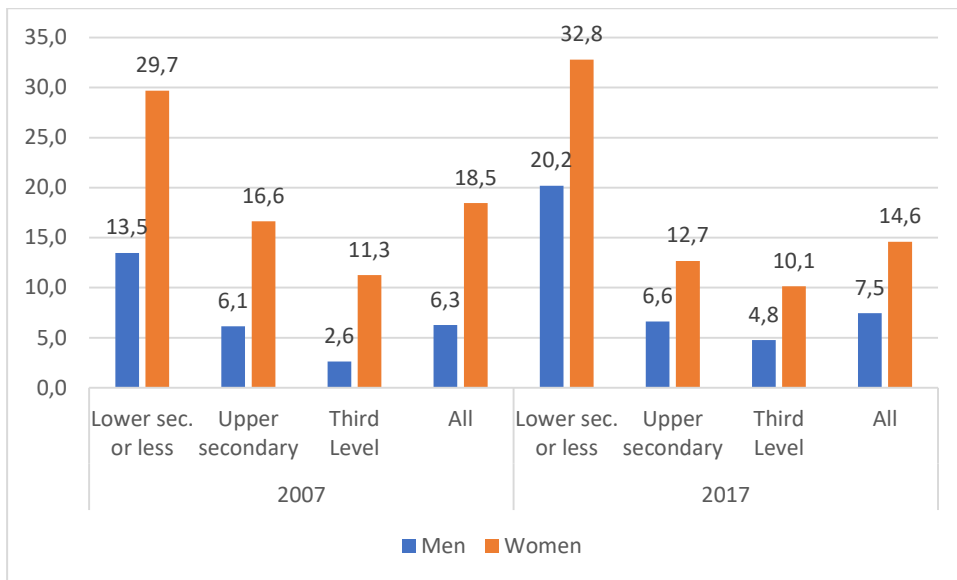
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 1.4. Employment rates of mothers, 2007-17 by age of child and education



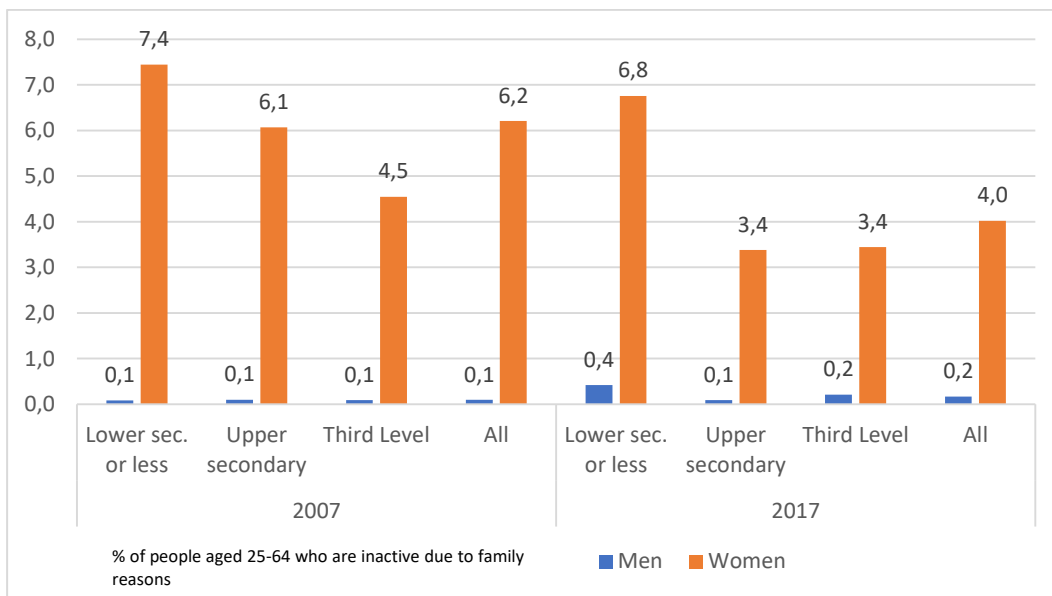
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 1.5. Inactivity rates for family reasons 2007/2017 by gender and educational level



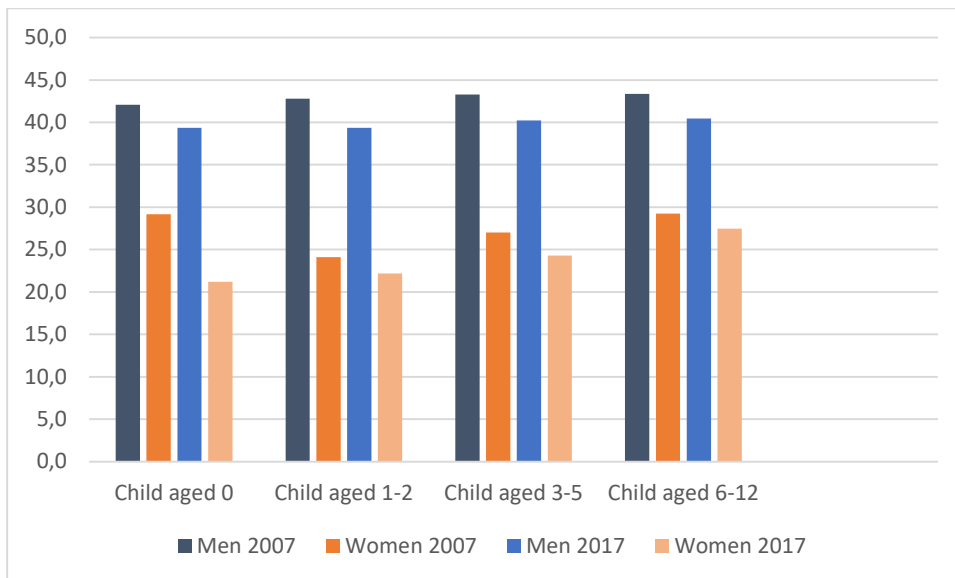
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 1.6. Inactivity for family reasons 2007/2017 by gender and education level



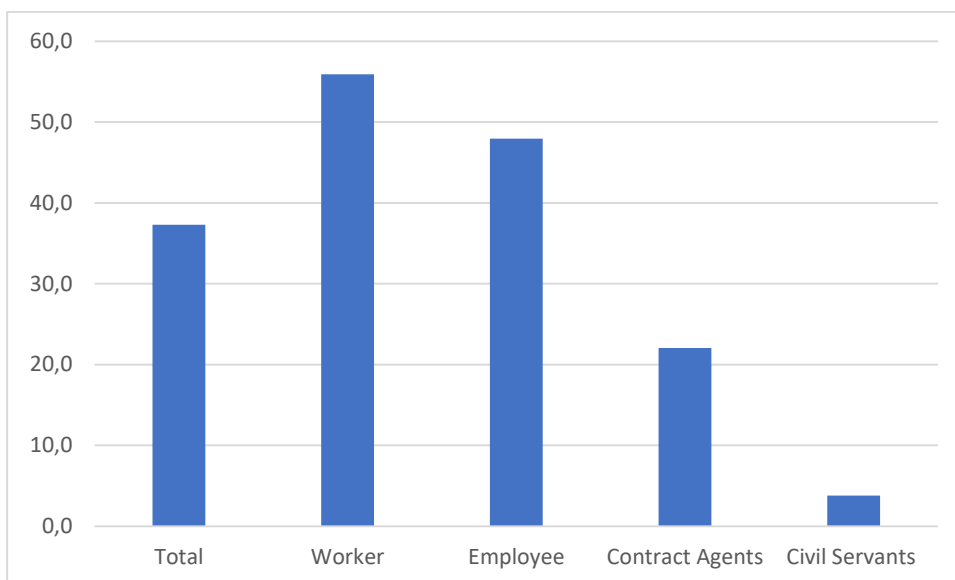
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 1.7. Weekly paid work hours of parents, 2007/2017 by gender and age of child



Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

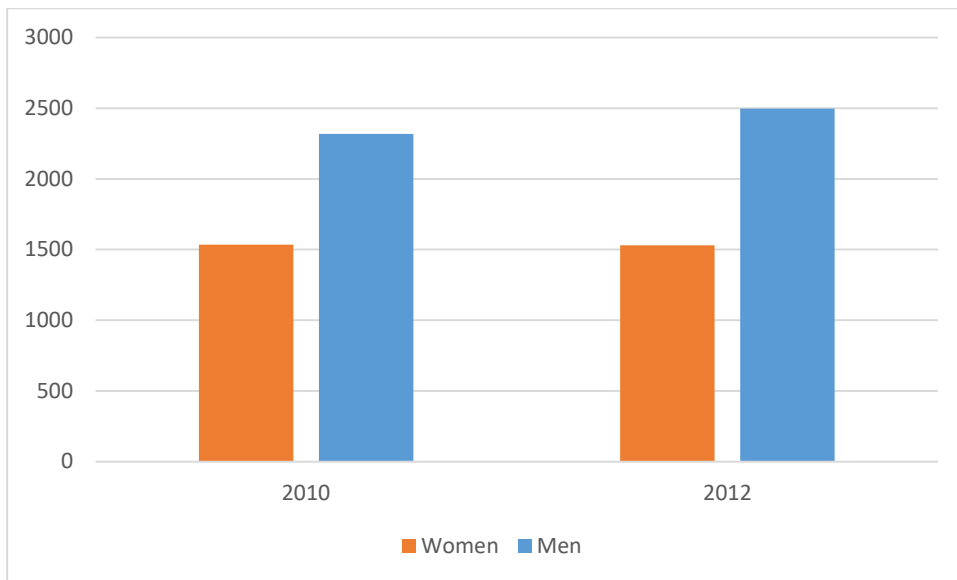
Figure 1.8. Unadjusted Gender Pay Gap, gross yearly income (Median), Austria, 2017



Source: Statistik Austria;

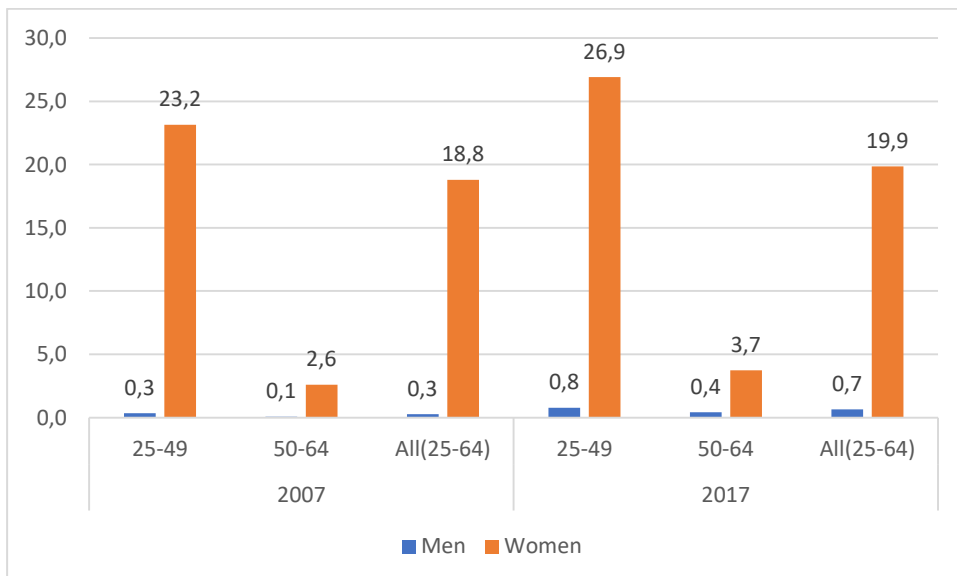
https://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/menschen_und_gesellschaft/soziales/gender-statistik/einkommen/index.html

Figure 1.9. Mean monthly pension (EUR), Gender, 2010-2012, Austria



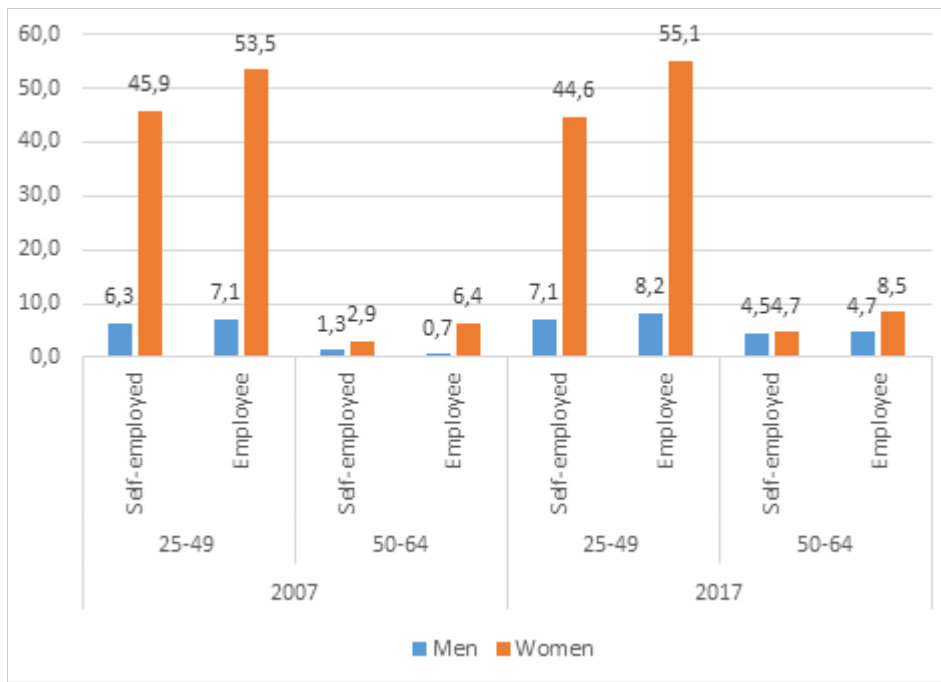
Source: EIGE's calculation based on SILC micro data.

Figure 2.1. Percentage of employees working with a part-time contract due to family reasons, 2007/2017 by gender



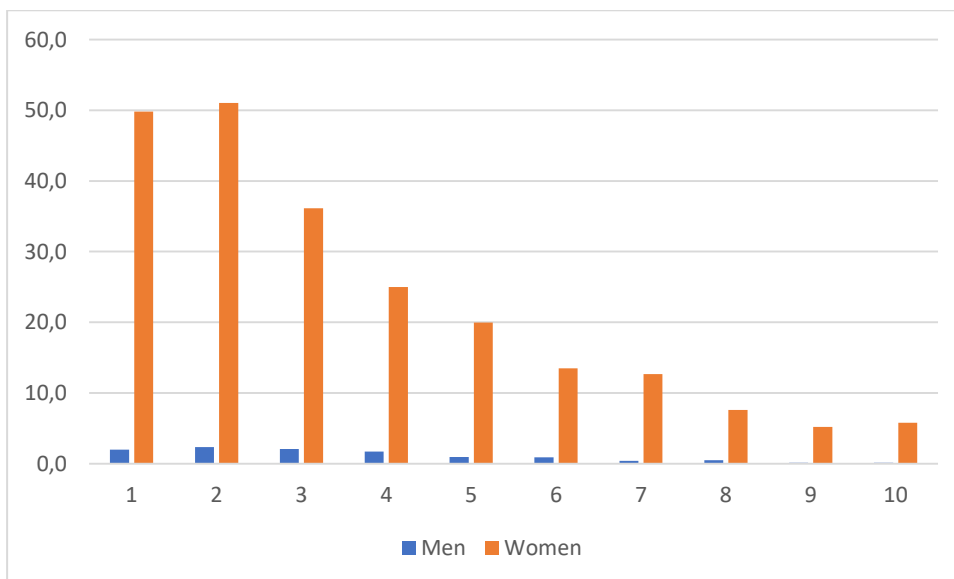
Source: EU-LFS Microdata

Figure 2.2. Part-time work for family reasons by age, professional status and gender related to employed people, 2007/2017



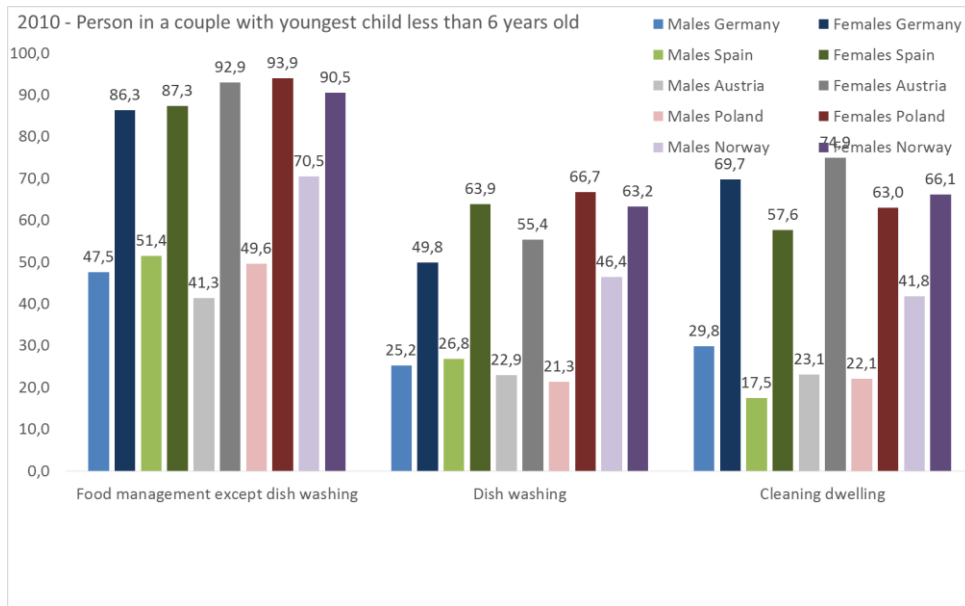
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 2.3. Part-time work for family reasons by gender and income deciles (1= lowest, 10 = highest income group), % of employed persons, 2016



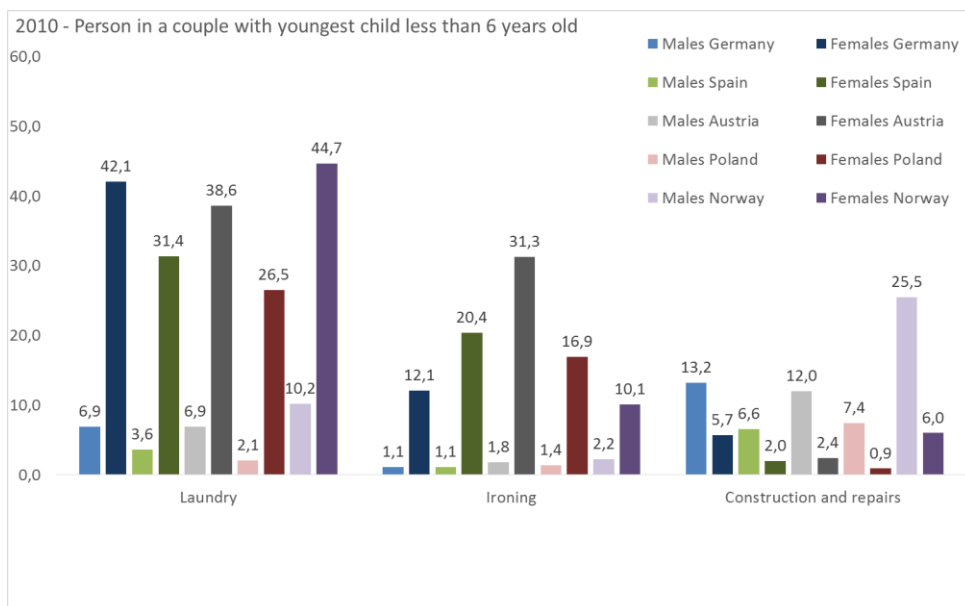
Source: EU-LFS Microdata.

Figure 3.1. Household chores by women and men in couples, with children under 6 years, 2010



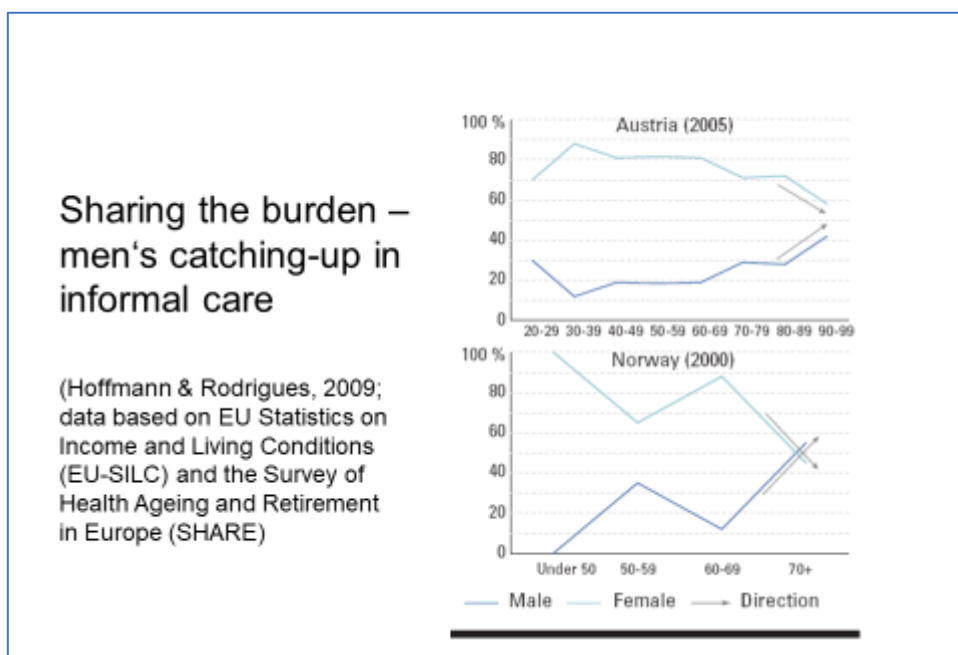
Source: National time use surveys and Eurostat data

Figure 3.2. Household chores by women and men in couples, with children under 6 years, 2010



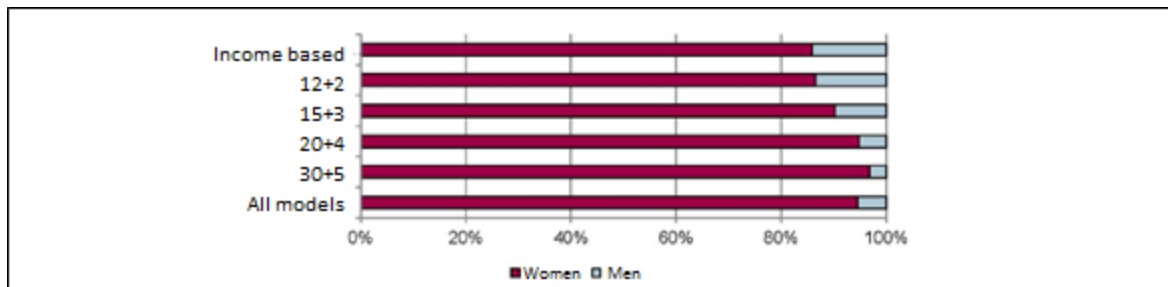
Source: National time use surveys and Eurostat data

Figure 3.3.: Men providing informal care, Austria and Norway, 2005 and 2000



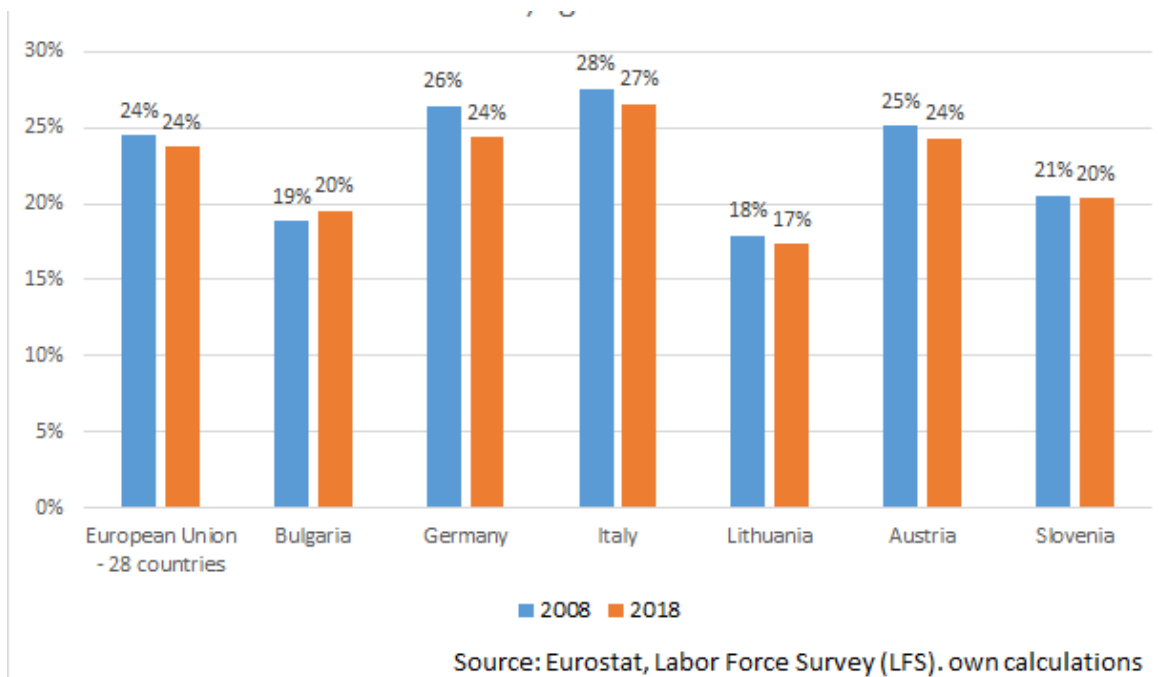
Source: Huber, Rodrigues, Hoffmann, Gasior and Marin (2009): 58.

Figure 4.1.: 85.380 women and 4.976 men have childcare allowance in October 2017 (childbirth until 28th of February 2017) (BMFJ)



Source: Gender Index 2017. <https://www.frauen-familien-jugend.bka.gv.at/frauen/gender-mainstreaming-budgeting/gender-daten.html>

Figure 4.2.: Share of men among “care workers” by country, in %, 2008 and 2018, ager 15-64



Source: Holtermann et al. (2019), based on Eurostat and LFS data

Figure 4.3.: Men in different child care facilities in Austria, 2016/17

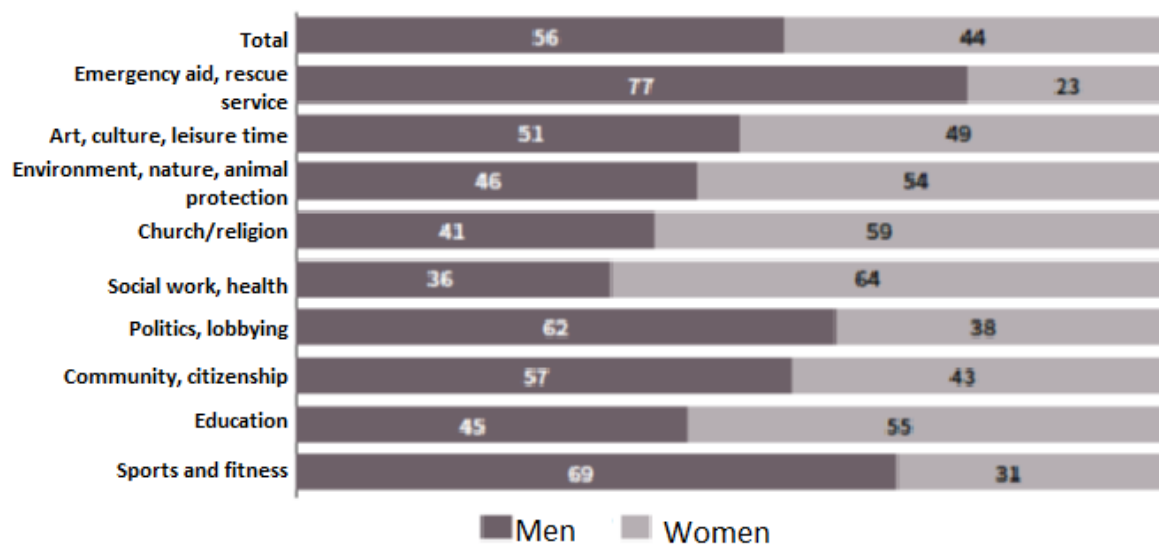
Child care facilities 2016/17

	total	Staff			
		women		men	
Crèches	10,119	9,924	98.07%	195	1.3%
Kindergartens	36,067	35,437	98.25%	630	1.75%
After school care	7,315	6920	94.6%	395	5.4%
Mixed-age care facilities	8376	8155	97.36%	221	2.64%
Child care facilities total	61,877	60,436	97.67%	1441	2.33%

Source:

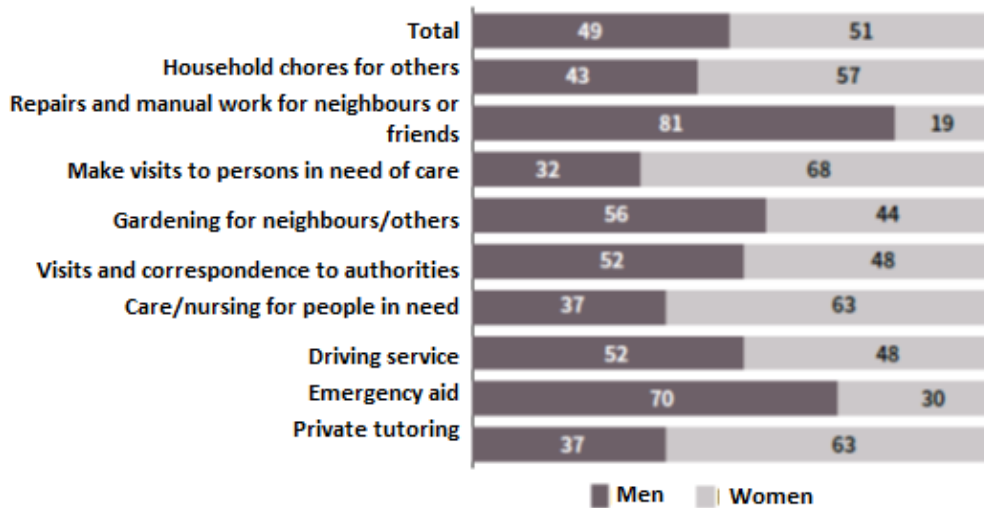
https://www.boysday.at/cms/boysday/attachments/9/5/7/CH3889/CMS1466600366941/factsheet_bd-berufe_mp_v1_19-01-09.pdf

Figure 4.4.: Structure of Formal Volunteer Work by Gender



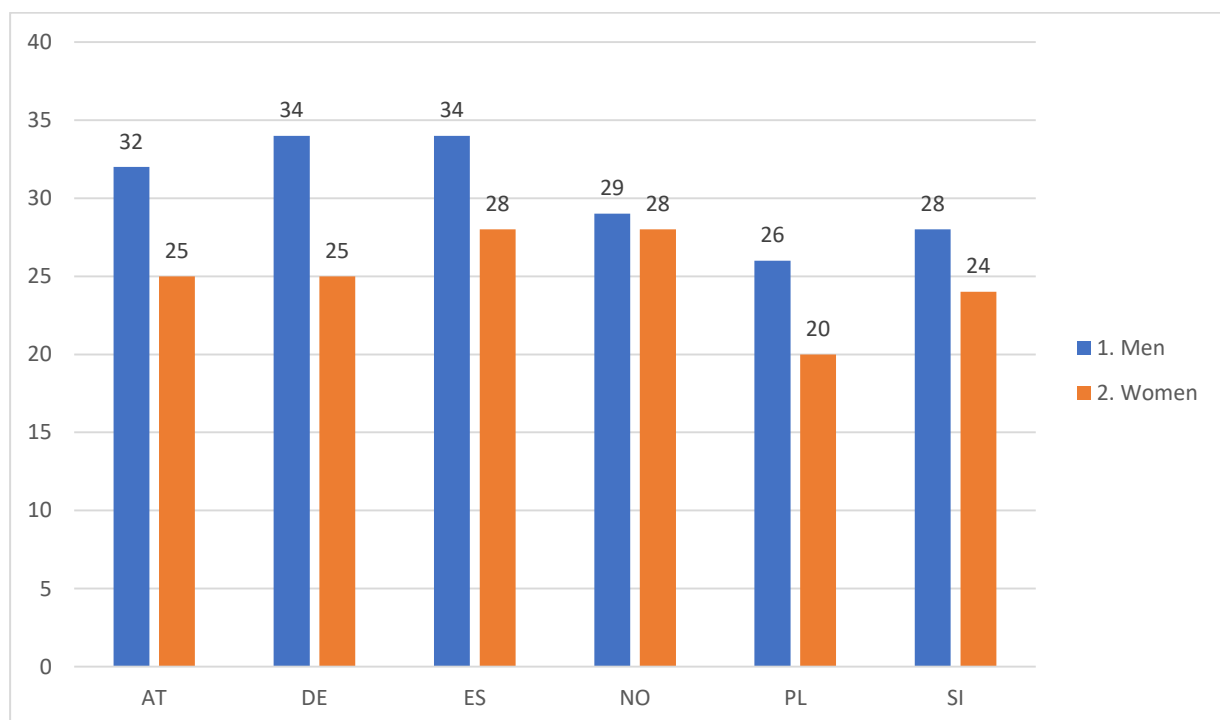
Source: Freiwilligenbericht, BMASK 2015: 27

Figure 4.5.: Structure of Informal Volunteer Work by Gender



Source: Freiwilligenbericht, BMASK 2015: 32

Figure 5.1.: Percentage of working people who would like to work less than currently, by gender



Source: EWCS 2015