Manual for
Gender Sensitive
Vocational Guidance

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Employment and Training Corporation
Head Office, Ħal Far
Malta
Tel: (+356) 222 01 124
Fax: (+356) 222 01 803
Email: annab@etc.org.mt
www.etc.org.mt

For further information please contact
Ms Anna Borg, Senior Executive, Gender Issues
Employment and Training Corporation

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Foreword

Towards offering Equal Opportunities

John Camilleri, CEO, ETC

Professionals with Career Guidance responsibilities who are truly concerned about the long-term well-being of their clients need to be knowledgeable about the effects of gender, particularly its impact on the vocational development of girls and boys.

Research shows that gendered roles still largely shape the vocational development of both sexes and unless assumptions about gender roles are challenged they risk being perpetuated. For this reason ETC felt it necessary to produce this manual which will help teachers to check and move away from biases based on traditional roles which can limit choices and hamper aspirations.

In order to ensure that our country offers equal opportunities to both girls and boys and taps the human talent and resources of all, we must ensure that every child is enabled to choose among opportunities on the basis of interest and ability rather than gender. In this manual we touch upon how gender impacts on our development, and how gender tends to shape our expectations of ourselves and of others throughout our life in the family, at school and at work. We also provide facts about the local labour market that may serve to provoke thought, as well as guidelines for practical use.

ETC hopes that this Manual for Gender Sensitive Vocational Guidance will be a useful tool which can be consulted and used time and time again by those who believe in the potential of persons without gender impositions and limitations.

Manual for Gender Sensitive Vocational Guidance

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1.0

Preamble

Why should we be concerned about gender? Does it matter that people are stratified into roles according to their sex? Is education reinforcing these stereotypes? What are the consequences when a person tries to find a job later on in life? Does this affect the pay one gets? Is it for life? What are the implications? How much does our sex influence the choices we make and what is the effect of gender? What differences can we make to all this?
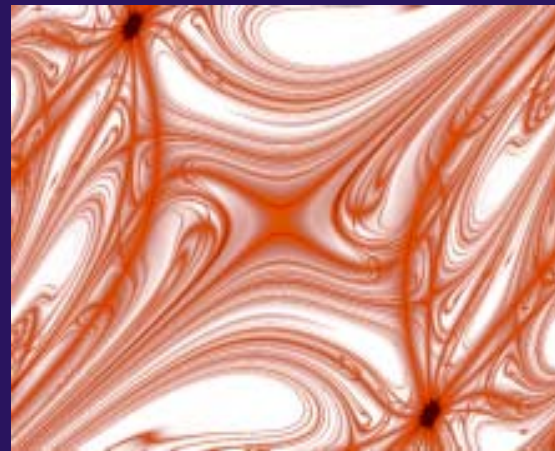
What is the difference between gender and sex?

Gender refers to the social differences between women and men that are learned, that have wide variations within and between cultures, and that are changeable over time. The terms sex on the other hand indicates the biologically determined differences between women and men that are universal.

Men are socialised to identify themselves as boys and men within a discourse of *masculinity* and females as girls and women within a discourse of *femininity.* These polar positions affect how we think and assign *roles* that are considered appropriate to their gendered *position* in their society. Sociology has provided us with *empirical* evidence that shows us how certain problems have emerged as a result of such polarised gender assumptions

The scholar and historian Gerda Lerner defines gender as the "The costume, a mask, a straightjacket in which men and women dance their unequal dance" (1986:238). Gender thus leads to inequalities and discrimination and this is the main reason why we should be concerned with gender. What does this mean in reality? Should we strive for women and men to be the same? Not at all, but through our work as educators and counsellors we should ensure that we bring out the full potential of every person regardless of their sex thus freeing them of the masks and straightjackets that we often endure and which we often accept without asking too many questions.

Does it matter if boys do different jobs from girls and what are the implications?

It is important that both boys and girls have the opportunity to use their potential, based on their talents and interests rather than their gender. Girls and boys should be offered the same opportunities and be able to pursue whatever career most interests them, whether it is science or social work, engineering or nursing, IT or hairdressing. Both should be given the chance to set up their own business.

If we do not offer the same opportunities to girls and boys we are discriminating by treating people differently simply because of their sex and not their abilities. Gender-based discrimination results in and reinforces inequalities and this leads to the waste of human talent and resources which has a detrimental effect on productivity, competitiveness the economy and not least, the well being of the person.

The elimination of discrimination and inequalities is essential if all individuals irrespective of their sex are to choose freely the direction of their professional paths and working lives and to develop fully their talents and capabilities and to be rewarded according to merit. This manual aims to contribute to this.

Gender inequality and discrimination

As with all inequalities there is a price to pay. The International Labour Organisation claims that literally millions of people in the world are denied jobs, confined to certain occupations or offered lower pay, amongst other things, simply because of their sex and not their abilities.

In the Global Report on Fundamental Principles and Rights of Work (ILO, 2003:XI) the International Labour Organisation claims that "Individuals who face discrimination in access to a job tend to continue experiencing discrimination while in the job, in a vicious cycle of cumulative disadvantage" It is argued that discrimination at work does not result just from isolated acts of an employer or a worker but rather that labour market processes, practices and institutions either generate and reinforce, or break the cycle of discrimination. Therefore persons offering vocational guidance and counselling have an important role in these labour market processes and have to ensure that they do not contribute to, or perpetuate, the vicious cycle of cumulative disadvantage.

On a global basis, the face of poverty is overwhelmingly female. An estimated 70% of people who live in extreme poverty (those with less than US$1 per day) are women and girls. Women own less than one-hundredth of the world's land and property; girls account for two thirds of children without primary education; and only nine countries met the UN target to have 30% female senior decision-makers in place by 1995. (Stocking, 2002:1).

The position of women and men in the labour market

More and more women are remaining in the labour market and this has led to increased acceptance of women in the workforce. However, this is often in addition to their role in the family. Men's roles have not undergone comparable changes and remain cantered on the role of breadwinner. Brannen (1999:439) claims that this expectation often leaves men who want to be involved in household work and childcare without social support for their choice.

According to the June 2003 Labour Force Survey, in Malta only 33.4% of the female population aged between 15 and 65 are actually in employment. The male employment rate stands at 75.6%, (NSO, 2003). In our society most women feel committed to do the household chores and child rearing for which they are not remunerated, often giving up their rights to a pension and to their own financial independence. (Scerri and Sciberras, 2003:13)

The Nature/Nurture Debate

Are all men strong and muscular and are all women frail and weak? Are all men suitable for construction work and women for clerical work? The answer is definitely no. There are women who are taller and stronger than some men, while some men are stronger than other men. While men and women are not homogeneous groups, we seem to generalise and assume that certain jobs are appropriate to women and others are more appropriate to men.

Our generalisations normally originate from assumptions we make based on physical strength (nature) or else through our socialisation process (nurture) wherein we tend to repeat patterns that we learn from those around us. Is it true that women are more caring? Is this a biological factor imprinted in our genes? Or is this a learned behaviour which becomes a norm over the years? Which behaviours can be put down as the result of socialisation and circumstances, of political and religious ideologies, of genes and evolution?

Feminist scholars have disputed the biological basis of behavioural differences between women and men, proposing that it is social experiences that produce differences in behaviour (Brannen, 1999:449). Historical and cross-cultural studies show that both females and males are capable of participating in manual and knowledge work, as well as in caring.

Difference in Ability

In the past physical strength made a great deal of difference for a variety of activities especially in the world of paid employment. Today, few positions require physical strength although the legacy of this position persists. Gender is a very poor predictor of mental abilities and in both verbal and mathematical abilities, only small gender differences exist. Brannen claims: "Despite the widespread belief that men have superior mathematical and women superior verbal abilities, the technique of meta-analysis has revealed that gender differences are small" (1999:450).

A brief historical outline of women, men and work

Giddens (1997:318) claims that for the vast majority of the population in pre-industrial societies, productive activities and the activities of the household were not separate. In Malta, several authors have noted the diversity of women's work before the Industrial Revolution. Contrary to the belief that working women are a new phenomenon, during the 18th century, women, including married, carried out paid work. They contributed to the household economies, like agriculture, that formed the backbone of 18th century Malta. Women worked and managed spinning and weaving in the cotton industry, and were employers of other women. They worked as servants, porters, cleaners, millers, bakers, seamstresses, actresses and shop owners.

Between 1788-96, 24% of shop licences were granted to women (Vella, 1994, in Darmanin, 1997:197). In the 18th and 19th century, women were involved in sorting stone and coal ballast in the harbour side, in the carrying of heavy loads in other enterprises, and in the beating of screed on flat roofs. Women made up 96% of the 9,000 workers in the spinning and weaving industry (Lanfranco, 1995, in Darmanin 1997:197). They also worked as beaters and dyers in small manufacturing firms and in household production both for domestic and for market consumption (Cassar in Darmanin, 1997:197).

However, with the onset of the industrial revolution, division of labour became the norm where tasks were segmented and several people were involved in the making of a single product. Segmentation also took the form of segregation of the sexes, where males were assigned work outside the home for wages, in accordance to the principle of the male as breadwinner. Females were assigned unpaid work in the home to do the necessary caring, to support male labour. Females were allowed to participate in the labour market as long as they were not married. Once married, a woman was dedicated to home and family and any work she did outside the home was either voluntary or in the informal economy.

The division of labour

During the Second World War women were called to work when men were away. Women were regarded as the 'reserve army' filling in for men when they were not available and then withdrawn from the labour market as soon as these returned. They were simply used to keep the economy going at times of war.

After the Second World War in 1945, women became marginalised from the work force and the majority of European states promoted men into the labour market by giving them priority over women for paid work. This was done through a series of economic, family, fiscal and social protection policies leading to the "*male breadwinner model*" (Le Feuvre, 1997:4).

In Malta the Marriage Bar legislation, for example, did not allow married female civil servants to remain in the labour market upon getting married.. It was only removed in December 1980 (Commission for the Advancement of Women, 2001:70).

Implications of discontinuity in the labour market

Women's discontinuous participation in the formal labour market makes them less competitive when applying for jobs. Matters become worse when women are abandoned by their husbands or become legally separated or become widows. In such situations where women are left to care for the children they are left with few options and often resort to casual or part-time work with relatively low earnings.

Separation of married couples often means that the female partner who has given the services to her family free of charge is at risk of relative poverty. Though the Civil Code gives equal status to married couples, women who are financially dependent on their husbands may find themselves left with nothing or very little in cases of litigation. Women with no independent income, having few skills that are needed in the labour market, perhaps with dependent children and not growing any younger, are likely to find it very difficult to achieve a better standard of living. Dependent wives' pensions may also be affected if the husband did not conform to social security requirements, was long-term unemployed, or took liberties with the family's income.

These implications must be made clear to all because often women realise their vulnerability when it is too late and when they find themselves in precarious situations due to their discontinuous work patterns.

Gender and Guidance
Professionals who offer vocational guidance services cannot remain indifferent to gender issues. The consequences are not small and thus it is essential that every counsellor or educator avoids basing their counsel on stereotypes or prejudices that segregate women in certain sectors and men in others.

Measures to promote equality of opportunity for women and men in training and in employment should include vocational guidance to girls and women on the same broad range of opportunities as in the case of boys and men. It is essential that training of young men and young women should not be confined to the so-called "masculine" (mechanics, technicians,) or "feminine" (care working, clerks) specialities. Finally it should be ensured that girls and boys have equal access to all streams of education and vocational training for all types of occupations in order to ensure their personal development and advancement regarding of their sex and gender.

General recommendations
In a UNESCO publication on Policies and Guidelines for Educational and Vocational Guidance, Stuart Conger (2002:56) sums up the following recommendations to counsellors and educators to:

1. Provide gender-fair career development programmes whilst examining and checking their own attitudes and preconceived ideas.
2. Encourage risk-taking;
3. Encourage non-traditional choices;
4. Assure accurate information;
5. Develop a sense of agency so that students believe that they can have more control over their lives;
6. Recognise that the use of male terms as gender-neutral reflects bias against women and thus counsellors must use inclusive and gender-fair language in all oral and written communication;
7. Continue throughout their professional careers to gain knowledge and awareness of the social, biological and psychological influences on female and male development in general and their career development in particular.

1.0

Gender
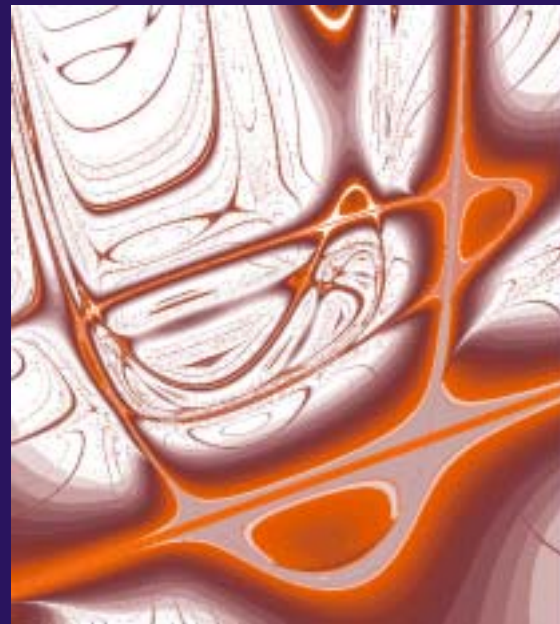
1.1 Socially Constructed Identity

Gender is a socio-economic variable to analyse roles, responsibilities, constraints, opportunities and needs of men and women in any context.

Gender does not focus on women as an isolated group, but it focuses on roles and needs of men and women, and inputs from both sides are required to enable changes towards greater equality between men and women.

Gender roles are affected by age, race, ethnicity, class, religion and other ideologies, and, the geographical, economic and political environment (ILO, 1993:41).

Nature or nurture?

One of a pair of identical male twins was seriously injured while being circumcised and the decision was made to reconstruct his genitals as a female. He was thereafter raised as a girl. The twins at six years old demonstrated typical male and female traits as found in Western culture. The little girl enjoyed playing with other girls, helped with the housework and wanted to get married when she grew up. The boy preferred the company of other boys, his favourite toys were cars and trucks, and he wanted to become a fireman or policeman. For some time, this case was treated as a conclusive demonstration of the overriding influence of social learning on gender differences. However when the girl was a teenager, she was interviewed during a television programme. The interview showed that she felt some unease about her gender identity, even perhaps that she was 'really' a boy after all. She had then learned of her unusual background, and this knowledge may very well have been responsible for this altered perception of herself (Ryan, 1985, in Giddens, 1997:92).

Do we behave in a masculine or feminine way because nature intended us to be so or do we adopt these traits through what we learn in our socialisation process?

Understanding yourself

1   Can you remember when you first became aware of yourself as a girl or a boy? Did you understand that being a girl or a boy also meant displaying attributes of femininity or masculinity?

2   How were femininity and masculinity marked in your family?

3   When you first went to school did your teacher place any emphasis on difference between pupils of different sexes or not? Did you conform to expectations regarding gender identity?

4   Have you ever felt that your parents and/or your teachers were unfair to you on the grounds of your sex? Did they or any 'significant' adult have expectations of your femininity/masculinity that you could not satisfy?

5   Have you ever felt that the opposite sex have a better/worse time than you do? What are the factors in the lives of the opposite sex that you would covet, and which are those you consider immaterial to your happiness?

6   Which aspects of your own gender identity do you value positively?
(Darmanin, 1997:2)

Theory

There are two main perspectives on how gender identity is formed in young children, with sufficient evidence to indicate that socialisation has a crucial role to play:

•   Basically, children learn ways of relating to the world by observing how people act, and by being rewarded or punished for appropriate or inappropriate behaviour. Children model their behaviour on same sex members of their family, their friends and the images they come across (EOC, 2001:2).

•   Children form their social identity in a wide context and factors including ethnicity, social class, culture, religion and age (EOC, 2001:2).

Guidelines

•   The person has a right to develop self-potential in a way that enhances good mental, emotional and physical health.

•   When assessing a child it is important to take into consideration what we mean by the 'ideal child'. Unless we pick out which gendered bits are restricting the expression of potential we might reinforce the stereotype (EOC, 2001:5).

•   Each organisation could work on having a written policy statement on equal gender opportunities. These would form the foundation of the work involved while giving clear guidelines that can be used in benchmarking.
(Darmanin, 1997:217).

**Creating opportunities
for gender awareness among students:**
The need to create opportunities for gender awareness among young people is essential. Therefore educators should:

- **Encourage** positive behaviour to offer access to a wider range of opportunities to careers in the labour market to both sexes.
- **Create** opportunities for dialogue between the sexes in order to help them express and assess beliefs held on relationship issues.
- **Encourage** students to share thoughts and feelings on how they are viewed and treated by each other in order to highlight the stereotyped attitudes between the sexes which should be viewed critically.
- **Encourage** students to develop the ability to evaluate behaviours, attitudes and personal qualities that help or hinder boy/girl relationships.
- **Help** students to address the common problems that exist in boy/girl relationships which are often the subject of embarrassment to young people. A strategy that is simple and non-threatening is essential (Attard, 2003, written communication).

What is appropriate?

Below are a number of statements about behaviours that society labels as appropriate or inappropriate for masculine or feminine roles. Rate each one as follows and be prepared to explain your rating: a) oppose b) am unsure c) favour

- [ ] 1. Boys should not cry.
- [ ] 2. Girls should take the initiative and ask boys for dates.
- [ ] 3. Boys should make all the decisions about where to go and what to do on a date.
- [ ] 4. Boys should openly display affection towards other boys when they are close friends.
- [ ] 5. Girls should insist that boys should do things like helping them with their coat, opening their car door and carrying books.
- [ ] 6. Girls should not play football.
- [ ] 7. Girls should see their primary role in life as being married and having children.
- [ ] 8. Boys should not take secretarial and home economics courses.
- [ ] 9. Boys should value physical strength and act protectively towards females.
- [ ] 10. Girls should be allowed to play in mixed athletic teams if they are good enough to beat out some of the boys in the tryouts.
- [ ] 11. Girls should make their boyfriend the centre of their lives.
- [ ] 12. Boys should not work as kindergarten assistants.

In order to check your beliefs try changing the gender in the sentence and see if it would still make sense for example: Boys should not cry becomes Girls should not cry. If something is ok for girls to do why can't boys do it ? and vice versa, if boys can do it why can't girls do it?

1.2 Culture Convergence

Culture has been described through the metaphor of 'mental software'. In our minds we can think things through and make decisions in a way that is allowed by our social environment.

(Hofstede, 1991)

Hofstede (1980) studied work related value orientations of 88,000 people in 40 countries and identified 4 dimensions along which dominant patterns of culture can be ordered. One of the dimensions is the degree of masculine or feminine values a culture upholds. Alternative labels for 'masculinity' is 'achievement' and for 'femininity' is 'nurturance'.

People in high masculinity index (MAS) believe in achievement and ambition whereas low MAS cultures believe more in quality of life such as helping others and sympathy for the unfortunate. Feminine cultures also prefer equality between males and females and less prescriptive roles associated with gender (Hofstede, 1980).

Gender and culture in organisations including educational establishments

'Culture' incorporates a set of beliefs, values, norms and ground rules that defines and significantly influences how the organisation operates. (Beckhard and Harris, 1987:7)

Commonalities in diverse organisations

For biological distinction of people we use the terms: male and female; for social and culturally determined roles we use the terms: masculine and feminine – these terms are relative not absolute:

- a male can behave in a way that is considered feminine in another culture and still be thought of as a man;
- a female can behave in a way that is considered masculine in another culture and still be thought of as a woman.

Behaviours are considered 'feminine' or 'masculine' in traditional as well as in modern societies.

- Women dominate as doctors in the former Soviet Union, as dentists in Belgium, as shopkeepers in parts of West Africa. Female managers are virtually non-existent in Japan but frequent in the Philippines and Thailand.
- Men dominate as typists in Pakistan and form a sizeable share of nurses in The Netherlands (Hofstede, 1991:80).

Anthropologists who studied non-literate, relatively isolated societies stress the wide variety of social sex roles that seem to be possible (Mead, 1962, in Hofstede, 1991:80).

How can a school/organisation change its gender culture?

Schools and organisations are like small societies and can adopt masculine or feminine cultures. A gender analysis of an organisation involves looking at several aspects namely:

Current personnel

The skills and attitudes of both management and staff are important. Does the leadership of the organisation support the move to greater attention to gender equality? Does the current skill profile within the organisation support the consideration of gender equality issues or is there a need for new skills?

Organisational history and culture

Both the informal and formal rules that guide an organisation can have gender implications. Factors that support increased attention to equality issues include: flexibility, valuing diversity and different abilities

Organisational routines and procedures

Internal procedures may offer support or hinder the consideration of gender equality issues. For example, if evaluation and monitoring are weak in general, it will be difficult for the organisation to monitor the impact of its programmes and policies on girls and boys.

External environment and pressures: Effective organisational change is often promoted through a combination of internal advocates and external pressure organisations. Many organisations have moved to develop new skills or programmes at the prompting of external advocacy groups or 'global opinion and consensus' (such as that established through the Beijing Platform for Action) (Adapted from Schalkwyk and Woruniuk, 1998).
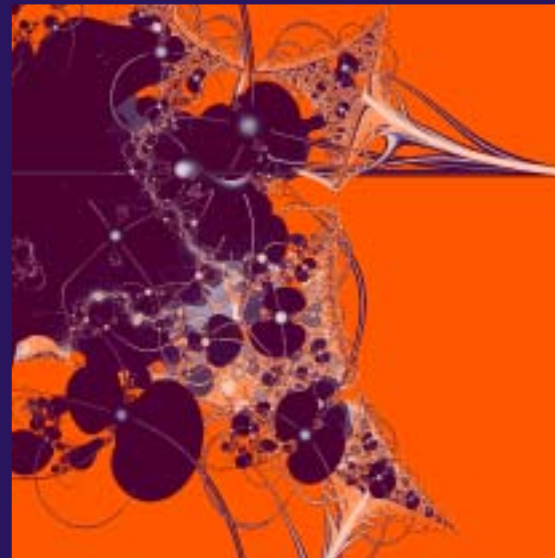
Will you contribute to change your organisation's gender culture into one of gender equality?

Education

2.1 Primary and Secondary Levels

Story

Jo is a teacher who has been teaching primary school children for the past six years. Ever since being employed, Jo has been worried about the impact school books have on pupils. It is so frustrating to keep reading about Mark's, Lara's and Helen's mothers working as a nurse, a fashion-dress shop manager and a child minder but that their fathers were a scientist, a race-car driver and a builder respectively. Jo feels those worries are well founded especially when during their creative writing it is only one or two children who talk about their parents as if they are not restricted into their roles 'naturally'. Jo is in the process of writing two reading books whose protagonists' gender is not necessarily related to those persons' sex. Jo believes that systems that channel children according to their sex do a disservice to children and society.

What impact are the stories and images in school books having on the child's understanding of his or her gender?

Facts

Heads of Schools	Male	Female
Government schools		
Primary	40	30
Secondary	21	10
Religious, Lay and Independent schools		
Primary and Secondary	27	33
Total	**88**	**73**

(Borg 2003 – Personal Communication)

Heads of Schools	Male	Female
Government schools	2627	3720
Teachers in Private schools	528	1623
Total	**3155**	**5343**

(NSO – Education Statistics 2001/2002) Children and Society

Theory

Gender segregation (see Section 4.1) may be reinforced during the educational period in student's lives.

- Children may start to believe that being girls or boys, their role in life must be modelled on that of adults of the same sex. Children may therefore identify with same sex people and model their behaviour according to the accepted gender stereotype in their society.
- It is of utmost importance for schools to develope curricula that provide easy access to various areas of recommendation interest for each student.

Sensitivity to gender biased language in educational establishments

Use of 'man' as a generic noun or as an ending for an occupational title (e.g. policeman), may imply incorrectly that all persons in the group are male.

Sexist bias can occur when pronouns are used carelessly, as when the masculine pronoun 'he' is used to refer to both sexes or when the masculine or feminine pronoun is used exclusively to define roles by sex (e.g. The nurse ...she) (APA, 2001:66).

To avoid rigidity in sex identity or sex roles, choose language (nouns, pronouns and adjectives) that specifically describes the particular person, or use gender neutral language when speaking generically (APA, 2001:66).

Learning by Doing

Ask girls and boys to do things that are traditionally considered to be done by the other sex.
- Girls 'build' something like a cart, water filter, light bulb, a calculator or play football.
- Boys cook, dance, shop for groceries, wash family socks, wash floors.
- Both can plant seeds together and care for a garden; visit a nursery school, supervise younger children at school and prepare their lunches.

Guidelines and Suggested Activities

Establish guidelines and ground rules on acceptable behaviour for both boys and girls based on respect and equality.

Show students the link between what they are learning at school and which gainful occupations it could lead them to (Silverman and Pritchard, 1996:10).

- Make a list of the projects, essay titles and additional work you assigned to your class last year. Were all the pupils interested in these topics?

- When you plan lessons, what working patterns do your pupils prefer (individual work, group work, paired work, etc?) How do you choose between the different preferences?

- Make a list of set literature textbooks. Do these appeal to your pupils across the board? How can you take into account the preferences of both boys and girls?

- Many girls find science abstract. They would be more involved in science education were it more person-related. The same is true for technology and IT education. When material is chosen, do you take into account gender difference, in the positive sense?

- On what criteria do you praise students? Do you think girls/boys satisfy different achievement criteria? (Darmanin, 1997)

2.2 Post-Secondary Education

MCAST first year students (Oct 2003): 819 males, 401 females

- **Males** predominate conspicuously in courses related to electronics, telecommunications, computer hardware, masonry, engineering, tile laying and plastering, heritage skills, business, draughtsmanship, heating, ventilation and air conditioning., computing, navigating, arts and crafts.

- **Females** predominate courses regarding arts and design, matriculation certificate, banking and financial services, administrative and secretarial studies, retailing, insurance.

ETC Apprenticeship Schemes (Dec. 2003): 1,471 males, 254 females

- There were **no girls** in the following callings: auto electrical, building trade, trowel trades, electrical servicing, electrical installation, electrical maintenance, foundation in stone construction, jewellery, mechanical fitting, motor vehicle fitting, motor vehicle marine, plumbing, sheet metal work, stained glass, stone carving, stone dressing, tile laying and plastering, vehicle body repairing, welding/burning fabrication, wood carving, woodwork, applied information technology, applied mechanical engineering, computer aided design, graphic design, heating ventilation and air conditioning, motor vehicle technician.

- There were **no boys** in the following calling: Beauty therapy.

Theory

A token presence in an area that has been traditionally dominated by males or vice versa by females does not mean that gender equality has been reached. This can be a situation where action towards gender equality is not proactive and is perhaps not given due attention.

As long as participation is limited to a few girls/women or boys/men willing to be 'pathbreakers', there will not be the critical mass that is needed to convince others that the alternative is possible. The real picture is revealed in the enrolment numbers and gender equality is neared when there are approximately equal numbers (Silverman and Pritchard, 1996:12).

Guidelines

• More female technology teachers can be important role models for girls interested in technology. Therefore, schools can make hiring of more female technology teachers a high priority (Silverman and Pritchard, 1996:9).

• Teachers may support pupils to critically examine inequities in the workplace. This would make them aware of gender issues at work and enable them to take a long-term orientation to the choices they make so early in their work-life (Darmanin, 1997:217).

• When students show uncertainty as to their preferences in subject choices it might be a good idea to investigate the possibility of the student being interested in taking an engineering or technology course of study. Any students who show interest should be encouraged and supported to follow this path.

• The strengthening of the career guidance and counseling function and the use of gender specific pedagogical styles are fundamental (ETC, 2002:12).

2.3 Tertiary Level

Story

Chris will be twenty five in a few years and has just applied for a science course at the University of Malta. Going to University has always been a goal and Chris has worked steadily at achieving the qualifications needed. Marriage is another goal and the prospects seem to be very encouraging as the relationship has been going steady for the last two years. The car that Chris bought is still less than half paid for, so Chris has taken on a part-time job to help make ends meet.

Chris intends having children someday and would like to own the family home together with the prospective spouse. Physical training is another of Chris's interests and it has become part of the daily routine to meet with a couple of friends to train together. Chris meets some other friends at least twice a week at the evening course where they are taking further training. When the occasion arose they attended seminars locally and twice went abroad.

Chris says that the quality of parenting is important and believes in equal participation where both parents have a positive influence in the socialisation of their children. Being financially independent is imperative for a truly egalitarian relationship between a married couple. Reciprocal respect is a much better value than obligation based on dependency between the couple. Chris thinks that housework can be easily shared by the family members and does not think that any particular sex should be tied to a prescribed list of 'household chores'.

Who is Chris? Is this person a he or a she? Does it matter? Would it make a difference if we knew the person's sex? Would our expectations change? Does this gender neutral perspective threaten social stability in any way?

Theory

- Gender affects career choices. Girls are likely to think of going into care work while boys may not even consider it. Boys are likely to think of going into technology or engineering but girls may never consider the possibility.

- Students who follow the traditional path towards employment are likely to choose study areas that will enable them to find temporary employment until they have children. For girls, this might mean opting to take courses in hairdressing, clerical work etc. This decision restricts the life choices that the girl may need to make in the future.

- Students trained in technology have more chance to move from one job to another, as well as advance in the same workplace, than someone who is trained in hairdressing (Darmanin cited in Scerri and Sciberras, 2003:12).

How is gender affecting the counsel you give to your students?

24

Facts

- Female presence at the University dates back to the period after the First World War.

- From 1943 to 1964 females at the University numbered less than 100.

- From 1996 onwards the overall number of women at tertiary level was consistently higher than the number of men (Talbot and Valletta, 2003).

- The highest participation rate of female students in tertiary education occurs between 17 and 21 years (NSO 29/2003:2).

- In October 2002, 8,920 students were registered at the University of Malta as regular, provisional and probationary students:

  - In the academic year 2002-2003, the number of females registered

    exceeded the number of males in the case of studies leading to certificates, diplomas and bachelor's degrees.

  - Males exceeded females for master's and doctorate studies.

  - Female undergraduate students were largely under represented in the sciences (39% females, 61% males)

- Males were outnumbered in the humanities (61% females, 39% males) and other disciplines (64% females, 36% males)

- There were no significant differences between the number of males and females following postgraduate courses in the humanities and other disciplines.

- There was a significant difference for the male dominated sciences, where just 34% of postgraduate students in 2001 were female.

- In the education and health care sectors, the female dominance has been reinforced over the years. During the last 15 years, the percentage number of females in the educational field fluctuated from 62.2% in 1988 to 72.2% in 2002 whereas the female presence within the institute of health care varied from 62.9% in 1988 to 68.5% in 2002.

- Males predominated in Engineering, architecture and IT, although the presence of females increased from 5.7% in 1988 to 33.6% in 2002 within the Faculty of Architecture and from 6% in 1988 to 21.8% in 2002 in the Faculty of Engineering.
  (Talbot and Valletta, 2003)

The culture of gender inequality is present in all sectors of society and the process of change towards equality needs to be owned by all. Higher institutions like universities should lead by example and structure towards a goal of equal participation by women and men. European universities are still behind in gender equity and a summary of the Third European Conference on Gender Equality in Higher Education expressed its "frustration at the slowness of universities to accept and reward women staff with senior positions and research opportunities" (Stocking, 2002:1).

The situation of female academics in Malta

*Female academics
in decision making positions*

- In the academic year 2002-2003 females made up just 11.72% of the total number of academic staff on the University's main governing bodies, namely the Council, the Senate and the Faculty Boards. The highest number of females was present in the Education and the Faculty Boards (43.75%), whereas there was no female member on the Economics, Management and Accountancy Faculty Board. (Talbot and Valletta, 2003).

*Tertiary education academics
on a full-time basis*

- As at October 2002, 5 females compared to 96 males, occupied full-time posts of professor and associate professor. Two of these were found in the Faculty of Medicine, one in the Institute of Health Care, one in the Faculty of Art and the other in the Institute of Linguistics.
- For the academic year 2002-2003, full-time female academic presence was felt mainly in the Faculty of Medicine and Surgery (19.1%), the Faculty of Education (44.1%) and the Institute of Health Care (55.3%).
- For the academic year 2002-2003, the only full-time academic within the Institute for Masonry and Construction Research was a female assistant lecturer.
- For the academic year 2002-2003, there were no full-time female academics in the Institute of Agriculture, the European Documentation and Research Centre, the Institute for Energy Technology and the Mediterranean Academy of Diplomatic Studies (Talbot and Valletta, 2003).

2.4 Lifelong Learning

Story

Carmelina is 59 years old and has been married to Salvatore for 42 years. She never learnt how to read and write and was never interested in anything apart from keeping house and seeing to the needs of her husband and their three children. Salvatore worked for a small trading concern before he died two months ago aged 61 years. Carmelina is devastated. She does not know what business her husband dealt in, how much money he had saved or whether he had any bank accounts at all. She does not know whether he made a will, whether he had any receipts for what he had paid for including social security and income tax, nor whether he had incurred any debts.

She says that he used to tell her that he earned Lm 225 monthly and for the last five years he gave her Lm 150 monthly to run the home. The children now want their share of their father's inheritance because they are all involved in paying off bank loans. Carmelina had been taking anti depressants for about twelve years. Most probably Carmelina will now apply for residential care as she thinks she will not be able to afford the rent that she has been paying for the flat. Carmelina regrets that she never made time to study. Somebody mentioned to her that it was not too late to learn. After making some enquiries she has lately enrolled in a Basic Skills course where she is learning how to read and write.

Theory

It is no longer a good idea to make a vocational choice when one is about 16 years old based on the assumption that it will be possible to stick to that choice throughout one's working life. Until recently this type of decision was possible as very few employees changed jobs or professions in the middle of their working life, but nowadays and perhaps more so in the future, individuals would be expected to change jobs a number of times. Continuing advances in technology and mobility of employees make some jobs obsolete and change the work environment. These changes need to be made known to students well before entry into the employment world as well as during the whole span of employees' working lives
(HR document ETC:4.3.2).

Facts

The majority of participants attending the University of the Third Age during the academic year 2002/2003 held a professional career prior to retirement. Such professionals included doctors, health-related professionals and accountants/auditors, but the greater part were teaching professionals.

- These account for 77% of the professionals and 34.6% of the total participation.
- Some 12.8% of the participants fall within the clerical group, while 6.5% were civil servants (below the rank of directors/deputy directors, and other senior staff, but above that of clerks).
- Legislators, senior officials and managers represented 3.7% while 3.9% were technicians and associate professionals.

Those not gainfully occupied, who included housewives and pensioners accounted for 22.4% of the participation (NSO 88, 17/6/03).

Potential benefits from investments in training

(Cedefop, 2000)

Individuals
- More job opportunities
- Higher salary
- Better career prospects
- Lower probability of unemployment
- Increased job satisfaction
- Improved working environment

National level
- Equal access
- Diminished social exclusion
- Increased economic welfare
- Diminished social costs
- Increased tax revenue
- Achievement of adequate skill levels

Enterprises
- Higher productivity
- Increased efficiency
- Higher flexibility
- Retention of workforce
- Improved motivation
- Attraction of labour

European level
- Convergence of labour markets
- Increased mobility
- Increased cross-border co-operation

Entities promoting lifelong learning

Employment and Training Corporation
Head Office, Hal Far. BBG 06
Tel: 22201-100
Fax: 22201802
www.etc.org.mt

Department of Further Studies and Adult Education
Adult Learning Section, Rm 327
Education Division, Floriana CMR 02
Tel: 2122 6012
Fax: 2125 1476
eveningcourses.gov.mt

Institute for Tourism Studies
St George's Bay, St Julians STJ 02
Tel: 2379 3100
Email: help.its@gov.mt
www.its.gov.mt

Institute of Health Care
University of Malta
Tel: 2595 1830
Fax: 2124 4973
home.um.edu.mt/ihc

Malta College for Arts, Science and Technology (Malta)
Malta: Main Campus
Corradino Hill, Paola. PLA 08
Tel: 2180 1590/1
Fax: 2180 1596
www.mcast.edu.mt

Gozo: MCAST Gozo Centre
132, Triq it-Tiġrija, Xagħra, Gozo
Fax: 2156 4521

Malta College for Restoration
Royal Naval Hospital, Bighi. Kalkara CSP 12
Tel: 2180 7676
Fax: 2167 4457
www.mcr.edu.mt

University of Malta
Tal-Qroqq, Msida.
Tel: 2133 6451
www.um.edu.mt

See education website
www.education.gov.mt

3.0

School-to-Work Transition

3.1 Gender and School-to-Work transition

Story

Karen and Jason have been going out together for a year. They are both Maltese and are 17 and 20 years old respectively. Karen has just passed eight O-levels and intends to sit for the two that she failed next summer. She says that she would like to find a job as an office clerk. Jason has been working as a mechanic for two years and is not interested in further training in new technology although he hopes to start his own business someday.

Jason owns a car and Karen expects him to chauffeur her to places she considers a hassle to reach by bus. Jason does not mind driving Karen after he finishes work and is not keen on Karen learning to drive because he feels he is able to help her enough. She has no interest in learning how to drive although she acknowledges the independence that driving herself would give her. Her father tries to persuade her and offered to teach her himself. Her two brothers aged 20 and 16 are both very keen on driving.

Both Karen's and Jason's mothers are full time homemakers and their fathers have always been the families' breadwinners. Karen and Jason intend to get married in a few years. Their intention is for Karen to stop working to raise their children and care for her husband and home in the traditional manner. Karen says that she will stop working as soon as she becomes pregnant. The couple assumes that there is no reason why Jason should not continue to earn the same decent amount of income as he has done for these two years nor that Karen should have any reason to look for employment after she becomes a mother. Karen has never heard of the word 'gender' and therefore has no idea what it can mean.

What are the implications of such a traditional arrangement between Karen and Jason in today's world?

The link between education and the labour market is a strong element of vocational guidance. Building a school-to-work transition programme entails linking schooling with the demands and realities of the workplace (Funderstanding, 1998-2001).

Facts

- In 2001, 51.6% of girls and 58% of boys aged between 18-24 years were considered to be early school leavers, that is not in further education or training after having completed secondary education (NSO, 2002, Structural, Poverty and Social Exclusion Indicators).

- In May 2003, 89% of males and 85% of women registering for work on Part 1 of the Employment Register had an education level lower than O level and City and Guild (ETC, 2003).

Guidelines

- Paying attention to the educational achievements and career aspirations of girls will ensure that women can have economic security and more career choices (Saskatchewan, 1991:1).

- Boys might need encouragement and support to move more into care areas. This may lead to more male presence in children's lives for example as primary teachers. Better pay levels may be necessary to encourage this move.

- There is international consensus that positive action is an acceptable way of increasing female participation in non-traditional areas. Effective activities may include: affirmative action campaigns, job fairs, mentoring, job shadowing, career counseling, student networks and others at the same time (Darmanin, 1997:207).

- There is an information gap that needs to be addressed by the development of better labour market information outputs such as delivering such information to students through media sources, written documents, school counseling, career workshops and the Internet (ILO, 1996-2003:4).

4.0

Segregation and Work
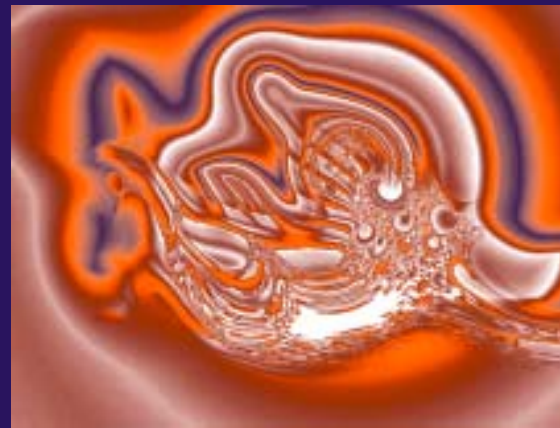
4.1 Occupational Segregation

Theory

Segregation concerns the tendency for men and women to be in different occupations across the entire spectrum of work. There are two types of segregation: Horizontal and Vertical.

Horizontal

This refers to the fact that men and women to work in different sectors of the economy:

- Truck drivers, for instance are usually men, while women tend to predominate in dressmaking or domestic work (ILO, 2003:44).

Vertical

This refers to segregation where men and women both work in the same sector, but men commonly do the more skilled, responsible or better paid work and occupy higher positions:

- For example, the majority of school heads may be men while the majority of teachers are women, the majority of hospital consultants may be men while the majority of nurses may be women (Hakim, 1981:521, in Blackburn & Jarman, 1997).

Factors affecting occupational segregation

Social, cultural, historical and economic factors all play a part in determining the extent and the patterns of occupational segregation around the world.
These factors include:

- Social norms and stereotypical perceptions regarding men and women, family life and working life
- Education and vocational training
- Taxation and social security regimes, and welfare policies and institutions
- The structure of the labour market. Including the size of the informal economy
- Discrimination at entry to the labour market and at work.
- Discontinuous working patterns (ILO, 2003:44).

Consequences of occupational segregation

- Occupational segregation has been more detrimental to women than to men. Where females are the predominant group in any given occupation, the respective occupations are generally less attractive because of a tendency towards lower pay, lower status and fewer advancement possibilities.
- When the hurdle of entering the labour market is overcome, people may find themselves faced with another hurdle – discrimination based on sex. Suffering discriminatory treatment because of one's gender is not unheard of. Individuals may decide to abandon a certain professional path because they experience or anticipate discrimination.

- Occupational segregation is often regarded as evidence of inequality as it includes differences in power, skills and earnings. These are related and may be taken as indicators of social advantage or disadvantage.
- Similar discriminatory processes operate along the lines of race, ethnic origin, age, disability and health status among others and result in the under valuation and segregation of groups of workers into jobs with less favourable terms and conditions of employment (ILO, 2003:44).

4.1.1 Horizontal Segregation

Facts

- Women's jobs are characterised by the roles of carers and educators, men have a monopoly on heavy manual, technical and management tasks.
- While both male and female students are most likely to opt for education; economics, management and accounts; and the arts, women are underrepresented in engineering and architecture. On the other hand, in 2002 there were more female students in medicine and social welfare in Malta (ETC, 2002:9).

In EU member States such as Finland, Ireland and Belgium, women are well represented in science and engineering. In Finland, there were more women than men working as scientists in 2001.
(Eurostat 2003:1)

Total employed persons classified by economic activity in June 2003

Economic Activity	Males		Females		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	2,852	2.7	269u	0.6	3,121	2.1
Fishing	539u	0.5	-	-	539u	0.3
Mining and quarrying	993u	1.0	57u	0.1	1,050u	0.7
Manufacturing	20,926	20.2	7,841	17.4	28,767	19.3
Electricity, gas and water supply	3,171	3.0	194u	0.4	3,365	2.2
Construction	10,970	10.6	318u	0.7	11,288	7.6
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs	15,139	14.6	5,622	12.4	20,761	14.0
Hotels and restaurants	8,408	8.1	3,915	8.7	12,323	8.3
Transport, storage and communication	9,685	9.3	3,393	7.5	13,078	8.8
Financial intermediation	2,978	2.9	2,342	5.2	5,320	3.6
Real estate, renting and business activities	5,265	5.1	2,834	6.3	8,099	5.4
Public administrstion and defence; Compulsory social security	10,488	10.1	3,208	7.1	13,696	9.2
Education	3,930	3.8	7,615	16.9	11,545	7.8
Health and social work	4,768	4.6	4,940	10.9	9,708	6.5
Other community, social and personal service activities	3,417	3.3	2,462	5.4	5,879	4.0
Private households with employed persons	54u	0.1	120u	0.3	174u	0.1
Extra-territorial organisations and bodies	55u	0.1	50u	0.1	105u	0.1
Total	*103,638*	*100.0*	*45,180*	*100.0*	*148,818*	*100.0*

u = under-represented

(NSO, 158/2003. 24October, 2003)

4.1.1 Vertical Segregation

Story

Alexia is a doctor working with a private hospital and is engaged to be married next year to John who is a nurse at the state hospital. At the moment John is having second thoughts about his plans to marry Alexia. Two weeks ago Alexia was offered a higher position to work in a hospital abroad. Her pay would be double what she earns now and she is excited about the prospect although it would mean that the couple would have to move and live abroad. John told her last week that he needs to feel he is the man in the family and wants Alexia to be home when he arrives from work and to be there for him every day. She said the pay will make a difference to their lives and if she did not take the job offered she will still have to work the same hours. Apart from

that Alexia feels fulfilled in her role as a doctor and thinks it would be a great waste if she were not to practice. John felt that he did not want to move away from the environment he had gotten used to and loved. This morning he intends to call Alexia and tell her that although he loves her he is calling off the engagement. (Idea taken from TV series *Third Watch*)

Would Alexia feel her womanhood threatened if the roles were reversed?

Facts: Vertical segregation

- People working in the informal economy are at the lowest rung of the vertical ladder. Here they face drastic discrimination compared to workers in the formal economy. The deficits are serious and include poor quality jobs with low productivity and incomes, poor working conditions and occupational health and safety standards and limited access to knowledge, technology, finance and markets. Since they are not covered by the country's framework of laws and regulations they are also not covered in official statistical enumeration. Therefore, they are officially unrecognised, unregistered, unprotected and socially excluded. Apart from this they are they are not represented by a trade union and it is near impossible to organise themselves into a group to fight for their rights as workers (ILO, 2001:2).

- Women are more likely than men to be in the informal economy (ILO, 2001:2).

- Beneath the glass ceiling thousands of women bump their heads in their attempts towards promotion. At the same time they may be watching males no more skilful or experienced than themselves leapfrogging into top management or senior posts. (Abdela, 1991:15)

- In 2002, the proportion of male employees in legislative and senior managerial positions was over double that of female employees – 10,272 males (10% of total employed persons) and 2,201 females (4.6% of total employed persons). In 2003, the gap narrowed slightly – 11,523 males (11.1% of total employed persons) and 2,717 females (6% of total employed persons) (NSO, 158/2003).

A publication by the Nordic Council of Ministers states:

"In all the Nordic countries, political unity prevails in the awareness that society can progress in a more democratic direction only when both women's and men's competence, knowledge, experiences and values are recognised and allowed to influence and enrich development in all spheres of society". (Nordic Council Of Ministers, 1994, quoted in Loutfi, ILO, 2001:211)

Guidelines

- Equal opportunities for men and women could be achieved by greater integregation of men and women across occupations. Occupational segregation typically translates into lower pay and fewer career opportunities for women.

- A perspective of gender equality may mean that even when there is gender segregation, 'female' and 'male' occupations with similar levels of skill and responsibility, should be reasonably similar in terms of pay, status, promotion opportunities, independence and authority.

- Gender segregation is not something that is necessary or an inevitable part of our social organisation. It can be changed. This change would be facilitated by valuing men's greater involvement in the family and women's greater involvement in society and remunerated work.

- Women would gain new opportunities if their skills were recognised and valued as important in today's world of increasing international communication and collaboration (Loutfi, ILO, 2001:210-211).

4.2 The Gender Pay Gap

Definition
The gender pay gap is defined as the ratio of the gross earnings of female and male employees working for the same amount of hours either in the same job or in jobs of equal value across sectors.

This definition involves answers to the following questions from men and women:

- What are your normal monthly earnings from your main job, including earnings from any overtime you normally do? (Gross amount i.e. before tax and contributions to social insurance are deducted and the net amount ie. the take home pay)
- How many hours per week do you work in your main job, including paid overtime if any?

Because women tend to assume the lion's share of family responsibilities even when they work, motherhood is strongly associated with income inequalities between the sexes and among women. This points to the importance of family/work reconciliation measures to facilitate women's participation in paid work. And men's greater participation in non remunerated work associated with caring and home making (ILO, 2003:53).

Facts

- According to the Labour Force Survey, women earn just under four fifths of male earnings especially in low-skill occupations and in the private sector. This statistic is comparable to that across the European Union, so much so, that the Commission's 2001 priority theme on gender issues was precisely the tackling of the gender pay gap (ETC, 2002:13).

- Across every occupation, except craft and related trades workers, the average salary for men is higher than that for women in the same occupation. This holds true across all age group although the disparity increases with age (ETC, 2002:9).

- The gender pay gap is greatest for legislators, senior officials and managers services and sales workers followed by those in elementary occupations; and smallest for clerks, technicians and associate professionals and machine operators (ETC, 2002:9).

- It is most evident in the private sector, in real estate, renting and business activities; other community, social and personal service activities; and hotels and hotels and restaurants (ETC, 2002:9).

- Women who choose non-traditional careers can expect to have lifetime earnings that are 150% of women who choose traditional careers (The Facts about Women & Work, (NA):1).

Average gross salary of employees by type of employment

	Males		Females		Total	
	No	Average Lm	No	Average Lm	No	Average Lm
Full time job	82851	5542.21	33001	4882.85	115852	5354.39
Full time with reduced	536	4286.29	2123	4038.29	2659	4088.28
Part time job	3283	2632.90	6215	2504.36	9498	2548.79
Total	86670	5424.24	41339	4481.89	128009	5119.92

(NSO – Personal Communication 2003)

Gender Pay Gap by economic activity, Labour Force Survey, June 2003

Economic Activity	Males		Females	
	No	Average Lm	No	Average Lm
Manufacturing	18,763	5002.57	7,432	4070.10
Hotels and restaurants	7,584	4829.57	3,640	3638.20
Transport, storage and communication	8,624	5895.07	3,111	4717.65
Financial intermediation	2,919	8971.52	2,342	6571.61
Education	3,930	5695.43	7,491	5104.12
Health and social work	4,639	5532.75	4,940	4158.63

(NSO, 158/2003)

Gender Pay Gap by main occupation, Labour Force Survey, June 2003

Occupation	Males		Females		Total	
	No	Average Lm	No	Average Lm	No	Average Lm
Legislators, senior officials and managers	7,361	9009.87	1,611[u]	8690.43[u]	8,972	8952.51
Professionals	7,682	7001.87	5,883	5825.60	13,565	6491.73
Technicians and associate professionals	11,835	6094.42	6,778	4819.48	18,613	5630.15
Clerks	6,062	4880.79	10,438	4202.64	16,500	4451.78
Service workers and shop/sales workers	10,401	4615.70	7,034	3460.24	17,435	4149.54
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	10,416	4643.52	5,343	3945.95	15,759	4407.01
Elementary occupations	14,973	4383.46	3,608	3446.90	18,581	4201.60

[u] - under-represented   *(NSO, 158/2003)*

Elementary occupations = Sales and services elementary occupations; Agricultural, fishery and related labourers; Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport.

Observed gender pay gaps could be the result of a whole range of factors, including:

- *Personal characteristics* such as age, educational background, family background, presence of children, experience in the labour market, previous career interruptions and tenure on the job;

- *Job characteristics* such as occupation, working time, contract type, job status, career prospects and working conditions;

- *Firm characteristics* such as sector, firm size, work organisation, recruitment behaviour and the firm's compensation and human resources policies;

- *Gender segregation* by *occupation* or *sector;*

- *Institutional characteristics* including education and training systems, wage bargaining, wage formation and tax and benefit systems, industrial relations, parental leave arrangements and the provision of childcare facilities before and during compulsory school years; as well as

- *Social norms and traditions* regarding education, labour market participation, job choice, career patterns and the evaluation of male-and-female dominated occupations.

Some of these labour market characteristics could themselves be the outcome of discriminatory processes, including institutional settings, pay policies and social norms and traditions. Women and men could be subject to 'direct discrimination' by receiving lower pay than workers with the same characteristics and job performance (Commission of the European Communities, Brussels SEC (2003) 937).

Theory

- Job segregation is a major impediment to equality for women and as long as women and men continue to work in separate sectors the situation may get worse. Concentration of women in low paid jobs where the pay continues to be lower than those in male dominated sectors, will not allow the gap to close. (Abdela, 1991:15)
- Males need to be encouraged to share in the care of their family and in the chores that are needed in the family home. This enables females to have more time and energy to dedicate to their family, gainful employment and to their self-fulfilment.
- Unless girls are encouraged to move horizontally into non-traditional fields like science, technology and IT and computer programming, they will find it very difficult to achieve vertical mobility. For example, if girls continue to be trained only for the data and information-retrieval capabilities of the computer, their training will continue to lead to the lower end of the service oriented pay scale (The Facts about Women and Work:1).

The effects of increasing women's productivity and pay are:
* *Reducing and eliminating child poverty*
* *Reducing crimes of violence*

Child poverty cannot be eliminated or reduced significantly further while their mothers are in poverty. The ability of women to return to employment after maternity into decently paying jobs is a crucial component in the elimination of child poverty.

An increase in women's earned income decreases her likelihood of being subject to crimes of violence in the home. Women who are employed are less likely to be subject to domestic violence than women who do not have their own income. Domestic violence is lowest in families that are more equal. Women who are more economically dependent on their husbands suffer more domestic violence than marriages that are equal. (Walby and Olsen, 2002: 20-2).

The most important factors contributing to the gender pay gap in the EU are:

* earnings differences between men and women with family responsibilities;
* gender segregation by sectors; and
* gender segregation by occupations, where one finds a higher concentration of women in low paying sectors which cannot be explained by productivity (Brussels, SEC 2003/ 937).

To reduce the gender pay gap it is required that both a gender mainstreaming approach and specific policy actions are taken to remedy:

* differences in male and female labour market participation and career structures;
* differences in male and female wage structures and gender effects of pay and promotion policies;
* horizontal segregation in general and the concentration of women in low paying sectors and occupations in particular;
* particular attention needs to be given to reconciling work and family life (Brussels, SEC 2003/937:5).

41

Guidelines

- Vocational guidance needs to give priority to this issue by sensitising students to the reality of the gender pay gap by pointing out the evidence of the gender pay gap in specific jobs and among sectors.

- It is important that women are aware of the legislation and policies that support them in expecting equal pay for work of equal value and to enjoy comparable working conditions to men (ETC, 2002:13).

- The gender pay gap serves to keep women dependent. The reduction of the gender pay gap entails across the board responses to avoid any under-valuation of work in women-dominated sectors and occupations. To eliminate gender bias a multi-faceted approach is needed. It is important that the underlying factors of the gender pay gap are addressed – sectoral and occupational segregation, education and training, job classifications and pay systems, awareness raising and transparency. All actors concerned, including social partners, have to be involved in this process. (Commission of the European Communities. Brussels SEC (2003) 937:18).

Affirmative or positive action will help to close the gap. This means that there should be a number of measures that are coherent and that are aimed specifically at changing the low position of target groups in order that they may achieve equality
(ILO, 91st session, 2003: 63-64)

Work Life Balance
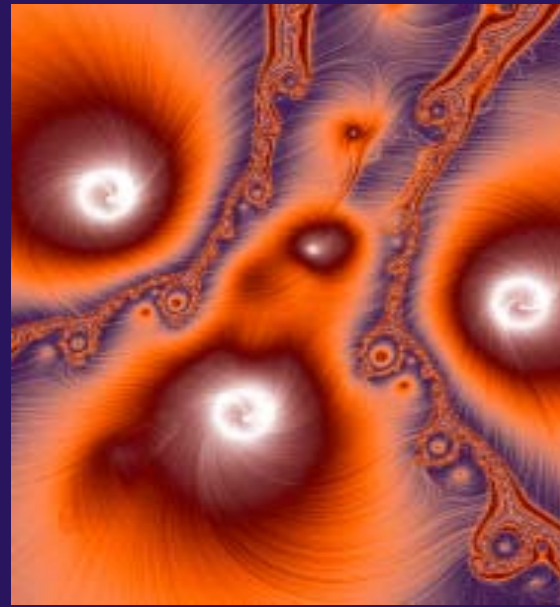
5.1 Integration of Family and Work Responsibilities

Traditional assumptions about the separation of work life and personal life are no longer viable, but we have not yet created a coherent set of new values and beliefs to take their place

Kanter, R. (1989)

Family is generally defined as women's domain and policies have been used primarily to enable mothers to combine employment with the care of young children while few employers deliberate about how to become more father-friendly. It is important to stress that work and family is not only a woman's issue (Lewis, 1996:4).

Work can cover both paid work (employment) and unpaid work, which can include various forms of caring, other domestic work and management and a wide variety of cultural, political and social activity.

Traditional Model of Work often refers to the male breadwinner model which embodies an expectation that the ideal employee will work full time and continuously from the end of education to retirement, making no concessions to family involvement. A father's virtual absence in parent-child interactions, and the women's lack of opportunities for generating income and for self-expression through paid employment is no longer seen to be ideal for families although it has tended to persist in spite of change. (Adapted from "Reconciliation of work and family life and quality of care services", EU, 1999).

Theory gendered roles

"It needs to be noted that rigid gender roles not only constrain women in terms of access to power and workplace success but they also constrain men seeking more emphasis and active involvement in family life and emotional connections in their relationships"

"A serious challenge for the future is to devise ways for more people, not only women to take on a greater share of family care giving, including husbands, partners, employers, community organisations and governments" (Zeitlin, 1999).

Theory gendered organisations

"The need for a new set of organisational assumptions and values in relation to work and family life stems from the profound and ongoing changes in families, in the composition of the workforce, in employing organisations and in the nature of work... Increasingly, then, the workforce is composed of women and men with responsibilities for both the care and the economic support of families, who seek a balance between their work and private lives (Lewis, 1996:2).

 "Family-friendly policies in progressive companies have brought us part of the way toward marking organisations hospitable to people who want both to work and to "have a life". But even the most advanced workplaces have not probed the assumptions that give rise to the basic problems of gender equity. Only by establishing the link between current work practices and gendered assumptions about the role and organisation of work will it be possible to identify major leverage points for significant constructive change" (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, Pruit, 2002).

Recommendations for promoting new ways of working and living:

In her work "Gender and Institutional Change Project – Report and Recommendations", June H. Zeitlin (1999) claims that the challenge in the future is whether we can develop new ways of working and living that enable women and men to:
• Pursue productive and fulfilling work
• Actively engage and share equitably in the joys and burdens of parenthood
• Foster more sustainable communities.

In order to do this it is necessary that:
• Conceptual shifts are made in our thinking about relations between men and women especially with regards to gendered roles.
• Women's equality must not occur by way of having women adapt to the male norm.
• Discussion is placed on a forward moving track rather than retreating into nostalgia or defending the status quo (Adapted from Zeitlin, 1999).

5.2 Work Life Integration

Employer support for balancing work and family life

Leave
- Extra-statutory maternity, paternity and adoption pay/leave
- Extra statutory parental leave
- Career-breaks
- Extra statutory emergency leave to deal with a sick child or problems with child care

Work arrangements
- Reduced working hours (part-time, term-time working, school hours working, voluntary reduction of hours, job share)
- Changed working hours (flexi-time, compressed working week, annualised hours, staggered working hours, shift working, time off in lieu
- Alternative location (home/tele-working)

Childcare support
- Affordable childcare
- Workplace nurseries
- Other financial support with the costs of care
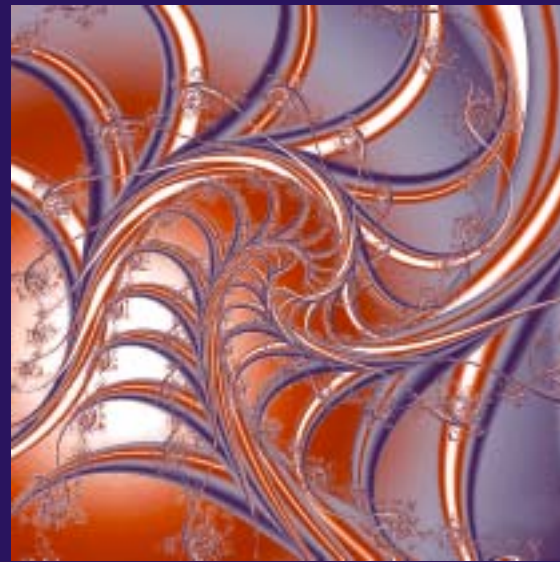
Training and information:
- Information on statutory and extra-statutory maternity, paternity and adoption leave
- Information on tax credits
- Information on local childcare providers
- Retraining for parents preparing to re-enter work
(Crown, 2003)

All measures must be made available for men as well as women in all grades and positions.

Disability

6.1 Gender and Disability

Theory

"People with disabilities face many obstacles in their struggle for equality. Although men and women with disabilities are subject to discrimination because of their disabilities, women with disabilities are at a further disadvantage because of the combined discrimination based on gender and discrimination based on disability" (Traustadottir, 1990:1).

Disabled men and women are obliged to fight the social stigma of disability. However, there is a socially constructed difference in what they may aspire to. In spite of being disabled, men can aspire to fill socially powerful male roles but disabled women are perceived as inadequate on two dimensions:

- for economically productive roles (traditionally considered appropriate for males) and
- for the nurturant, reproductive roles considered appropriate for females (Fine and Asch, 1985, in Oliver, 43:71).

This 'double disability' structures the experience of disabled women and compounds the oppression of disability. Therefore, disabled women find it difficult to enter male roles and at the same time are often denied access to traditional female roles because they are often seen as asexual and unsuitable for, or incapable of, motherhood.

Connecting gender, disability and work
Adapted from Froschl, Rubin and Sprung – Educational Equity Concepts

- Women with disabilities are significantly poorer than men with disabilities. A variety of factors contribute to this situation namely women with disabilities are more likely to be unemployed and if employed they receive considerably lower wages than men with disabilities.

Preparing young women/men for the workplace
Adapted from Sargent 1999

Students with disabilities confront challenges that differ from those faced by their peers, especially as they prepare to leave secondary school.

The families of young women with disabilities tend to be even more protective towards them and this may conspire to keep girls with disabilities at home under the pretext of protecting them physically and emotionally.

In society, women and men with disabilities are perceived as not being decision makers. This combined impact of gender and disability fosters the myth that a girl with disability will not be able to make a decision by herself.

Positive Action

The Equal Opportunities Persons with Disabilities Act (EOA) came into force in October 2000. Title 1 of the EOA speaks of employment as being a means that is aimed at improving the representation of disabled persons in the workforce.

- It places a positive obligation on employers to ensure that their workplaces and human resources practices do not exclude disabled persons from jobs because of their impairment.

- The EOA obliges employers to review their opportunities for disabled persons, their representation in the workplace and possible barriers to employment. When the time comes to recruit, hire and promote, employers need to hire qualified people and want to draw from the largest possible pool of candidates. This pool will include disabled persons – who can comprise a productive sector of the workforce – but some of whom need accommodation on the job.

- The employer has a duty to accommodate the disabled person. The employer is therefore obliged to take appropriate steps to eliminate discrimination against employees, prospective employees or clients resulting from a rule, practice or barrier that has – or can have – an adverse impact on disabled persons. Title 1, Section 7 of the EOA states that accommodation is required short of undue hardship as stipulated in Part IV, *Test of Reasonableness.*
(KNPD Personal Communication)

The Social Security Act was amended with effect from July 2001 through the introduction of a new provision whereby persons with disability who are undergoing rehabilitation programmes would be still entitled to social assistance if they work, provided the remuneration for such work and the amount of social assistance payable would not exceed the National Minimum Wage

(Malta Progress Report, ETC 2003:9)

Guidelines

Once a man or a woman with disability has decided to proceed for training or employment, it is important that a plan of action is developed.

- The plan must be shaped and owned by the disabled person. The service provider can make suggestions and give assistance, but the decisions are the right and the responsibility of the client. The service provider's goal is to help the client become as independent as possible. New experiences, opportunities and contacts lead to increased self-confidence and less dependence on others

- In developing a personal profile it is more important to focus on the client's abilities than to focus on what the person cannot do. The career development process typically consists of:
  - getting to know oneself
  - exploring possibilities
  - setting goals
  - taking action

Reframing is looking at things in a different way. If experiences have left the client feeling negative, adopting a new approach is necessary.

- Instead of the client saying "Nobody wants to hire me because I have a disability" the thought can be reframed to say "I may have an impairment but I have a lot of abilities that someone would hire me for".

- The client needs to turn the disability into a success story or show its advantages. The way this is handled is to demonstrate a strong and positive attitude. The client does not have to hide behind the disability but can use it as something that has been mastered (ALIS, 2000:18-19).

Legislation
with Labour Market Relevance

7.1 Social Security Act

How does social security work in Malta?
The Act provides for two basic schemes: The Contributory and The Non Contributory Scheme.

The Contributory scheme
The contributory scheme in Malta is a system where an employee, self-occupied or self-employed person pays a weekly contribution as laid down by the Social Security Act. In official jargon we call the Maltese system a 'pay as you go' system. This is due to the fact that you contribute during the period that you are gainfully active in order to provide for yourself when a later contingency such as sickness, unemployment or retirement occurs.
All employed, self-employed, self-occupied as well as unemployed persons may be insured. This is precisely the reason why the scheme provides for the payment of different classes and categories of contributions. Moreover, under certain conditions, the scheme acknowledges the non-payment (crediting) of contributions during a period of a specific contingency, and provides for the crediting in lieu of the payment of contributions.

The Non-contributory scheme
The Non Contributory Scheme which originally was meant to cater for those below the "poverty line" has over a period of years evolved into a comprehensive scheme with a number of provisions that are intertwined in such a way that one type of benefit supplements another. This has made possible the allocation of more than one benefit at the same time thus providing simultaneous coverage in those cases where more than one contingency is present. Moreover, through the process of targeting, this scheme has succeeded in the provision of additional assistance to certain specific categories such as, in the case of persons with a disability, in the case of single parents, as well as in the case of the family as a single unit. The amount of assistance payable compares favourably, in the majority of cases, and relatively speaking, with what is defined as the current social wage. This flexibility has been made possible by having different means tests applied to certain benefits, and by the elimination of non entitlement thresholds and their substitution by what are known as topping up systems.

(*Social Security in Malta – A Synopsis*. Department of Social Security Publication, Director's Office, 2002:18-20)

Women's working patterns are often discontinuous due to child rearing and this may affect their benefit entitlements.

Facts

- The total number of single parent households was estimated at 3,290 households. Of these 2,500 are single mother households and 790 single father households (NSO, Personal Communication, 2003).

- Single parents may earn up to a minimum wage without their welfare benefits being withdrawn (ETC, 2002:12).

- Social security schemes by themselves are not enough to stop or correct patterns of discrimination in the labour market and society in general (Schalkwyk and Woruniuk, 1998).

- Social security schemes may themselves raise equality concerns if they are based on cultural assumptions of family structures. These may not reflect the reality of the people in those families as their roles may be different from those assumed by the social security code - e.g. the assumption that households are headed by a male breadwinner; the use of family status assumes equal access by spouses to household income and resources; the assumption of female responsibility for, and care of, dependents (Schalkwyk and Woruniuk, 1998).

Theory

- Hobson's (1994) comparative study of policies for single mothers tests for gendered social rights. Single mothers are most advantaged when they are fitted into a policy frame that recognises them as heads of legitimate households, within a policy logic of care as service, or, care as a facet of citizenship (Williams, in Robinson and Richardson 1997:278).

- Homework is not yet recognised as a distinct form of employment and as such does not enjoy the same social security coverage that other forms of employment offer. Homeworkers may receive little and irregular pay, no social insurance benefits and are seldom recognised (ILO, 2003:88).

It is important that women are informed of their rights and obligations as regards social security, conditions of employment and taxation.
(ETC, 2002:13)

Guidelines

- Social security schemes should be designed to recognise the real and actual life differences between individuals as well as the differences in patterns of work for women and men – e.g. women are more likely than men to be employed in 'non-standard work'; to have low paid work and to have an interrupted work history. (Schalkwyk and Woruniuk, 1998)

- It is important that girls and women are aware of the implications of not having social insurance. The consequences of being financially dependent on others may become clear when the woman needs to draw support from social security. In certain circumstances being financially dependent on the husband may mean that a woman will be left destitute if the husband withdraws his regular support and if he has not paid the satisfactory amount of contributions for her to be eligible for social security in her own right in later life.
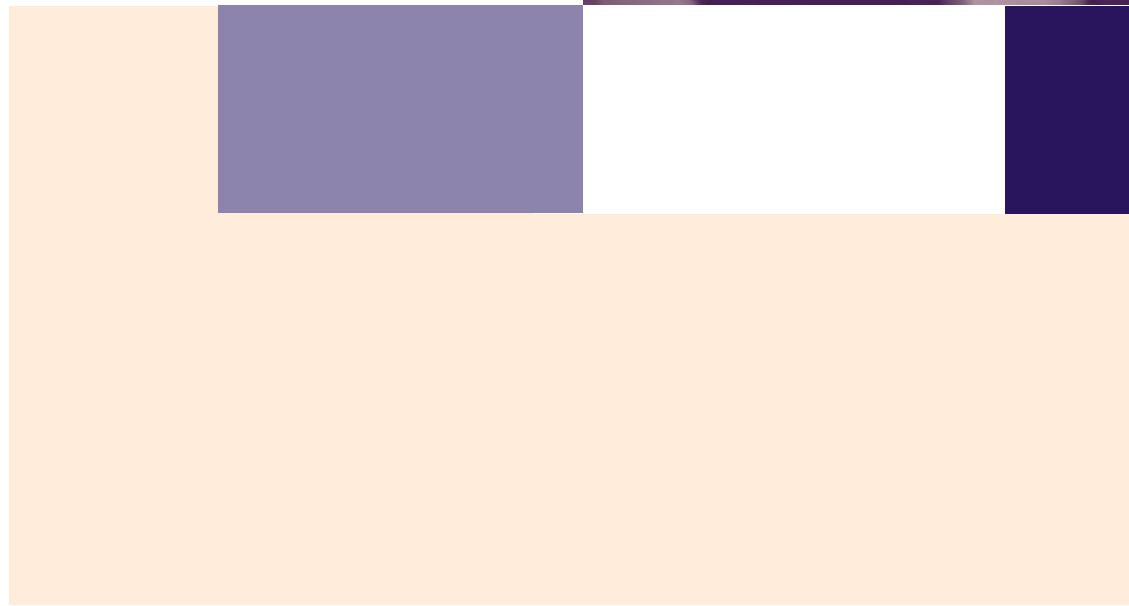
7.2 Sexual Harassment

The Equality for Men and Women Act (2003) makes it unlawful for any educational establishment or for any other entity providing training or guidance to discriminate against any person on the grounds of sexual harassment as follows:

Sexual harassment – Legal implications for educational establishments
It shall be unlawful for any educational establishment or for any other entity providing vocational training or guidance to discriminate against any person in:

...Failure by the persons responsible for such establishments and entities to fulfil their obligations to suppress sexual harassment.

Without prejudice to the provisions of article 29 of the Employment and Industrial Relations Act, it shall be unlawful for any person to sexually harass other persons, that is to say:

a) to subject other persons to an act of physical intimacy; or
b) to request sexual favours from other persons; or
c) to subject other persons to any act or conduct with sexual connotations, including spoken words, gestures or the production, display or circulation of any written words, pictures or other material, where the act, words or conduct is unwelcome to the persons to whom they are directed and could reasonably be regarded as offensive, humiliating or intimidating to the persons to whom they are directed
d) the persons so subjected or requested are treated less favourably by reason of such persons' rejection of or submission to such subjection or request, it could reasonably be anticipated that such persons be so treated.

Persons responsible for any work place, educational establishments or entity providing educational training or guidance or for any establishment at which goods, services or accommodation facilities are offered to the public, shall not permit other persons who have a right to be present in, or to avail themselves of any facility, goods or service provided at that place, to suffer sexual harassment at that place.

It shall be a defence for persons responsible as aforesaid to prove that they took steps as are reasonably practicable to prevent such sexual harassment.

Persons who sexually harass other persons shall be guilty of an offence against this article and shall, without prejudice to any greater liability under any other law, be liable on conviction to a fine (multa) of not more than one thousand liri or to imprisonment of not more than six months or to both such fine and imprisonment.

Facts

- Being a victim of sexual harassment can have detrimental effects. Commonly reported effects include the following: **Psychological effects** – depression and anxiety, embarrassment, feelings of powerlessness, shame, guilt; **Health-related effects**: headache, lethargy, sleep disturbance or insomnia, sexual problems, panic reactions; **Career-related effects**: decreased job satisfaction, drop in work performance, absenteeism, withdrawal from work, loss of job or promotion (New Horizons, 11/2/2002:20).

- Divorced and separated women, young females and new entrants to the labour market and those with irregular employment contracts, as well as women in non-traditional jobs, disabled persons, lesbians and women from racial minorities, have all been more prone to sexual harassment. On the other hand, gay men, young men and new male entrants at a place of work were also found to be vulnerable to sexual harassment (Spiteri-Bailey, 2003:20).

"Action against discrimination and harassment must be swift and serve as a clear deterrent".
(ETC, 2002:16)

The EU Commission's code of practice on measures to combat sexual harassment lists five suggestions to employers in preventing sexual harassment at the place of work:

a) Senior management should issue a policy statement making it amply clear that the management does not tolerate sexual harassment and that employees have a right to complain to the management.

b) Management is to ensure that this statement of policy is well communicated to all present and future employees.

c) Members of the management will have to be responsible to explain the policy to the staff and promote the same policy. Furthermore, members of the management should be responsive to allegations of sexual harassment.

d) Internal investigation should be carried out rapidly but should be handled with sensitivity and due respect to the rights of the victim and the alleged harasser.

e) The employer should make clear from the outset the consequences and disciplinary measures which would be imposed on any one who sexually harasses another person at the place of work (Spiteri-Bailey, 11/2/2003:20).

7.3 Health and Safety Act

The Occupational Health and Safety Authority Act, 2000 is a law which sets the minimum health and safety requirements at the place of work. The law spells out the duties of the employers with regards to health and safety issues and put the onus of proof on the accused to prove that it was not practicable or not reasonably practicable to do more than was in fact done to satisfy the duty or requirement.

Any person who knowingly and recklessly interferes with the process of providing a safe and healthy place of work shall be guilty of an offence.

Story
Mariella is 6 weeks pregnant and has now been shifted within the same company from her usual work because she should not handle heavy bundles due to her pregnancy. Doris is also pregnant but she did not need to change the work she did because it was considered safe for her and the unborn child.

Johnny and Sara both suffered an impairment when they handled the machinery they were using without due caution even though they both had five years' experience. On investigation it transpired that they both neglected to use the safety equipment that would have saved them from being injured to that extent. However, neither were they made to wear it by management.

Twanny who had been working for the company for the last seven months escaped serious injury when his colleague accidently dropped some tools from the floor above on to him. Twanny was eligible for sick leave, free medical care and compensation for his injury because he was wearing all the safety equipment that was required by the type of job that he did.

Facts
Factors affecting women at work in general: stress; repetitive strain injuries; back problems/back pain; violence/physical assault; manual handling; reproductive health (including pregnancy and breastfeeding); heavy lifting/heavy workloads; staff shortages; bullying and harassment; abuse/verbal abuse; menopause; chemical or biological agents (TUC).

From April to June 2003 in Malta:
- Nearly 90% of the reported (1,261) occupational injuries affected men. 1,125 were men and 136 were women;
- 450 accidents (35.7%) happened in the manufacturing sector (including shipyards). 409 were men and 41 were women
- At least 162 accidents (12.8%) were reported to have occurred in the construction sector. 159 were men and 3 were women;
- 4 men died after fatal accidents a work (NSO, 107/2003).

Accidents at work by economic activity

Economic activity	April-June 2002 (revised)						April-June 2003					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	10	0.9	0	0.0	10	0.8	10	0.9	1	0.7	11	0.9
Fishing	3	0.3	0	0.0	3	0.2	3	0.3	0	0.0	3	0.2
Mining and Quarrying	3	0.3	0	0.0	3	0.2	4	0.4	0	0.0	4	0.3
Manufacturing	409	35.0	39	29.8	448	34.4	409	36.4	41	30.1	450	35.7
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	42	3.6	1	0.8	43	3.3	42	3.7	0	0.0	42	3.3
Construction	139	11.9	1	0.8	140	10.8	159	14.1	3	2.2	162	12.8
Wholesale and Retail Trade	72	6.2	5	3.8	77	5.9	52	4.6	2	1.5	54	4.3
Hotels and Restaurants	76	6.5	12	9.2	88	6.8	42	3.7	14	10.3	56	4.4
Transport, Storage and Communication	70	6.0	7	5.3	77	5.9	73	6.5	10	7.4	83	6.6
Financial Intermediation	2	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.2	0	0.0	5	3.7	5	0.4
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	22	1.9	6	4.6	28	2.2	22	2.0	4	2.9	26	2.1
Public Administration and Defence	32	2.7	2	1.5	34	2.6	62	5.5	28	20.6	90	7.1
Education	34	2.9	25	19.1	59	4.5	5	0.4	1	0.7	6	0.5
Health and Social Work	0	0.0	6	4.6	6	0.5	1	0.1	9	6.6	10	0.8
Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities	12	1.0	2	1.5	14	1.1	32	2.8	3	2.2	35	2.8
unknown	244	20.9	25	19.1	269	20.7	209	18.6	15	11.0	224	17.8
Total	1170	100.0	131	100.0	1301	100.0	1125	11.0	136	100.0	1261	100.0

(NSO, 107/2003)

7.4. Representation in Unions – Gender Issues

Facts

- People in the informal economy are marginalised or excluded from the mainstream economy and therefore are not covered by labour law and regulations. They are engaged in poor quality jobs, with low productivity and incomes, poor working conditions and occupational health and safety standards and limited access to knowledge, technology, finance and markets. They are unrecognised, unregistered, unprotected and socially excluded. Their problems are compounded by their lack of organisation and voice at work.

- The informal economy is a great challenge to trade unions. A large part of the world's work-force is increasingly involved in the informal economy. Many of these are women (ILO, 2001:2).

Theory

- Collective bargaining is a right and an important mechanism for eliminating gender pay gaps and to improve working conditions (ILO, 2001:2).

- It is important for collective bargaining to incorporate the gender perspective into all areas of policy, and to increase women's participation in the bodies and decision making process involved (Shapiro and Olgiati, 2002:117).

Guidelines

- Promote the election of women trade union officials and ensure that trade union officials elected to represent women are given job protection and physical security in connection with the discharge of their functions (ILO, 2001:2).

- Organise awareness raising campaigns that focus on women's legal rights and also on the benefits of unionization. This is especially important because women do not understand how unions can help them. Therefore such sensitisation activities are crucial (ILO, 2001: 6).

7.5 Legal Redress

Legal redress may be sought by those who feel they have been treated unjustly. Here is a list of areas where discriminatory issues may arise:

Labour standards legislation and equality concerns

Wages
Minimum wages are of particular importance to women because women predominate in lower-paid work where minimum wages are most relevant and because women are less likely to be in unionised sectors where wages are set through collective bargaining.

Equal pay
Continued disparities between the wages of women and men underline the importance of equal pay provisions in legislation. Experience has shown that "equal pay for the same work" provides only limited protection as men and women generally do different types of work and female-dominated work is generally undervalued. Current efforts (and international agreements) thus focus on *equal pay for work of equal value.*

Leave
Leave provisions of particular importance from an equality perspective are maternity leave(adequate leave for child-bearing) and parental/family leave (provisions available to *men as well as women* to enable them to fulfill family responsibilities).

Protective legislation for women
Protective legislation has often banned work by women in particular areas (e.g., underground mining) or required certain working conditions for women but not for men (e.g., levels of exposure to toxic substances, limits on working hours and night work). Such legislation is now under review in many countries for its impact in restricting women's job opportunities.

Reviews can consider which standards are justified and should be extended to protect both men and women, which should be limited to specific circumstances (e.g., protection during pregnancy) and which should be abolished.

Non-standard work
Part-time and temporary workers, homeworkers, and domestic workers – categories in which women predominate – are particularly vulnerable in the labour market. It is important to review labour standards legislation in light of the protection given to these workers (e.g., in relation to minimum wages, hours of work, rights to unionise, etc).
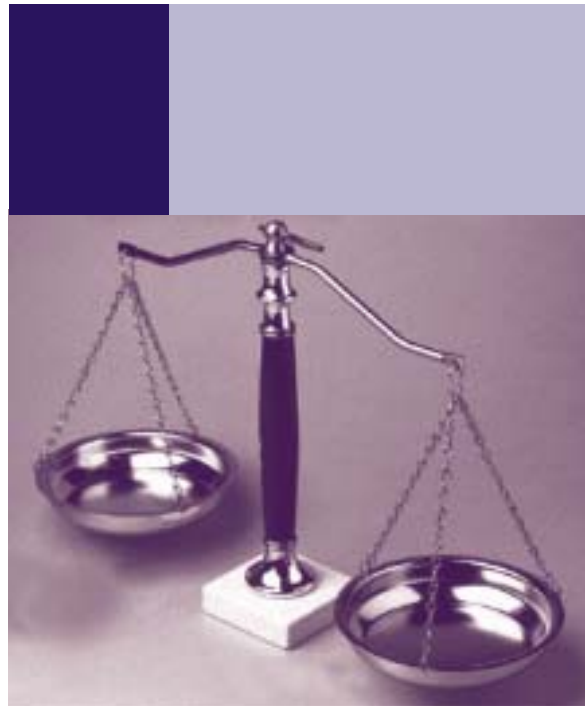
Non-discrimination
Specification of the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of sex in employment (including recruitment, contracts, training, promotion, conditions of work and remuneration) is important in promoting the principle of equality in employment and providing a means of recourse.

Implementation and enforcement
Even where labour standards exist, implementation may be uneven. Increased knowledge among workers and unions of labour standards and workers' rights is a means to support enforcement. An emphasis on women's employment rights and equality provisions in awareness activities is a means of enabling women to organise to claim their rights in relation to employers and to gain the attention and support of unions on these issues (Schalkwyk and Woruniuk, 1998).

Guidelines

- The new law codifying the Conditions of Employment (Regulation) Act, (Cap 135) and the Industrial Relations Act (Cap 266), Act No XX11 of 2002 "is now practically totally in force" (Spiteri-Bailey, 11/2/03:20).

- Employees should inform themselves of their statutory entitlements and discuss the provision of family-friendly work arrangements with colleagues and trade unions representatives. They should suggest the provision of such arrangements to management, either directly or through trade unions where appropriate (Fisher, 2000:90).

International agreements

- **Beijing Platform for Action, Fourth World Conference on Women (1995)**
  Paras. 165, 178, 179 particularly concerned with employment. Endorsed by 189 countries.

- **UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)**
  Article 11 addresses equality in employment. Convention has 97 signatories.

- **ILO Convention No. 111, Discrimination (employment and occupation) (1958)**
  Concerns equality of treatment and opportunity, including access to employment and conditions of work. Ratified by 130 countries.

- **ILO Convention No. 100, Equal remuneration (1951)**
  Convention establishes the principles of equal pay for women and men workers for work of equal value. Ratified by 137 countries.

- **ILO Convention No. 156, Workers with family responsibilities (1981)**
  Concerned with the ability of both men and women to reconcile work and family responsibilities. Ratified by 27 countries.
  (Schalkwyk and Woruniuk, 1998)

Facts

The Industrial Tribunal
Cases brought before the Industrial Tribunal
during the years 2001 and 2002.
During 2001 99 cases were forwarded:
• 63 were forwarded by men
• 24 were forwarded by women
• 12 industrial disputes

During 2002 136 cases were forwarded:
• 84 were forwarded by men
• 32 were forwarded by women
• 20 industrial disputes

Cases mentioned above forwarded by
individuals (not disputes) were all about
alleged unjust dismissals.

The new law enacted in 2003 allows for
individuals who feel that they are
discriminated to forward their case
personally. Since then 5 cases were brought
regarding alleged discriminatory treatment.
Four of these cases were brought by men
while the other was brought by a woman
who is alleging that she suffered sexual
harassment.

(Micallef, Industrial Tribunal, Personal
communication 22/10/2003)

Concluding Facts
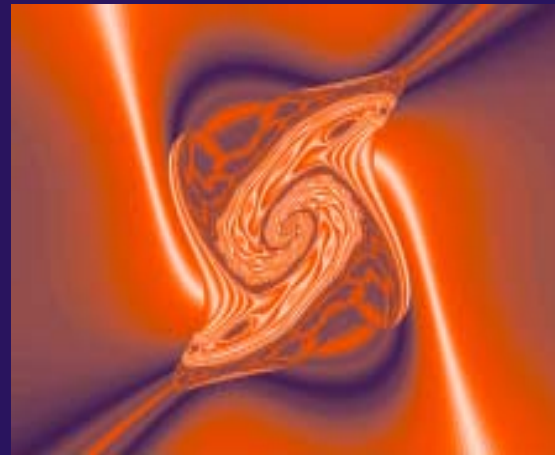
Globalisation has created both unprecedented economic opportunities as well as having deepened social inequalities and personal insecurities. Both women and men have been affected. However, gender inequalities persist and it is overwhelmingly women who suffer the most:

- With 54% of working age women in the world's labour force as compared to over 80% male participation, the world is not making the most of its female talents and potentials.

- Poverty is increasingly feminised. Women constitute 70% of the world's 1.3 billion absolute poor.

- Half of the world's labour is in sex-stereotyped occupations, with women dominating those occupations which are lowest paying and least protected.

- More and more women are entering paid work but more jobs have often not meant better jobs. In developed countries, most new employment has been in part-time jobs, while in developing countries women have gone mainly into the informal sector and home-based work. Globally, women earn 20-30 % less than men.

- Women continue to be mainly responsible for the "care economy". If the value of the unpaid, invisible work done by women – approximately US$11 trillion per annum – is included, global output would be almost 50 % greater.

- Some women have breached glass walls and ceilings, but worldwide they hold only 1% of chief executive positions. The majority experience the effects of the so-called "sticky floor" – on the bottom rungs of their occupation.

- More women are creating their own businesses, which are important sources of employment. But the policy, regulatory and institutional environments are often unfriendly to women entrepreneurs.

- Women are increasingly migrating, both legally and illegally, for employment. Female migrant workers are among the most vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. The international trafficking of women and children (boys and girls) is one of the most serious and fastest growing problems today.

- Women continue to have less access than men to investments in skills, knowledge and lifelong learning. In a world increasingly dominated by information and communication technology, gender inequalities lead to new forms of social exclusion.

- The gender gap is greying into a poverty trap: women face a much higher risk than men of a drastic drop in living standards when they retire. Yet, women account for the majority of the over-60 population in almost all countries.

- Men too are facing growing employment insecurity. In some countries, open unemployment rates are higher for men than for women, and new job opportunities are more women-friendly (ILO, Genprom, 1996-2003).

Glossary

Counselling: Facilitates and enhances the personal growth of the individual and is directed towards some set of goals which may be immediate or long-range. It is based on the recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual and on the right to personal assistance in time of need. It is client-centred with the optimum development of the whole person and the fullest realisation of his/her potential. It is a continuous, sequential and educational process

Discrimination: Any distinction, exclusion or preference based on designated criteria such as race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction, social origin or other designated criteria which have the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation. The existence of discrimination in fact (in reality or in practice) is *de facto* discrimination (a legal expression). The existence of discrimination in law is *de jure* discrimination (a legal expression). (ILO, 2001 :8) Discrimination includes:

- Treatment of people based on sex or because of family responsibilities and includes the treatment of a person in a less favourable manner than other person has been or would be treated on the grounds of sex or because of family responsibilities.
- Activities that deny to the members of a particular group resources or rewards which can be obtained by others. Discrimination has to be distinguished from prejudice, although the two are usually quite closely associated. It can be the case that individuals who are prejudiced against others do not engage in discriminatory practices against them; conversely, people may act in a discriminatory fashion even though they are not prejudiced against those subject to such discrimination (Giddens, 1997:582).

Direct or indirect discrimination: Sex discrimination can be overt or direct discrimination or more subtle, indirect discrimination. Employers may discriminate against women or men directly by limiting applications for certain jobs to only men or only women. Discrimination is indirect when employers impose criteria for applicants or specify characteristics which are not closely related to the inherent requirements of the job, as a screening device. The purpose of the screening is either to exclude women or to obtain workers of a certain type. Many jobs are still seen as exclusively 'male' jobs or 'female' jobs (ILO, 2001:8).

Femininity: The characteristic forms of behaviour expected of women in any given culture (Giddens, 1997:590).

Feminist movement: A movement concerned with promoting the rights and interests of women in society. (Giddens,1997:590).

Gender: Social expectations about behaviour regarded as appropriate for the members of each sex. Gender does not refer to the physical attributes in terms of which men and women differ, but to socially formed traits of masculinity and femininity. The study of gender relations has become one of the most important areas of sociology in recent years although for a long time they received little attention (Giddens, 1997:582).

Gender bias: A situation in which one gender is given greater recognition or opportunity than the other. Also, the absence of girls and women in research, discussions, resources and decision making levels (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Gender-blind and gender neutral: 'Gender-blind' does not distinguish targets, participants or beneficiaries by sex or gender. 'Gender-blind' policies and programmes are not necessarily 'gender-neutral' in impact, that is they do not necessarily affect men and women in the same way (ILO, 2001:8).

Gender analysis: The systematic effort to identify and understand the roles and needs of women and men in a given socio-economic context. To carry out gender analysis, it is necessary to collect statistics by sex, identify gender differentials in the division of labour and the access to and control over resources, identify the practical and strategic gender needs of women and men, identify the constraints and opportunities facing women and men and assess the institutional capacities to promote gender equality. (ILO, 2001:8)

Gender planning: Gender planning consists of developing and implementing specific measures and organisational arrangements for the promotion of gender equality, identifying how to incorporate gender concerns into mainstream activities and ensuring that adequate resources are earmarked (ILO, 2001:8).

Gender mainstreaming: A strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres and at all levels, so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality (ILO, 2001:8).

The Beijing Platform for Action defines gender mainstreaming as the incorporation "of a gender perspective into all policies and programmes so that, before decisions are taken an anlysis is made of the effects on women and men respectively" (Callus, and Camilleri, 2000:4).

"Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality." (UNDP, 2000:34).

Gender Equality: Equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men, girls and boys. Gender equality is not just a "women's issue"; it concerns men as well. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same, but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female (ILO, 2001:8).

Gender equitable: an adjective, which in the educational sector describes situations or instructional materials which provide equal recognition of or equal opportunities for both females and males (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Gender equity: the provision of equality of opportunity and the realisation of equality of results for all students based on individual aptitudes, abilities and interests, regardless of gender (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Gender equity programme: the deliberate, planned activities undertaken by any school or school division in order to bring about gender equity (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Guidance: is normally defined as giving information, direction and advice to a decision or action. It is an integral and central part of education. Effective guidance is conducive to more effective learning and

higher educational attainment. It empowers persons to take responsibility for themselves, their own development and learning rather than imposing values and decisions (ETC HR).

Head of household: Although for administrative reasons it has traditionally been assumed that man is the head of the household, for social security and statistical definition, "head of household is defined as the contributor of the biggest share of the household income" (NSO 69, 15/5/03).

Identity: The distinctive characteristics of a person's character or the character of a group. Both individual and group identity are largely provided by social markers. Thus one of the most important markers of an individual's identity is his or her name. The name is an important part of the person's individuality. Naming is also important for group identity. For instance, national identity is governed by whether one is 'English', 'French', 'American' and so forth (Giddens, 1997:583).

Inclusionary language: Language which mentions both genders and gives them equal status (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Masculinity: The characteristic forms of behaviour expected of men in any given culture (Giddens, 1997:592).

Norms: Rules of conduct which specify appropriate behaviour in a given range of social contacts. A norm either prescribes a given type of behaviour, or forbids it. All human groups follow definite types of norm which are always backed by sanctions of one kind or another – varying from informal disapproval to physical punishment or execution (Giddens, 1997:583).

Positive action: To eliminate the current direct and indirect consequences of past discrimination, special measures may need to be designed in order to achieve *de facto* equality of opportunity and treatment. Such positive measures (also termed affirmative measures) are intended to be temporary: once the consequences of past discrimination have been rectified, the

measures should be removed. Positive action is seen as essential for the achievement of genuine equality between women and men in the world of work and society. Positive action may encompass a wide range of measures, including corrective actions such as setting targets for women's/men's participation in activities from which they have previously been excluded, or promotional measures designed to give women/men access to wider opportunities (ILO, 2001:8).

Portfolio worker: A worker who possesses a diversity of skills and qualifications and is therefore able to move easily from one job to job (Giddens, 1997:594).

Sameness or difference: Gender equality does not mean **same treatment**. If gender equality is seen as requiring men and women to be treated the same, this may lead to women being offered equality only on male terms (e.g. only if they can conform to male-centred norms or requirements) and/or vice versa and may reinforce the notion that difference = disadvantage. It is also important to address changes in male-gendered (but often taken as neutral) organizational and occupational structures, practices, cultures, norms, value systems, etc. Such changes may require "women-friendly" provisions to help women adapt to, or get on within structures as they currently are, or, alternatively, call for changes in those structures, cultures, etc. to accommodate women or vice versa (ILO, 2001:8).

Sanction: A mode of reward or punishment that reinforces socially expected forms of behaviour (Giddens, 1997:594).

Sex: Identifies the biological differences between women and men. While sex is genetically determined, gender roles are learned, vary widely within and between cultures, and are thus amenable to change over time (ILO, 2001:8).

Sexual Harassment: The making of unwanted sexual advances by one individual towards another, in which the first individual persists even though it is made clear that the other party is not interested (Giddens, 1997:595).

Social constraint: A term referring to the fact that the groups and societies of which we are part exert a conditioning influence on our behaviour (Giddens, 1997:595).

Social self: The basis of self-consciousness in human individuals, according to the theory of G. H, Mead. The social self is the identity conferred on an individual by the reactions of others. A person achieves self-consciousness by becoming aware of this social identity (Hardy, 2001:595).

Social mobility: Movement of individuals or groups between different social positions. Vertical mobility refers to movement up or down a hierarchy in a stratification system. Lateral mobility is physical movement of individuals or groups from one region to another. When analysing vertical mobility, sociologists distinguish between how far an individual is mobile in the course of his or her own career, and how far the position which the person reaches differs from that of his or her parents (Hardy, 2001:585).

Stereotype: This term refers to preconceived views or ideas about what is appropriate behaviour for one gender or the other (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Stereotypical thinking: Thought processes involving rigid and inflexible categories, and which are generally based on prejudice (Giddens, 1997:595).

Values: Ideas held by human individuals or groups about what is desirable, proper, good or bad. Differing values represent key aspects of variations in human culture. What individuals value is strongly influenced by the specific culture in which they happen to live (Giddens, 1997:586).

Ways of knowing: the ways in which individuals acquire, organise and interpret information, and interact with and react to their environment. Socialisation experiences have an important influence on the ways in which individuals learn and the ways they know the world (Saskatchewan, 1991:28).

Work: Any kind of purposive activity whether paid or unpaid, full-time or part-time, formal or informal.

Work tends to be an activity that transforms nature and is usually undertaken in social situations, but exactly what counts as work is dependent on the specific social circumstances under which such activities are undertaken, and critically, how these circumstances and activities are interpreted by those involved. Whether any particular activity is experienced as work or leisure or both or neither is intimately related to the temporal, spatial and cultural conditions in existence. It is noticeable that we often avoid the term 'work' to describe activities involving children. Workers, doctors, farmers and hairdressers may 'work' but parents just 'look after' children. We should consider the past and present definitions of work as symbols of cultures and especially as mirrors of power: if what counts as work is glorified or despised or gender-related, then the language and practice of work reflects the wider social power (Grint, 1998: 6-7; 11). In modern societies, there remain many types of work which do not involve direct payment of wages or salary (such as housework) (Giddens, 1997:586).

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