



Gender norms in Ireland

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Overview

This is the sixth in a series called Statistical Spotlight. A Statistical Spotlight is a publication focused on a specific topic, gathering together available statistical data to highlight trends or patterns in the data. The publications include a short commentary on the data, detailing (where relevant) trends and comparisons (e.g. comparisons between sex, age groups, points in time etc.).

The primary purpose of this publication has been to explore where Ireland would stand under the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) framework of restrictive masculinities. In the Report "Man Enough? Measuring Masculine Norms to Promote Women's Empowerment"¹, the OECD identifies ten norms of restrictive masculinities that hinder women's empowerment and greater gender equality. This Spotlight aims to collate evidence of restrictive masculinities in the Irish context, in order to promote an evidence-based approach to policy making in the area of women's empowerment and gender equality.

Data were sourced from the OECD, the Central Statistics Office (CSO), Eurostat, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), Eurobarometer, Eurofound, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), and the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI).

Introduction

The OECD Report defines restrictive masculinities as perceived notions or norms, shared by both men and women, that promote inflexible expectations of how men are expected to behave in order to be considered a "real" man. The OECD have categorised ten norms that operate within the public (economic and political) and private spheres, which are outlined as follows:

¹ To read the report, visit: https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/development/man-enough-measuring-masculine-norms-to-promote-women-s-empowerment_6ffd1936-en

**Table 1.** Ten norms of restrictive masculinities

Economic and political spheres	Private sphere
<i>Norms of restrictive masculinities say a 'real man' should:</i>	
1. Be the breadwinner	6. Not do unpaid care and domestic work
2. Be financially dominant	7. Have the final say in household decisions
3. Work in "manly" jobs	8. Protect and exercise guardianship
4. Be the "ideal worker"	9. Dominate sexual and reproductive choices
5. Be a "manly" leader	10. Control household assets

Source: OECD, 2021

The OECD Report highlights how these norms can be directly associated with negative consequences for women and girls. For example, norms that support the view that men's labour is more important and valuable than a woman's and that men should not do unpaid care and domestic work can promote the devaluation of a woman's economic contribution and justify the exclusion of women from the labour force, particularly from high status jobs and decision-making positions. Although norms of restrictive masculinities are also associated with negative consequences for men and boys, as well as people from sexual and gender minorities², the data in the OECD Report focuses on the consequences for women. However, as rigid cisgender identity, heterosexuality and homophobia are also features of restrictive masculinities, it is noted in the Report³ that efforts to shift restrictive masculinities towards gender-equitable alternatives can help to promote the inclusion of people from gender and sexual minorities.

Norms of restrictive masculinities stand in contrast to other masculinities, known as "gender-equitable masculinities", which present a more flexible view of how men are expected to behave. The OECD report notes that gender-equitable masculinities try to avoid defining a man's role in the household solely as a provider, which allows for deeper engagement of men in all aspects of household life, including unpaid work

²The term sexual minority is an umbrella term for those individuals whose sexual orientation is not heterosexual. Gender minority is an umbrella term that encompasses transgender and gender-nonconforming people – individuals whose current gender identity or gender expression do not conform to social expectations based on their sex assigned at birth. For more information, see: <https://www.gov.ie/en/publication/88354-lgbti-youth-in-ireland-and-across-europe-a-two-phased-landscape-and-research-gap-analysis/>

³ All references to "Report" refer to the OECD report, whereas all references to "report" refer to this Spotlight.



such as housework and childcare. This helps to support women's access to the labour market and decision-making positions, and maximises their agency and autonomy over their time, bodies, and resources.

The exercise was undertaken in line with commitment in the National Strategy for Women and Girls 2017-2021 to undertake activities to promote positive gender norms and to challenge negative gender norms. The Spotlight aims to collate evidence of restrictive masculinities in the Irish context, in order to promote an evidence-based approach to policy making in the area of women's empowerment and gender equality. This will mainly comprise of attitudinal data on the prevalence of restrictive masculinities, as well as data that highlights the possible consequences these attitudes can have on women living in Ireland⁴. Where possible, the findings will be compared with data from other European countries, in order to assess Ireland's progress amongst its peers. Data assessing legal frameworks that both promote and constrain the impacts of restrictive masculine norms can be found in the Appendix to this report.

While the OECD report presents a set of indicators for each of the ten norms in order to guide data collection efforts, data from Ireland is only available for a small minority of these indicators, with data gaps particularly prevalent in the private sphere. While data gaps are not necessarily an issue, they do limit the ability to accurately measure developments in these norms over time. This Spotlight will therefore highlight some of the current data gaps and where possible, will present some alternative indicators from both the public and private spheres using data that is available from the Irish context⁵. All data used in this report is presented on males and females, and while this gender binary⁶ is problematic due to the exclusion of gender minorities, it reflects the limitations of the current data available.

⁴ As noted previously, it is acknowledged that norms of restrictive masculinities have negative impacts for men and boys and gender and sexual minorities. However, as this exercise was undertaken in line with the National Strategy for Women and Girls 2017-2021, the Spotlight will mainly focus on the consequences for women and girls. For this reason, the data tables throughout this report are typically presented in order of ascending/descending values for females.

⁵ There other data sources from Ireland that can reveal evidence of restrictive masculinities when examined through a gender lens, such as poverty and domestic violence. However, as these topics are currently outside the ten themes of the OECD framework of restrictive masculinities, they are not included in this report.

⁶ The term "gender" will be used as a synonym for "sex" throughout this report, as much of the data presented in this report use the terms interchangeably. It is unclear if the use of the term "gender" by the sources in this report



The report will first outline indicators identified by the OECD to report on the five public sphere norms, and in each case, will highlight if data is available from Ireland and from other countries. The report will then present data from Ireland for the OECD indicators identified under each of the five public sphere norms, as well as additional indicators and associated data from Ireland that are not mentioned in the OECD report, but could also be used to measure Ireland's progress on the five public sphere norms of restrictive masculinities. The report will then complete the same process for the five private sphere norms.

Public sphere

The OECD Report notes that historically, patriarchal norms have defined the public as the domain of men, specifically the economic and political spheres. The Report highlights five norms of restrictive masculinities that dominate the workplace and political arena, which relate to being the breadwinner, being financially dominant, working in “manly” jobs, being the ideal worker, and being a “manly” leader.

While the Report highlights a number of indicators that can be used to measure the prevalence and consequences of these five norms, data from Ireland is not collected for the majority of these indicators. This section will highlight these data gaps, and will outline the data that is available from Ireland to measure the OECD indicators in the public sphere.

OECD indicators used to measure norms in the public sphere

1. Be the breadwinner

A man should be the breadwinner, working for pay to provide for the material needs of the household

Masculinities are strongly associated with carrying out work to “**be the breadwinner**” in order to financially support the household. The OECD Report highlights how social expectations towards men's role as financial providers can undervalue the role of women in the workplace, which can lead to the restricted participation of women in

refers to biological sex at birth or gender identity. However, this report acknowledges that not all people identify with their sex at birth, and recognises the importance of access to data that captures gender identity.



the labour force. In many countries, the higher perceived value of men in the economy leads to a preference for sons over daughters, which can hinder girls' access to education and subsequently to higher paid jobs.

Table 2a. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 1: Be the breadwinner

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries? ⁷
Preferred indicators⁸		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Men should really be the ones to bring money home to provide for their families, not women	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A man who stays at home to look after his children is less of a man	No	Yes, 27 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, it is important that men are the ones who make money to provide for their families, not women	No	No
Prevalence of female informal employment	No	Yes, 38 countries
Female labour force participation and employment rates	Yes, see Table 3a and 3b	Yes, 141 countries
Percentage of low-paid workers, among all low-paid workers, who are female	Yes, see Table 3c	Yes, 54 countries
Alternative indicators⁹		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women	No	Yes, 49 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: The most important role of a man is to earn money	Yes, see Table 3d	Yes, 28 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Responsibility for providing financial support to the family rests with the husband	No	Yes, 12 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: It is a man's job to earn money and a woman's job to take care of the home and family	No	Yes, 2 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Men should support their family financially in order to be good husbands/partners	No	Yes, 1 country

Source: OECD, 2021

⁷ "Other countries" refers to all countries, not just those within the OECD.

⁸ Preferred indicators, known as "ideal indicators" in the OECD report, are indicators identified by the OECD that are best suited to measuring progress on each norm. Some of these preferred indicators have already been used to collect data in one or more countries, while others have not yet been used.

⁹ Alternative indicators, also referred to as "available indicators", are indicators that are not classified as "ideal" by the OECD, but have been used previously in one or more countries to collect data that could be used to track gender norms.



2. Be financially dominant

A man should be financially dominant, earning more than women

According to the OECD report, the belief that men are “**financially dominant**” and should earn more than women is associated with the belief that women should be taking on a bigger share of the caring and household work. These beliefs can drive women to restrict their career goals by not seeking out higher paid positions and negotiating their pay. These norms are also internalised by decision makers in the workplace, and can feed into employer biases during hiring and promotion decision-making.

Table 2b. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 2: Be financially dominant

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: If a women earns more money than her husband, it's almost certain to cause problems	No	Yes, 49 countries
Percentage of the population considering it acceptable that in some circumstances, a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Men should earn more than their spouse	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, a man who earns less than his wife will be judged	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Men should earn more than their female colleagues	No	No
Percentage of women reporting that they take part in the decision-making process at home	No	No
Gender wage gap by occupation	Yes, see Table 4a	Yes, 39 countries
Representation of women in managerial positions	Yes, see Table 4b	Yes, 161 countries
Representation of women in senior and middle management positions	Yes, see Table 4c	Yes, 108 countries
Representation of women on company boards	Yes, see Table 4d	Yes, 57 countries
Alternative indicators		
Percentage considering it acceptable that in some circumstances, a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job	Yes, see Table 4e	Yes, 28 countries
Percentage of the population finding it acceptable that women earn less than men for the same work	No	Yes, 17 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women	No	Yes, 49 countries
Percentage of women for whom the decision-maker regarding major household purchases is mainly the husband	No	Yes, 70 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



3. A man should work in “manly” jobs

A man should work in “manly” jobs, regarding those professions that society defines as “men’s work” and not those it views as “women’s work”

The OECD Report emphasises how the belief that “real” men work in “manly” jobs can also reinforce gender wage gaps, as traditionally “masculine” jobs such as managerial roles and positions in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) tend to be more remunerative, while traditionally “feminine” jobs such as nursing and cleaning tend to be lower paid. This gender segregation and the associated “role model effect” can lead to lower participation of women and girls in education programmes associated with “manly” professions, further reinforcing the division of work into masculine and feminine jobs.

Table 2c. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 3: A man should work in “manly” jobs

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A man who works in “feminine jobs”, such as a nurse, nanny, teacher, etc., is less of a man	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, if men work in “feminine jobs”, such as a nurse, nanny, teacher, etc., they are/would be judged	No	No
Percentage of the population associating some jobs as feminine or masculine, not as gender neutral	No	Yes, 2 countries
Female representation in “manly” jobs and sectors	No	No
Representation of women in managerial positions	Yes, see Table 4b	Yes, 161 countries
Representation of women in senior and middle management positions	Yes, see Table 4c	Yes, 108 countries
Representation of women on company boards	Yes, see Table 4d	Yes, 57 countries
Representation of women as heads of states (presidents)	Yes, see Table 5a	Yes, 38 countries
Representation of women in parliaments	Yes, see Table 5b	Yes, 190 countries
Percentage of elected seats held by women in deliberative bodies of local government	Yes, see Table 5c	Yes, 115 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



4. A man should be the “ideal worker”

A man should be the “ideal worker”, prioritising work over all other aspects of life

The OECD Report discusses how norms of restrictive masculinities dictate that a “real” man should display masculine traits in the workplace and in order to be perceived as an “ideal worker”. This can be demonstrated by not allowing personal or family life to come before work commitments, for example by working long hours and being willing to relocate for work, and by showing dominance and competitiveness in the workplace. This norm is reflected in the lack of paid paternity leave in many countries, as well as in the poor uptake of paid paternity leave in countries that do have the scheme in place.

Table 2d. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 4: A man should be the “ideal worker”

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: The ideal worker should prioritise work over family	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: The ideal worker has “masculine attributes”	No	No
Percentage of men reporting that being manly/masculine will help them get a pay rise	No	Yes, 4 countries
Percentage of men reporting that being manly/masculine will help them get or keep a job	No	Yes, 4 countries
Prevalence of female informal employment	No	Yes, 38 countries
Female labour force participation and employment rates	Yes, see Table 3a and 3b	Yes, 141 countries
Percentage of low-paid workers, among all low-paid workers, who are female	Yes, see Table 3c	Yes, 54 countries
Percentage of the population approving of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children	Yes, see Table 6a	Yes, 28 countries
Number of users of publicly administered paternity leave benefits or publicly administered paid paternity leave per 100 live births	Yes, see Table 6b	Yes, 11 countries
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of currently working men who took no parental leave after birth of most recent child	No	Yes, 15 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



5. A man should be a “manly” leader

A man should be a “manly” leader, cultivating an assertive and space-occupying leadership style

The final public sphere norm details how norms of restrictive masculinities dictate that men in leadership positions should be “**manly**” leaders, in order for their leadership qualities to be taken seriously. The OECD Report notes that men are considered natural leaders, leading to widespread social norms questioning women’s ability to lead. Women who do gain access to leadership positions are also often expected to emulate men to prove themselves as leaders, and often have to take on a higher burden of work than male leaders to gain the same recognition. This can lead to women refraining from applying for and pursuing these roles, contributing to the under-representation of women in leadership positions and reinforcing the belief that men make better leaders.

Table 2e. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 5: A man should be a “manly” leader

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A leader should have patriarchal masculine attributes in order to be successful	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, a leader is expected to have patriarchal masculine attributes	No	No
Prevalence of female informal employment	No	Yes, 38 countries
Female labour force participation and employment rates	Yes, see Table 3a and 3b	Yes, 141 countries
Percentage of low-paid workers, among all low-paid workers, who are female	Yes, see Table 3c	Yes, 54 countries
Number of users of publicly administered paternity leave benefits or publicly administered paid paternity leave per 100 live births	Yes, see Table 6b	Yes, 11 countries
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Men make better political leaders than women do	No	Yes, 49 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Men make better business executives than women do	No	Yes, 49 countries
Percentage of women and men agreeing with the following statement: I’d feel uncomfortable if my boss were a woman	No	Yes, 27 countries
Percentage of the population disagreeing with the following statement: I would feel very comfortable having a woman as CEO of a major company in my country	No	Yes, 10 countries
Percentage of the population disagreeing with the following statement: I would feel very comfortable having a woman as head of government in my country	No	Yes, 10 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Women should leave politics to men	No	Yes, 5 countries
Proportion of elected seats held by women in deliberative bodies of local government	Yes, see Table 5c	Yes, 115 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



Data used to measure norms in the public sphere

The following section will present the data from Ireland that can be used to measure the five norms of restrictive masculinities that dominate the economic and political spheres. This will mainly consist of data used to measure the indicators identified by the OECD, as outlined in the tables in the previous section. However, additional indicators not mentioned in the OECD Report, along with their associated data, will also be presented in this section. These additional indicators can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of norms of restrictive masculinities in the public sphere in Ireland. It is worth noting that some of these indicators can be used to measure progress in more than one norm.

1. Be the breadwinner

A man should be the breadwinner, working for pay to provide for the material needs of the household

This section presents three preferred indicators and one alternative indicator for Norm 1 where data is available from the Irish context, as well as nine tables of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in Ireland.



Female labour force participation rate

Table 3a. Inactive population as a percentage of the total population, EU 27 (2020)

	Female	Male	Both
Italy	45.3	26.5	35.9
Greece	40.7	24.5	32.6
Romania	40.7	21.3	30.8
Croatia	38.4	27.4	32.9
Poland	36.4	21.7	29.0
Belgium	35.5	27.4	31.4
Hungary	34.7	19.7	27.2
Ireland	33.8	22.3	28.1
Slovakia	33.6	21.7	27.6
EU 27	32.5	21.8	27.1
Bulgaria	32.4	23.2	27.8
Spain	32.4	23.1	27.8
France	32.4	25.5	29.0
Malta	32.3	14.6	22.9
Luxembourg	31.2	24.6	27.8
Czech Republic	30.8	16.7	23.6
Cyprus	30.3	17.7	24.2
Portugal	28.2	23.1	25.7
Slovenia	28.1	22.9	25.4
Austria	27.9	19.0	23.4
Germany	24.2	17.4	20.8
Latvia	24.2	19.3	21.8
Denmark	24.0	18.2	21.0
Estonia	23.7	17.8	20.7
Finland	23.5	20.0	21.7
Netherlands	23.0	15.2	19.1
Lithuania	22.8	20.1	21.5
Sweden	19.7	15.4	17.5

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for females

Female employment rate

Table 3b. Percentage of men and women (aged 20-64) in employment, EU 27 (2020)

	Female	Male	Both
Greece	51.8	70.7	61.1
Italy	52.7	72.6	62.6
Spain	60.0	71.4	65.7
Romania	61.0	80.3	70.8
Croatia	61.3	72.5	66.9
Poland	65.7	81.4	73.6
Belgium	65.9	74.1	70.0
Slovakia	66.1	78.7	72.5
EU 27	66.9	78.0	72.5
Hungary	67.0	83.1	75.0
Ireland	67.4	79.5	73.4
Malta	68.0	85.7	77.4
Luxembourg	68.5	75.6	72.1
Bulgaria	68.9	77.8	73.4
Cyprus	69.1	81.1	74.9
France	69.3	75.0	72.1
Austria	71.5	79.5	75.5
Czech Republic	71.9	87.2	79.7
Portugal	71.9	77.8	74.7
Slovenia	72.4	78.6	75.6
Denmark	74.3	81.3	77.8
Finland	75.0	77.9	76.5
Latvia	75.2	79.0	77.0
Netherlands	75.5	84.4	80.0
Estonia	75.8	81.8	78.8
Lithuania	75.8	77.5	76.7
Germany	76.9	83.1	80.0
Sweden	78.3	83.2	80.8

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values for females

Percentage of low-paid workers, among all low-paid workers, who are female

Table 3c. Low-wage earners as a percentage of all employed persons, EU 27 (2018)

	Female	Male	Both
Latvia	27.7	18.8	23.5
Estonia	27.5	15.0	22.0
Germany	26.2	15.8	20.7
Poland	23.5	20.4	21.9
Lithuania	23.4	21.1	22.3
Croatia	23.1	14.0	18.4
Ireland	22.6	16.7	19.8
Austria	22.4	9.3	14.8
Cyprus	21.9	15.6	18.7
Greece	20.8	18.7	19.7
Netherlands	19.6	17.0	18.2
Slovenia	19.4	13.9	16.5
Czech Republic	19.4	11.4	15.1
Bulgaria	19.2	23.6	21.4
Slovakia	19.2	13.0	16.0
Spain	18.9	10.2	14.3
EU 27	18.2	12.5	15.2
Romania	17.8	22.0	20.0
Malta	17.6	13.9	15.5
Belgium	16.4	11.0	13.7
Luxembourg	15.9	8.5	11.4
Hungary	12.3	10.9	11.6
France	11.3	6.0	8.6
Italy	10.3	7.0	8.5
Denmark	10.2	7.0	8.7
Finland	6.4	3.4	5.0
Portugal	4.7	3.2	4.0
Sweden	4.4	2.8	3.6

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for females



Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: The most important role of a man is to earn money

Table 3d. Percentage who believe that the most important role of a man is to earn money, EU 28 (2016)

	Agree	Disagree
Bulgaria	81%	17%
Hungary	79%	20%
Slovakia	75%	20%
Czech Republic	72%	26%
Latvia	68%	31%
Lithuania	67%	33%
Romania	67%	31%
Greece	65%	35%
Poland	65%	33%
Italy	57%	41%
Croatia	55%	43%
Estonia	53%	45%
EU 28	43%	55%
Austria	42%	56%
Slovenia	42%	57%
Belgium	40%	60%
Portugal	40%	59%
Ireland	39%	59%
Cyprus	39%	60%
Germany	37%	62%
Malta	36%	61%
UK	36%	62%
France	31%	68%
Luxembourg	31%	67%
Spain	27%	71%
Finland	26%	73%
Netherlands	18%	81%
Denmark	17%	80%
Sweden	10%	88%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by highest to lowest agree values

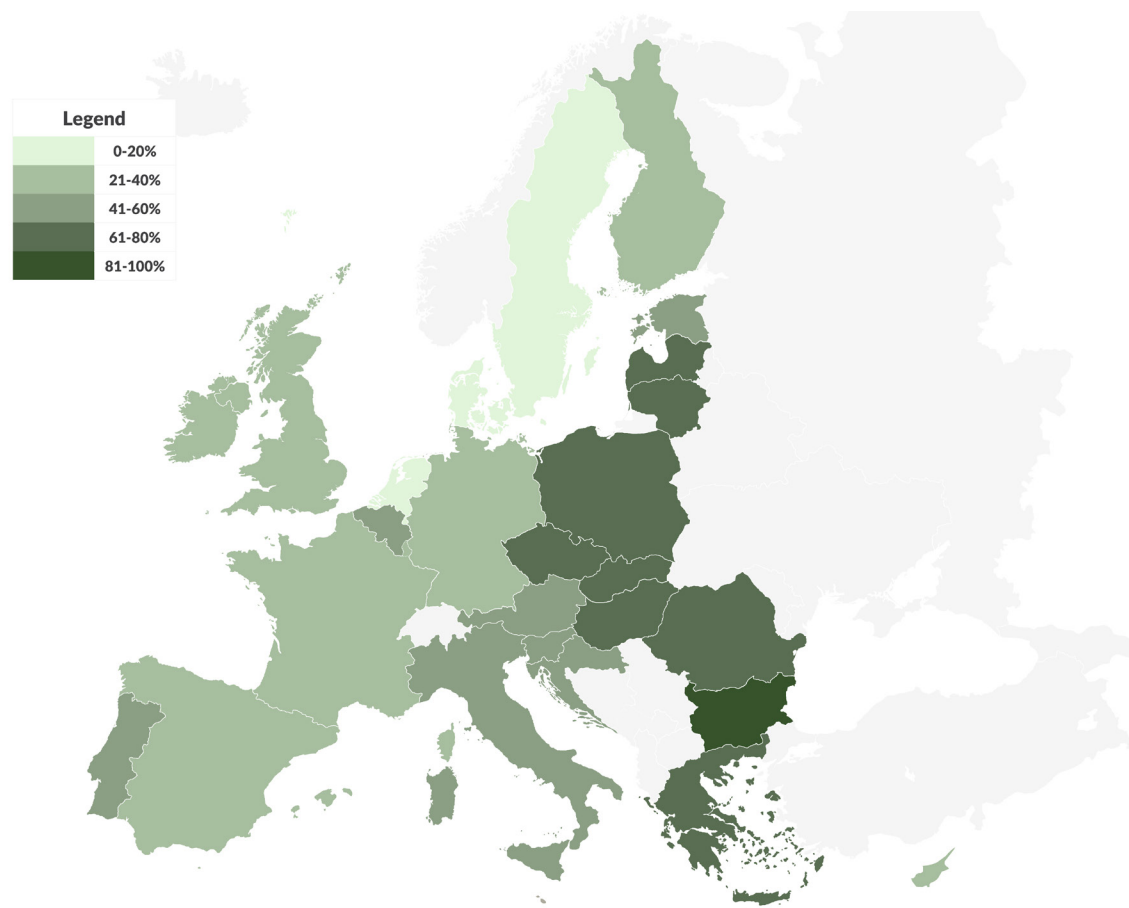


Figure 1. Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: The most important role of a man is to earn money, EU 28 (2016)



Additional data from Ireland

Table 3e. Inactive population (aged 15-64) in Ireland not seeking employment, by main reason (2020)

	Female	Male	Both
Care of adults with disabilities /children or other family/personal reasons	38.5	29.2	34.8
Lay-off	28.3	42.8	34
Education or training	13.3	2.6	9.1
Own illness or disability	5.7	6.1	5.9
Believing no job available	5.7	7.7	6.5
Retirement	3.5	4.6	3.9
Other	3.1	4.6	3.7
No response	1.9	2.4	2.1

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for females

Table 3f. Employment rates of men and women (aged 15-64) by number of children, EU 27 (2020)

	Female					Male				
	1 child	2 children	3 children or more	No children	Total	1 child	2 children	3 children or more	No children	Total
Greece	58.0	62.5	56.7	48.3	52.9	81.2	89.7	85.6	64.7	72.5
Italy	57.9	57.1	43.1	53.2	54.7	79.9	87.2	83.7	68.5	74.7
Spain	64.2	68.3	49.8	59.3	61.7	77.5	87.0	75.3	67.7	73.5
Romania	69.9	64.4	47.6	59.6	62.5	88.2	88.5	80.4	76.4	81.7
Croatia	71.2	75.4	61.5	56.2	63.6	80.3	87.2	84.3	66.4	74.3
Poland	75.6	72.4	57.0	63.1	67.7	89.0	92.8	92.2	76.0	83.4
EU 27	71.9	72.9	58.5	66.2	68.2	85.3	90.5	84.9	74.2	79.6
Belgium	72.2	79.3	61.3	63.7	68.3	83.4	90.1	81.8	69.8	76.6
Ireland	70.3	69.8	61.4	69.5	68.6	84.3	88.6	87.2	76.0	81.2
Luxembourg	73.3	75.1	65.9	65.1	68.8	81.8	86.1	85.6	72.4	77.6
Hungary	68.3	70.0	50.8	70.8	68.8	90.4	92.5	86.2	81.3	85.1
Slovakia	69.7	67.4	54.4	70.9	68.9	86.6	90.3	81.4	76.0	81.0
France	76.3	77.2	60.7	64.2	69.0	83.2	89.2	84.6	68.7	76.4
Malta	77.5	67.9	52.2	67.2	69.3	93.1	94.1	91.1	83.4	87.5
Cyprus	73.4	75.8	64.6	67.6	70.3	86.4	92.7	89.1	77.1	82.6
Bulgaria	76.8	69.5	41.7	70.6	70.8	85.9	87.5	64.3	76.1	79.5
Austria	80.8	80.6	62.4	69.0	72.7	88.4	91.9	85.0	75.8	80.6
Czech Republic	70.3	74.6	62.1	76.6	74.0	95.1	96.6	93.6	84.9	89.5
Slovenia	83.0	86.1	82.5	65.4	74.2	89.9	95.1	95.3	72.1	80.6
Portugal	79.2	82.8	76.0	68.7	74.5	87.2	93.6	88.7	72.9	80.6
Sweden	81.7	85.9	76.3	71.8	75.5	92.0	95.3	88.8	74.2	79.7
Finland	79.5	82.8	73.1	73.5	75.8	88.0	92.8	89.1	72.6	78.7
Netherlands	77.3	84.5	74.7	73.0	76.2	90.0	95.2	91.6	80.7	85.5
Estonia	73.9	75.4	59.0	79.7	76.4	90.7	93.6	89.8	76.6	82.3
Latvia	76.9	79.1	63.7	77.3	76.7	86.7	91.1	84.4	75.4	80.4
Denmark	77.7	85.8	81.5	72.5	76.8	88.9	93.5	92.4	77.1	82.9
Lithuania	80.8	83.2	72.2	75.0	77.6	86.4	90.6	84.5	74.3	79.3
Germany	81.8	79.6	58.7	77.6	77.9	91.0	92.8	83.9	81.3	84.5

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values for females (total)



Table 3g. Employment rates of men and women (aged 15-64) by age of youngest child, EU 27 (2020)

	Female					Male				
	Less than 6	6-11 years	12+	No children	Total	Less than 6	6-11 years	12+	No children	Total
Greece	56.3	61.6	60.8	48.3	52.9	89.5	87.8	80.3	64.7	72.5
Italy	51.1	58.5	59.1	53.2	54.7	86.4	85.8	79.0	68.5	74.7
Spain	61.8	66.4	65.2	59.3	61.7	82.9	83.8	77.7	67.7	73.5
Romania	56.7	65.6	71.6	59.6	62.5	85.7	88.6	87.5	76.4	81.7
Croatia	67.0	74.1	73.4	56.2	63.6	89.2	87.0	77.6	66.4	74.3
Poland	62.6	75.9	80.0	63.1	67.7	94.4	92.1	86.1	76.0	83.4
EU 27	63.7	74.1	74.7	66.2	68.2	89.3	89.0	84.3	74.2	79.6
Belgium	69.9	74.5	75.0	63.7	68.3	87.5	85.7	84.4	69.8	76.6
Ireland	65.0	69.5	69.7	69.5	68.6	88.0	88.3	84.0	76.0	81.2
Luxembourg	74.7	74.9	70.2	65.1	68.8	91.3	85.8	76.7	72.4	77.6
Hungary	39.0	80.8	85.0	70.8	68.8	91.0	91.5	89.3	81.3	85.1
Slovakia	41.1	79.6	85.1	70.9	68.9	88.3	85.6	87.6	76.0	81.0
France	66.3	78.2	78.6	64.2	69.0	88.0	88.9	81.3	68.7	76.4
Malta	66.7	73.4	75.9	67.2	69.3	93.6	94.7	91.8	83.4	87.5
Cyprus	68.3	76.4	76.1	67.6	70.3	91.6	89.5	86.4	77.1	82.6
Bulgaria	57.6	72.7	80.9	70.6	70.8	83.8	84.1	85.6	76.1	79.5
Austria	72.7	80.3	82.8	69.0	72.7	89.4	89.0	89.1	75.8	80.6
Czech Republic	41.4	91.9	92.2	76.6	74.0	96.3	96.6	94.0	84.9	89.5
Slovenia	79.2	86.2	87.6	65.4	74.2	96.1	92.9	89.7	72.1	80.6
Portugal	79.0	82.6	80.0	68.7	74.5	90.8	92.0	87.6	72.9	80.6
Sweden	78.5	86.4	86.9	71.8	75.5	93.9	91.0	94.0	74.2	79.7
Finland	65.8	87.3	89.1	73.5	75.8	91.2	91.8	87.2	72.6	78.7
Netherlands	79.9	78.9	80.9	73.0	76.2	94.7	92.0	91.2	80.7	85.5
Estonia	52.5	86.0	87.1	79.7	76.4	91.9	93.0	89.9	76.6	82.3
Latvia	69.7	80.1	81.5	77.3	76.7	90.7	84.8	86.8	75.4	80.4
Denmark	75.3	86.4	85.5	72.5	76.8	91.1	92.1	91.2	77.1	82.9
Lithuania	76.8	82.1	84.2	75.0	77.6	90.2	87.5	85.0	74.3	79.3
Germany	72.0	80.9	83.1	77.6	77.9	90.7	92.1	90.1	81.3	84.5

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values for females (total)

Table 3h. Percentage of employees in Ireland aged 15 and over earning the national minimum wage or less (Q3 2016-2020)

	Male	Female
2016 Q3	9.6%	10.6%
2017 Q3	8.7%	9.2%
2018 Q3	6.9%	8.8%
2019 Q3	6.1%	7.1%
2020 Q3	6.4%	9.0%

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by year



Table 3i. Part-time workers as a percentage of all employed persons aged 20-64, EU 27 (2020)

	Female	Male	Both
Netherlands	73.8	24.3	47.6
Austria	47.5	9.7	27.6
Germany	40.0	6.9	22.6
Belgium	39.6	9.9	23.9
Italy	32.0	8.0	18.1
Luxembourg	30.5	6.4	17.6
Sweden	30.1	12.7	20.9
Denmark	29.6	11.7	20.2
France	27.9	7.4	17.5
EU 27	27.7	7.2	16.7
Ireland	26.8	8.2	16.8
Spain	22.5	6.2	13.6
Malta	19.9	4.3	10.7
Finland	17.9	9.1	13.4
Estonia	16.3	7.8	11.9
Cyprus	13.4	6.7	9.9
Greece	12.7	5.4	8.5
Slovenia	11.8	4.9	8.0
Latvia	11.1	6.3	8.7
Czech Republic	9.9	2.2	5.6
Portugal	9.8	4.7	7.3
Poland	8.8	3.2	5.7
Lithuania	7.4	4.7	6.0
Hungary	7.2	2.8	4.8
Slovakia	6.	2.6	4.5
Croatia	6.1	3.2	4.5
Romania	5.7	5.5	5.6
Bulgaria	2.1	1.6	1.8

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for females

Table 3j. Percentage of part-time employment in Ireland (aged 20-64) classified as involuntary part-time employment (2011-2020)

	Female	Male	Both
2011	31.0	59.0	38.6
2012	34.2	62.1	42.1
2013	36.0	64.3	44.4
2014	34.6	62.2	42.9
2015	31.1	59.8	39.4
2016	25.2	52.3	33.0
2017	18.5	44.2	25.4
2018	12.3	36.5	18.8
2019	11.8	33.6	17.3
2020	9.7	29.2	14.8

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by year

Table 3k. Main reason for part-time employment in Ireland, employed persons aged 20-64 (2020)

	Female	Male	Both
Care of adults with disabilities/children or other family/personal reasons	61.9	15.2	49.7
Other	13.3	22.4	15.6
Education or training	12.6	28.4	16.7
No full-time job found	9.7	29.2	14.8
Own illness or disability	2.5	3.7	3.1

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for females



Table 3I. Percentage who believe that the most important role of a woman is to take care of her home and family, EU 28 (2016)

	Agree	Disagree
Bulgaria	81%	17%
Hungary	78%	20%
Czech Republic	77%	21%
Poland	77%	21%
Latvia	74%	25%
Lithuania	73%	27%
Slovakia	73%	23%
Estonia	70%	28%
Greece	69%	31%
Romania	69%	29%
Croatia	60%	38%
Cyprus	60%	40%
Slovenia	55%	45%
Ireland	52%	46%
Italy	51%	47%
Portugal	47%	52%
Malta	46%	52%
EU 28	44%	54%
Austria	41%	56%
Finland	40%	59%
Belgium	38%	62%
UK	38%	58%
Luxembourg	32%	66%
Spain	29%	69%
Germany	28%	71%
France	27%	72%
Netherlands	15%	83%
Denmark	14%	83%
Sweden	11%	87%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by highest to lowest agree values

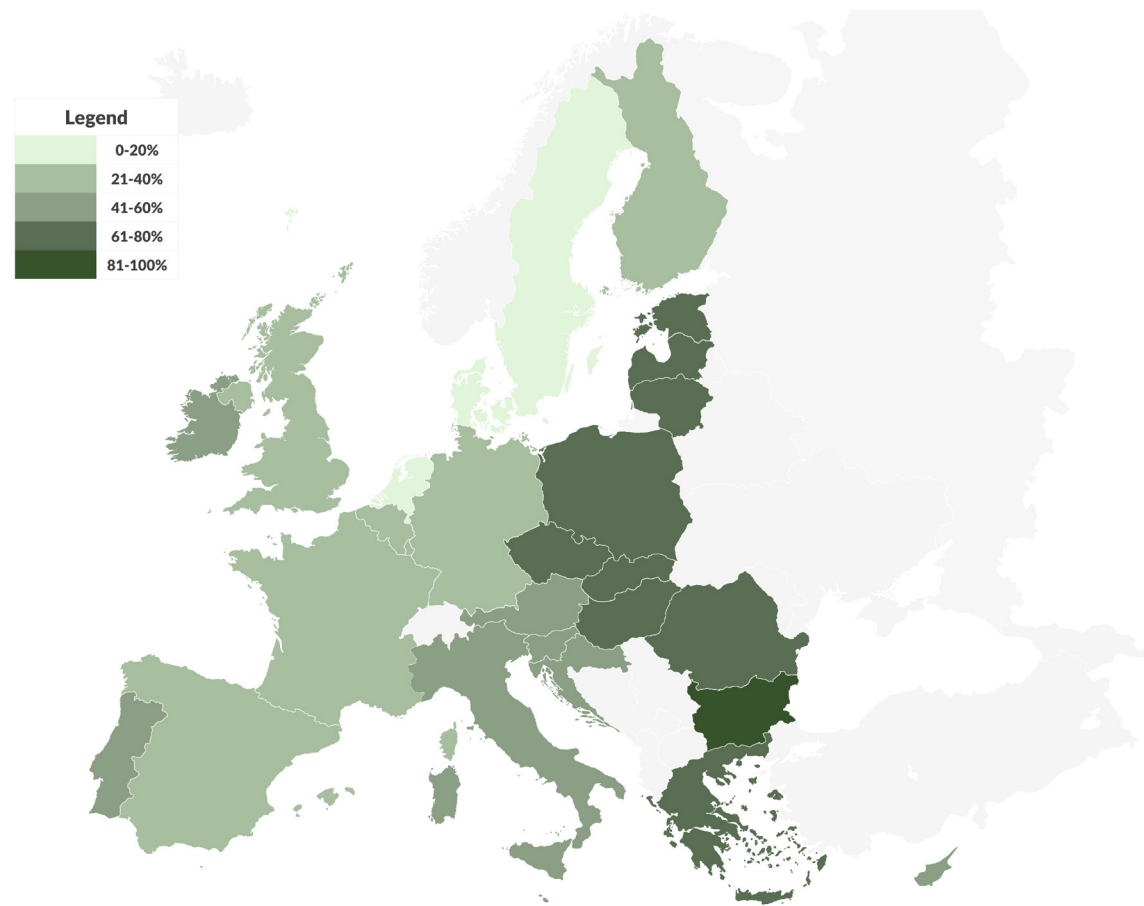


Figure 2. Percentage of the population who believe that the most important role of a woman is to take care of her home and family, EU 28 (2016)



Table 3m. Percentage who believe that promoting gender equality is important for companies and for the economy, EU 28 (2016)

	Agree	Disagree
Estonia	69%	20%
Czech Republic	75%	19%
Denmark	75%	20%
Latvia	75%	15%
Slovakia	76%	15%
Poland	77%	15%
Austria	79%	19%
Romania	79%	16%
Bulgaria	81%	8%
Belgium	83%	16%
Lithuania	83%	10%
Germany	84%	13%
Hungary	84%	12%
EU 28	87%	9%
Italy	88%	5%
Netherlands	88%	10%
Croatia	89%	9%
Greece	90%	7%
Slovenia	90%	8%
UK	90%	6%
Luxembourg	91%	7%
Finland	92%	6%
Spain	93%	5%
France	93%	5%
Portugal	93%	3%
Ireland	94%	3%
Cyprus	94%	5%
Sweden	94%	6%
Malta	95%	2%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017
 Table is ordered by lowest to highest agree values

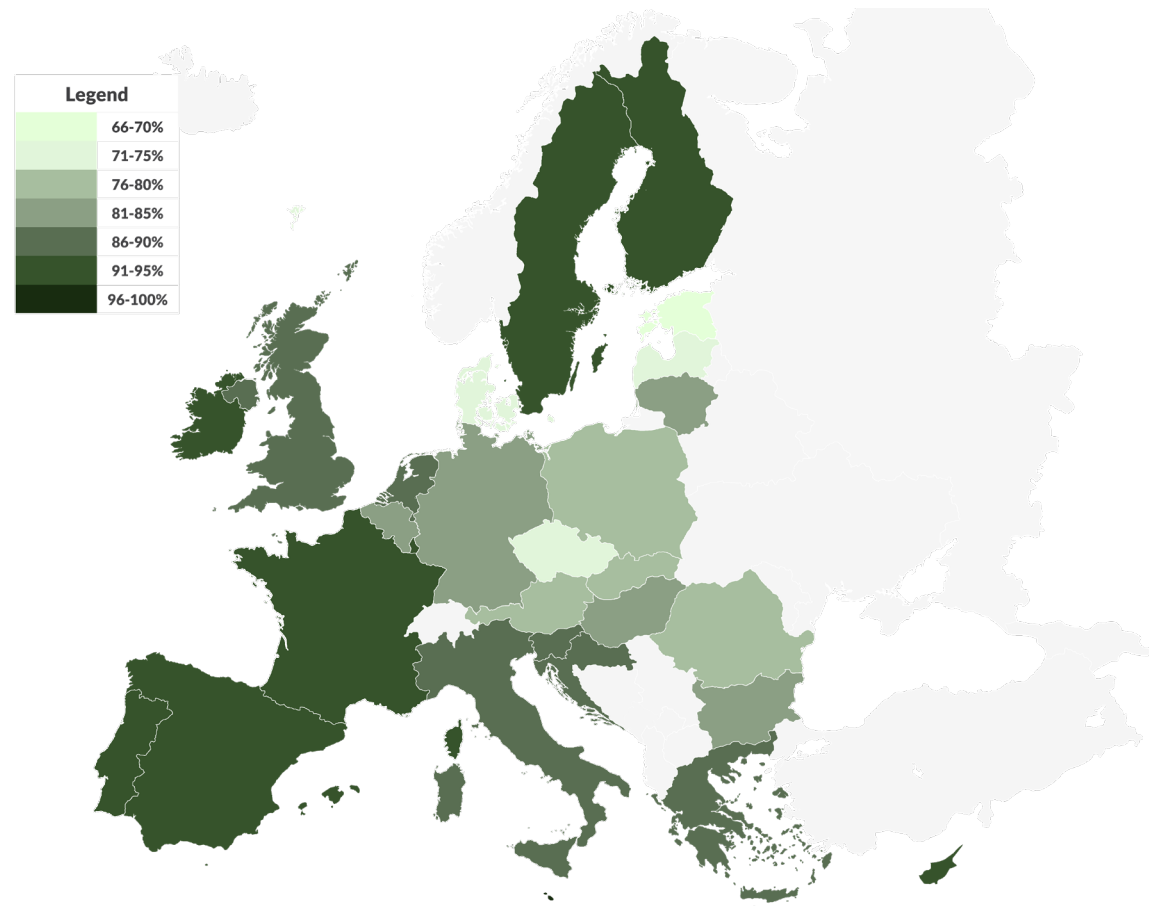


Figure 3. Percentage of the population who believe that promoting gender equality is important for companies and for the economy, EU 28 (2016)



Table 3n. Percentage who think that gender equality has been achieved at work in their country, EU 28 (2016)

	Yes	No
France	29%	69%
Spain	32%	66%
Italy	41%	54%
Slovenia	46%	52%
Croatia	46%	51%
Czech Republic	47%	50%
Germany	47%	50%
Hungary	47%	49%
Slovakia	47%	45%
EU 28	48%	48%
Sweden	50%	49%
Belgium	52%	47%
Lithuania	53%	41%
Estonia	54%	36%
Ireland	55%	39%
Portugal	56%	39%
Luxembourg	58%	38%
UK	59%	36%
Malta	60%	35%
Cyprus	61%	38%
Netherlands	61%	37%
Poland	61%	33%
Romania	62%	32%
Austria	65%	34%
Bulgaria	67%	26%
Latvia	67%	25%
Denmark	68%	30%
Greece	69%	30%
Finland	70%	29%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by lowest to highest yes values

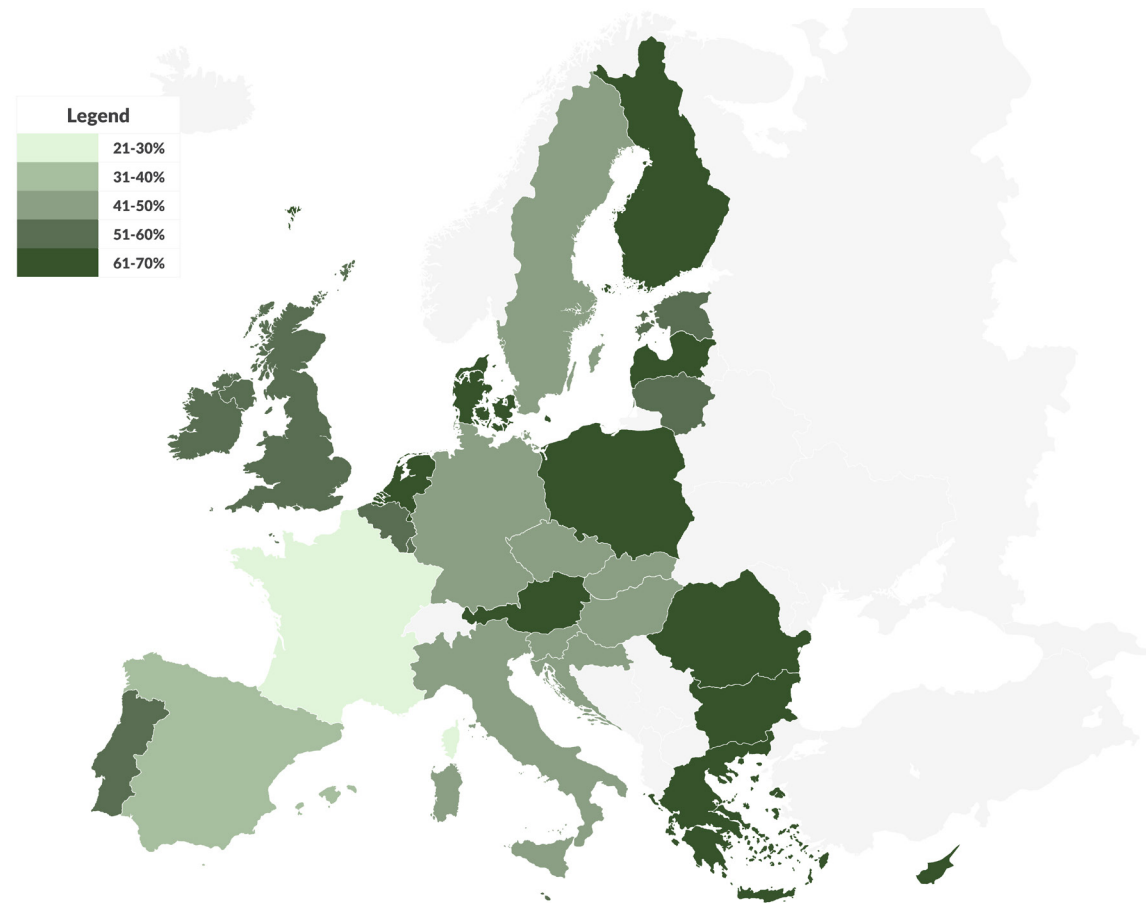


Figure 4. Percentage of the population who think that gender equality has been achieved at work in their country, EU 28 (2016)



Looking at the entire population, the percentage of females outside the labour force¹⁰ in Ireland stood at 33.8% in 2020 (see Table 3a), slightly above the EU 27 average rate of female labour market inactivity (32.5%). There was an 11.5 percentage point difference between the male and female rates of labour market inactivity in Ireland, which is higher than the EU labour market inactivity gender gap of 10.7 percentage points. The highest level of female labour market inactivity in the EU 27 was recorded in Italy (45.3%), with the lowest recorded in Sweden (19.7%).

Among the female population aged 15-64 outside the labour force in Ireland in 2020, the main reason given for labour market inactivity was “care of adults with disabilities/children or other family/personal reasons” at 38.5%, followed by “lay-off¹¹” at 28.4%, and “education or training” at 13.3% (see Table 3e). For the male population outside the labour force, the main reason given for labour market inactivity was “lay-off” at 42.8%, followed by “care of adults with disabilities/children or other family/personal reasons” at 29.2%, and “believing no job available” at 7.7%.

In 2020, the employment rate¹² among 20-64 year old women in Ireland was 67.4%, slightly above the EU 27 average of 66.9% (see Table 3b). There was a 12.1 percentage point difference between the employment rates of men and women in Ireland, which is higher than the EU difference of 11.1 percentage points. The highest rate of employment among women in the EU in 2020 was recorded in Sweden (78.3%), and the lowest was in Greece (51.8%).

Among those aged 15-64 living in Ireland in 2020, women with one child had the highest rates of employment (70.3%), followed by women with two children (69.8%), women with no children (69.5%), and women with three children or more (61.4%, see

¹⁰ A person is outside the labour force, according to the International Labour Organisation definition, if he or she is neither employed nor unemployed. The set of people outside the labour force is also called the “inactive population” and can include pre-school children, school children, students, pensioners and housewives or -men, for example, provided that they are not working at all and not available or looking for work either.

¹¹ A person on lay-off is one whose written or unwritten contract of employment, or activity, has been suspended by the employer for a specified or unspecified period at the end of which the person concerned has a recognised right or recognised expectation to resume employment with that employer. For more information, see <https://www.cso.ie/en/releasesandpublications/in/lfs/informationnoteonimplicationsofcovid-19onthelabourforcesurvey/>

¹² An employed person is defined by Eurostat, according to the guidelines of the International Labour Organization (ILO), as someone aged 15 and older who either worked for at least one hour for pay or profit during the reference week; or were not at work during the reference week but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent.



Table 3f). For men living in Ireland, those with two children had the highest rates of employment (88.6%), followed by men with three children or more (87.2%) and men with one child (84.3%), with the lowest rates of employment among men with no children (76.0%). These patterns are broadly consistent with other EU countries, with employment rates for women typically lowest among those with three children or more, and employment rates for men typically lowest among those with no children.

When looking at employment by age of youngest child, in 2020, employment rates among women aged 15-64 in Ireland were highest among those whose youngest child was aged 12 or older (69.7%, see Table 3g). This was closely followed by those whose youngest child was aged 6-11 and those with no children (both rates 69.5%), with the lowest rate of employment found in women whose youngest child was less than 6 years old (65%). For men in Ireland, employment rates were highest among those whose youngest child was less than 6 years old (89.3%), followed by those whose youngest was aged 6-11 years (89%), and those whose youngest was aged 12 or older (84.3%), with employment rates lowest amongst those with no children (74.2%).

Among all employed women in Ireland in 2018, 22.6% could be classified as “low-wage earners”, meaning that they earned two-thirds or less of the national median gross hourly earnings (see Table 3c). This was 5.9 percentage points higher than proportion of male low-wage earners. The percentage of low wage earners among employed women in Ireland was also 4.4 percentage points higher than the EU average, and the gender gap between low wage male and female earners was also higher than the EU average of 5.7 percentage points. The highest percentage of female low wage earners could be found in Latvia (27.7%), and the lowest percentage was recorded in Sweden (4.4%).

The percentage of female employees in Ireland earning the national minimum wage or less has been consistently higher than the percentage of male employees from 2016 to 2020 (see Table 3h). The highest shares for both male and female employees was recorded in Q3 2016, with 9.6% of male employees and 10.6% of female employees earning the minimum wage or less, and the lowest shares recorded in Q3 2019, with 6.1% of male employees and 7.1% of female employees earning the



minimum wage or less. By Q3 2020, this share had increased by 0.3 percentage points for male employees, but increased by 1.9 percentage points for female employees.

The proportion of part-time workers among employed persons aged 20-64 is higher among women than among men in all EU 27 countries (see Table 3i). In 2020, the share of part-time workers among female employed persons stood at 26.8% in Ireland, which was slightly lower than the EU average of 27.7%. The highest rate of female part time workers was recorded in the Netherlands (73.8%) and the lowest was found in Bulgaria (2.1%). The percentage of male employed persons in Ireland that worked part-time was 18.6 percentage points lower than the female rate, while the EU average rate of part-time workers among male employed persons was 20.5 percentage points lower than the female rate.

From 2011 to 2020, the percentage of part-time employment in Ireland among men and women aged 20-64 that could be classified as involuntary part-time employment¹³ decreased significantly, from a high of 44.4% in 2013 to a low of 14.8% in 2020 (see Table 3j). The rate of involuntary employment has consistently been higher among men than among women for each of these years, and stood at 9.7% for women and 29.1% for men in 2020.

When looking at the main reason for part-time employment, 61.9% of female part-time workers aged 20-64 in Ireland cited “care of adults with disabilities/children or other family/personal reasons” as the main reason in 2020 (see Table 3k), followed by “other” (13.3%) and “education or training” (12.6%). Among male part-time workers, the main reason for part-time work was “no full-time job found” (29.2%), followed by “education or training” (28.4%) and “other” (22.4%).

According to 2017 data collected by Eurobarometer, 39% of those surveyed in Ireland agree that the most important role of a man is to earn money (see Table 3d). This is lower than the EU 28 average, where 43% of those surveyed agreed that the most important role of a man is to earn money. The highest level of agreement was

¹³ Involuntary part-time workers are defined by the Eurostat as those who work part-time because they are unable to find full-time work. For more information, see https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=EU_labour_force_survey_-_methodology#Other_concepts_and_definitions



recorded in Bulgaria (81%), and the lowest level was recorded in Sweden (10%). However, the percentage of those who believe that the most important role of a woman is to take care of her home and family is higher in Ireland (52%) than the EU average (44%, see Table 3l). Similarly, the highest level of agreement with this statement was recorded in Bulgaria (81%), and the lowest level was recorded in Sweden (11%).

Despite the high level of agreement that the most important role of a woman is outside the labour force, 94% of the population surveyed in Ireland believe that promoting gender equality is important for companies and for the economy (see Table 3m). This is higher than the EU average of 87% and is only one percentage point lower than the highest ranking country of Malta (95%), with Estonia recording the lowest level of agreement (69%) with this statement. The majority of those surveyed in Ireland (55%) also believe that gender equality has been achieved in Ireland, which is higher than the EU average of 48% (see Table 3n). The highest level of agreement with this statement was recorded in Finland (70%), with the lowest level of agreement found in France (29%). It is worth noting that some countries with above average levels of belief in traditional gender roles, such as Latvia, Bulgaria, Poland, Greece and Romania, tend to score above average in their belief that gender equality had been achieved in their country, while the opposite is true for some countries with below average levels of belief in traditional gender roles, such as France, Spain and Germany.

Summary

This section presented data from Ireland on three preferred indicators and one alternative indicator used by the OECD to track progress on Norm 1, as well as nine additional data tables that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in the Irish context.

While the prevalence of the “breadwinner” norm and its consequences appear less pronounced in Ireland than in many other countries, data from Ireland indicate that a significant proportion of the population believes that the most important role of a man is to earn money and the most important role of a woman is to take care of her home and family. Women in Ireland are more likely to be outside the labour force



than men, with the majority of those not seeking employment citing reasons related to the care of adults with disabilities/children or other family/personal reasons. Women are less likely to be employed than men, particularly women with three children or more, and women whose youngest child is less than 6 years old.

In addition to this, there is a higher proportion of low wage earners among employed women than among employed men, with women more likely than men to be earning the minimum wage or less. There is also a higher percentage of part-time workers among employed women, although the rates of involuntarily part-time employment are consistently higher among men. When looking at the reasons for part-time employment, the vast majority of women cited reasons related to the care of adults with disabilities/children or other family or personal reasons.

2. Be financially dominant

A man should be financially dominant, earning more than women

This section presents four preferred indicators and one alternative indicator for Norm 2 where data is available from the Irish context, as well as five tables of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in Ireland.

Gender wage gap by occupation

Table 4a. Gender pay gap in Ireland (unadjusted form) by sector (2018)

	Gender pay gap (%)
Financial, insurance and real estate activities	30.1
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	21.5
Arts, entertainment, recreation and other service activities	20.5
Professional, scientific and technical activities	20.2
Information and communication	18.1
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	18.0
Human health and social work activities	17.7
All economic sectors	11.7
Industry, construction and services	11.4
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	10.8
Administrative and support service activities	10.6
Manufacturing	10.2
Construction	8.5
Education	7.8
Mining and quarrying	5.4
Transportation and storage	2.8
Accommodation and food service activities	2.5
Water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	-17.2

Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values



Representation of women in managerial positions

Table 4b. Percentage of employed women (over the age of 25) in managerial positions, EU 27 (2020)

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Cyprus	16.0	19.0	17.7	22.7	26.2	20.4	17.2	21.3	24.0
Luxembourg	18.5	14.0	22.1	17.3	17.4	19.0	22.4	25.5	26.0
Netherlands	28.4	24.3	25.1	25.7	25.1	26.4	25.4	26.9	26.2
Italy	26.1	26.9	26.5	26.6	27.4	27.3	27.1	27.8	27.2
Czech Republic	26.1	27.1	27.7	29.3	25.3	24.7	26.7	26.7	27.7
Germany	28.6	28.8	28.9	29.2	29.1	29.1	29.3	29.3	28.0
Denmark	28.4	26.8	26.1	26.4	27.6	26.2	26.2	26.8	28.0
Croatia	26.2	24.8	23.0	26.9	30.2	29.4	30.3	26.6	28.0
Malta	25.9	27.9	26.6	26.5	27.0	28.2	29.0	30.1	28.7
Greece	25.9	28.5	28.2	25.7	25.5	29.3	27.3	28.1	29.4
Austria	29.4	29.1	30.2	29.7	31.6	31.8	31.6	33.1	32.1
EU 27	32.7	32.0	31.7	31.8	32.5	32.6	32.9	33.4	33.9
Belgium	32.3	31.4	31.5	32.3	32.4	33.5	33.7	32.7	34.5
Romania	31.1	31.1	31.7	31.4	33.5	30.2	31.2	33.2	34.8
Spain	30.1	30.7	30.9	31.3	31.2	30.5	32.2	33.2	34.9
Portugal	34.8	33.8	35.2	32.7	35.8	34.2	33.7	37.1	35.4
Slovakia	33.2	32.9	30.0	31.2	35.0	33.1	32.3	33.8	35.4
France	39.3	36.0	32.6	31.6	33.1	33.4	34.4	34.7	35.5
Ireland	32.7	33.0	33.4	34.3	36.1	36.0	35.7	35.2	36.1
Estonia	31.9	33.3	32.3	30.3	35.6	38.0	35.9	37.0	37.6
Finland	29.7	29.6	33.7	33.5	34.1	31.3	31.8	36.9	37.6
Lithuania	39.0	39.5	38.4	39.3	39.2	39.2	39.1	39.1	38.0
Hungary	38.8	40.8	39.8	40.4	39.2	39.4	38.6	38.8	39.6
Slovenia	39.0	37.0	37.6	37.6	40.9	41.2	38.4	40.2	40.2
Bulgaria	36.5	36.6	36.8	36.6	37.8	39.3	38.6	38.9	41.4
Sweden	35.6	35.4	37.1	39.6	39.3	38.9	38.2	40.0	42.0
Poland	37.8	37.7	38.9	40.1	41.0	41.1	42.4	42.9	43.1
Latvia	45.9	44.0	44.3	44.2	47.2	46.8	45.2	46.2	47.1

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values in 2020



Representation of women in senior and middle management positions

Table 4c. Percentage of women in senior and middle management positions, EU 28 (2014-2018)

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Italy	21.9	21.8	22.0	22.3	23.2
Netherlands	24.1	24.5	24.4	26.0	24.8
Croatia	24.4	26.1	29.5	27.9	26.1
Czech Republic	26.6	27.8	23.1	24.1	26.6
Denmark	26.2	26.9	28.6	27.6	27.0
Malta	25.3	25.5	28.3	28.1	27.6
Germany	27.8	28.1	28.1	28.2	28.6
Austria	27.9	27.9	29.5	29.2	28.9
Romania	30.7	31.5	32.4	30.1	30.1
Slovakia	28.2	27.8	34.3	30.3	30.4
Greece	27.8	24.7	24.7	29.7	30.5
Spain	29.4	30.4	30.3	30.9	31.9
Finland	34.3	33.5	34.1	31.5	32.0
Portugal	31.8	30.4	32.2	30.4	32.2
EU 28	30.1	31.0	31.6	31.4	32.4
Estonia	30.8	27.8	31.6	34.3	33.2
Belgium	31.3	31.0	32.0	32.9	33.5
Ireland	31.6	30.9	32.4	31.9	33.5
United Kingdom	32.9	32.4	33.8	34.4	34.2
France	32.0	30.9	31.1	32.5	34.5
Hungary	37.6	39.1	37.7	37.6	37.1
Lithuania	35.4	38.1	38.8	37.9	38.2
Slovenia	36.5	37.0	41.8	41.9	38.2
Bulgaria	35.4	37.4	39.3	39.3	39.3
Sweden	37.5	39.8	39.5	39.4	39.4
Poland	36.4	37.4	38.1	38.2	39.5
Latvia	42.1	44.3	46.3	44.1	43.2
Cyprus	18.1	25.2	27.0	22.4	n/a
Luxembourg	17.9	n/a	14.9	16.1	n/a

Source: UNECE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values in 2018



Representation of women on company boards

Table 4d. Share of female board members in the largest publicly listed companies, EU 27 (2012-2020)

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Estonia	7.8	7.3	7.1	8.1	8.8	7.4	8.0	9.4	8.8
Hungary	7.4	11.3	11.8	17.8	12.3	14.5	14.9	12.9	9.9
Malta	3.5	2.1	2.7	4.5	4.5	8.4	9.6	10.0	9.9
Cyprus	7.7	7.3	9.3	9.0	10.8	10.4	11.9	9.4	11.5
Romania	11.9	7.8	11.0	11.8	10.1	11.0	11.0	12.6	12.8
Bulgaria	11.6	16.7	17.6	19.0	15.3	17.1	14.5	18.5	12.9
Greece	7.9	8.4	8.9	9.8	9.1	11.3	9.1	10.3	13.0
Lithuania	17.8	16.1	16.5	14.3	14.3	14.3	10.8	12.0	14.3
Czech Republic	16.4	11.3	3.5	10.4	10.1	14.5	13.8	18.2	17.2
Luxembourg	9.7	11.3	11.7	12.1	12.9	12.0	13.3	13.1	18.2
Poland	11.8	12.3	14.6	19.4	18.8	20.1	21.0	23.5	22.8
Slovenia	18.7	21.6	19.9	21.5	24.8	22.6	27.9	24.6	22.9
Latvia	28.2	28.6	31.7	30.4	28.5	28.8	29.0	31.7	25.6
Croatia	15.1	15.1	19.0	22.2	19.9	21.6	17.2	27.0	26.2
Portugal	7.4	8.8	9.5	13.5	14.3	16.2	21.6	24.6	26.6
Ireland	8.7	11.1	10.9	15.3	16.5	17.6	18.7	26.0	28.8
Spain	12.3	14.8	16.9	18.7	20.3	22.0	23.7	26.4	29.3
EU 27	15.4	17.5	19.8	22.2	23.6	25.1	26.4	28.4	29.5
Slovakia	13.8	24.0	18.2	12.7	12.5	15.1	24.1	29.1	31.4
Austria	11.9	12.6	17.1	20.0	18.1	19.2	26.1	31.3	31.5
Denmark	20.8	22.9	24.0	25.8	27.1	30.3	27.7	30.0	33.6
Finland	28.6	29.8	29.2	29.2	30.1	32.8	34.5	34.2	35.1
Germany	17.9	21.5	24.4	26.1	29.5	31.9	33.8	35.6	36.3
Netherlands	21.5	25.1	24.9	25.5	27.5	29.5	30.7	34.2	36.6
Sweden	25.5	26.5	27.6	32.6	36.9	35.9	36.1	37.5	38.0
Belgium	12.9	16.7	22.4	26.0	28.6	30.7	32.0	35.9	38.4
Italy	10.8	15.0	24.1	28.6	32.3	34.0	36.4	36.1	38.4
France	25.1	29.7	32.4	35.6	41.2	43.4	44.0	45.2	45.1

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values in 2020



Percentage considering it acceptable that in some circumstances, a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job

Table 4e. Percentage that think it is acceptable that in some circumstances, a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job, EU 28 (2016)

	Acceptable	Unacceptable
Romania	25%	72%
Austria	18%	80%
Croatia	16%	83%
Belgium	15%	85%
Czech Republic	15%	83%
Italy	14%	82%
Slovakia	14%	82%
Hungary	13%	84%
Poland	13%	81%
Estonia	12%	83%
Ireland	12%	86%
Lithuania	12%	86%
Latvia	10%	87%
Finland	10%	89%
Bulgaria	9%	82%
EU 28	8%	90%
Denmark	8%	91%
Greece	8%	91%
Cyprus	8%	91%
Slovenia	6%	93%
Germany	5%	94%
Malta	5%	94%
Portugal	5%	94%
UK	5%	93%
Luxembourg	4%	96%
Sweden	4%	96%
Spain	3%	95%
France	3%	96%
Netherlands	3%	97%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by highest to lowest acceptable values

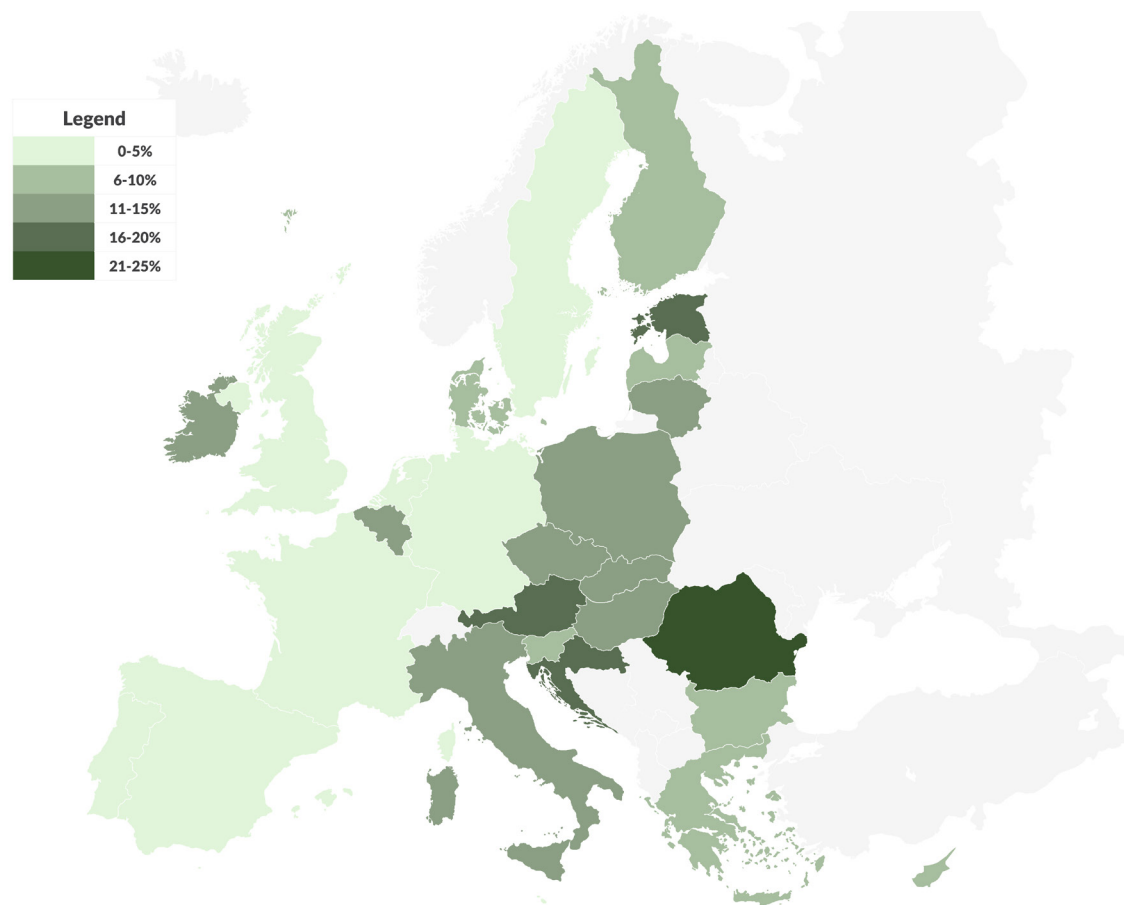


Figure 5. Percentage of the population that think it is acceptable that in some circumstances, a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job, EU 28 (2016)



Additional data from Ireland

Table 4f. Average total annual earnings in Ireland, by sector (2019)

	Annual earnings (€)
Information and communication	€64,345
Financial, insurance and real estate activities	€60,409
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	€50,376
Professional, scientific and technical activities	€49,256
Industry	€47,104
Education	€44,745
Transportation and storage	€43,127
Construction	€41,686
All economic sectors	€40,283
Human health and social work activities	€38,390
Administrative and support service activities	€32,071
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	€31,002
Arts, entertainment, recreation and other service activities	€26,318
Accommodation and food service activities	€19,153

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values

Table 4g. Gender pay gap in unadjusted form, EU 27 (2011-2018)

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Estonia	27.3	29.9	29.8	28.1	26.7	24.8	24.9	21.8
Austria	23.5	22.9	22.3	22.2	21.8	20.8	20.7	20.4
Czech Republic	22.6	22.5	22.3	22.5	22.5	21.5	21.1	20.1
Germany	22.4	22.7	22.1	22.3	21.8	21.1	20.4	20.1
Slovakia	20.1	20.8	18.8	19.7	19.7	19.2	20.1	19.8
Latvia	14.1	14.9	16.0	17.3	18.4	19.7	19.8	19.6
Finland	19.1	19.2	18.8	18.4	17.5	17.5	17.1	16.9
France	15.7	15.6	15.5	15.5	15.6	15.9	16.3	16.7
Netherlands	18.6	17.6	16.6	16.2	16.1	15.6	15.1	14.7
Denmark	16.4	16.8	16.5	16.0	15.1	15.1	14.8	14.6
EU 27	16.2	16.4	16.0	15.7	15.5	15.1	14.6	14.4
Hungary	18.0	20.1	18.4	15.1	14.0	14.0	15.9	14.2
Lithuania	11.5	11.9	12.2	13.3	14.2	14.4	15.2	14.0
Bulgaria	13.2	15.1	14.1	14.2	15.5	14.6	14.3	13.9
Malta	7.7	9.5	9.7	10.6	10.7	11.6	13.2	13.0
Sweden	15.6	15.5	14.6	13.8	14.0	13.3	12.5	12.1
Spain	17.6	18.7	17.8	14.9	14.1	14.8	13.5	11.9
Croatia	n/a	n/a	7.7	8.7	n/a	11.6	12.3	11.4
Ireland	12.7	12.2	12.9	13.9	13.9	14.2	14.4	11.3
Greece	n/a	n/a	n/a	12.5	n/a	n/a	n/a	10.4
Cyprus	16.1	15.6	14.9	14.2	13.2	12.3	11.2	10.4
Slovenia	3.3	4.5	6.3	7.0	8.2	8.1	8.4	9.3
Portugal	12.9	15.0	13.3	14.9	16.0	13.9	10.8	8.9
Poland	5.5	6.4	7.1	7.7	7.3	7.1	7.0	8.5
Belgium	9.4	8.3	7.5	6.6	6.4	6.0	5.8	5.8
Italy	5.7	6.5	7.0	6.1	5.5	5.3	5.0	5.5
Romania	9.6	6.9	4.9	4.5	5.6	4.8	2.9	2.2
Luxembourg	7.9	7.0	6.2	5.4	4.7	3.9	2.6	1.4

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for 2018



Table 4h. Median equivalised real disposable income in Ireland, (2010-2019)

	Female	Male	Both	Difference
2010	€18,881	€19,730	€19,273	€849
2011	€17,988	€19,209	€18,555	€1,221
2012	€17,703	€18,204	€17,937	€501
2013	€17,567	€18,122	€17,801	€555
2014	€17,875	€18,310	€18,150	€435
2015	€18,846	€19,665	€19,239	€819
2016	€19,690	€20,471	€20,115	€781
2017	€20,291	€20,888	€20,608	€597
2018	€21,973	€22,991	€22,508	€1,018
2019	€23,304	€23,497	€23,413	€193

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by year

Table 4i. Percentage of senior management positions in Ireland occupied by women (2019 and 2021)

	2019	2021
Chief Executive Officers (CEOs)	11.5	13.4
Chairpersons	7.4	14.0
Boards of Directors	19.6	21.8
Chief Financial Officers (CFOs)	29.7	28.1
Senior Executives	28.3	29.7

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values in 2021


Table 4j. Percentage of female executives in the largest publicly listed companies, EU 27 (2012-2020)

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Romania	30.5	21.9	22.7	16.3	21.6	33.3	25.4	33.8	32.8
Estonia	20.	24.4	17.1	18.4	34.8	30.2	23.9	32.6	31.1
Bulgaria	11.5	9.6	15.3	27.1	26.1	22.	26.5	26.9	30.9
Lithuania	11.5	16.0	19.0	18.	21.5	25.3	28.0	28.9	29.1
Latvia	21.9	22.4	20.4	22.2	23.9	23.5	27.3	28.6	28.9
Sweden	19.2	21.5	23.0	23.6	23.9	24.5	23.6	23.7	25.4
Ireland	6.5	9.0	6.4	12.3	10.6	11.9	15.5	21.5	25.3
Finland	14.5	13.	16.4	16.1	16.3	18.6	18.0	20.9	25.0
Slovenia	17.9	19.2	21.1	22.9	19.0	20.6	24.7	26.6	24.6
Cyprus	8.6	13.8	14.9	17.6	15.2	15.2	17.4	17.5	23.1
Netherlands	6.8	6.2	9.2	12.5	11.8	12.4	16.5	14.5	21.0
France	8.4	11.3	11.4	13.1	14.9	15.2	17.0	19.7	20.8
Denmark	11.2	11.8	11.7	8.3	9.4	15.9	11.0	17.1	20.2
Slovakia	13.7	18.2	12.5	14.6	13.3	13.0	20.0	13.3	19.5
EU 27	10.3	11.7	12.4	13.7	14.7	15.5	16.5	18.	19.3
Malta	6.8	10.6	12.8	15.6	12.6	13.8	20.3	20.9	19.1
Hungary	2.5	7.3	10.6	11.9	11.1	13.3	13.3	20.9	18.2
Spain	5.7	9.1	9.6	10.6	11.5	13.2	14.7	16.2	17.1
Greece	5.2	12.0	13.	12.9	15.5	16.5	17.8	17.6	16.6
Portugal	9.6	8.0	8.5	12.2	10.6	9.0	10.0	14.6	15.7
Poland	5.0	4.6	4.4	10.5	11.2	13.5	13.0	13.6	15.4
Belgium	9.6	11.8	13.3	15.2	17.1	13.4	14.4	14.8	15.2
Germany	7.2	6.8	7.0	8.4	10.6	13.4	13.8	14.2	13.5
Croatia	16.7	18.1	16.3	22.0	22.2	19.1	20.6	12.3	13.4
Czech Republic	6.3	3.9	4.4	8.8	6.8	6.9	6.1	10.9	13.2
Italy	4.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	10.	9.9	9.9	11.8	13.1
Austria	4.7	2.8	4.2	4.3	5.4	4.1	5.1	7.5	5.7
Luxembourg	10.2	13.3	8.9	7.8	12.5	12.0	12.7	6.0	4.2

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values in 2020



CSO data on the unadjusted gender pay gap¹⁴ in Ireland reveal that in 2018, the highest gender pay gap was recorded in the “financial, insurance and real estate activities” sector, at 30.1% (see Table 4a). This means that women working in this sector earned, on average, 30.1% less than men working in the same sector. This was followed by the “wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles” sector (21.5%) and the “arts, entertainment, recreation and other service activities” sector (20.5%). The lowest gender pay gap was recorded in the water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities sector (-17.2%), meaning that on average, women working in this sector earned 17.2% more than men working in this sector. This was followed by the accommodation and food service activities sector (2.5%), and the transportation and storage sector (2.8%).

It is worth noting that large gender pay gaps above 18% are present in higher paid sectors, such as the financial, insurance and real estate sectors and the information and communication sector, both of which had average annual per person earnings above €60,000 in 2018 (see Table 4f)¹⁵. However, large gender pay gaps can also be found in sectors with below average annual earnings¹⁶, such as the “wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles” sector, which had a gender pay gap of 21.5% in 2018; and the “arts, entertainment, recreation and other service activities” sector, which had a gender pay gap of 20.5% in 2018.

Eurostat data reveal that the unadjusted gender pay gap in Ireland has decreased between 2011 and 2018, despite rising between 2013 and 2017 (see Table 4g). The 2018 gender pay gap stood at 11.3%, which was lower than the EU 27 average of 14.4%. The gender pay gap was highest in Estonia in 2018 (21.8%), and lowest in Luxembourg (1.4%).

¹⁴ The Gender Pay Gap (GPG) is defined by Eurostat as the difference in average wages between men and women. The unadjusted gender pay gap is calculated as the difference between the average gross hourly earnings of male and female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. It does not correct for national differences in individual characteristics of employed men and women.

¹⁵ When comparing the sectors in the “gender pay gap by sector” and “annual average earnings by sector” tables, it is worth noting that the category “industry” in the annual average earnings table includes the following sectors: industry, construction and services; mining and quarrying; manufacturing; electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply; and water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities.

¹⁶ Average annual per person earnings in 2019 was €40,283.



The median equivalised real disposable income¹⁷ in Ireland has increased for both men and women between 2010 and 2019 (see Table 4h). The disposable income of men has been consistently higher than women during these years, and in 2019 stood at €23,497 for men and €23,304 for women, resulting in an income gap of €193. However, the disposable income gap in 2019 was at its lowest level since 2010, with the highest disposable income gap recorded in 2011 (€1,221).

The percentage of employed women over the age of 25 in managerial positions in Ireland was 36.1% in 2020, and has risen consistently since 2012, when the share stood at 32.7% (see Table 4b). The 2020 rate of women in managerial positions in Ireland was higher than the EU 27 average of 33.9%, with the highest rate recorded in Latvia (47.1%) and the lowest rate recorded in Cyprus (24%).

The share of women in senior and middle management positions in Ireland has increased slightly over time, rising from 31.6% in 2014 to 33.5% in 2018 (see Table 4c). The 2018 share was just above the EU 28 average of 32.4%, with the highest share also recorded in Latvia (43.2%) and the lowest share found in Italy (23.2%).

When looking at the share of women in senior management positions in Ireland in 2021, the highest share is among senior executives, 29.7% of whom were women. This is followed by Chief Financial Officers (CFOs) with 28.1%, Board of Directors with 21.8%, Chairpersons with 14%, and Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) with 13.4%. The share of women in almost all of these roles has increased since 2019, except for CFOs, where the percentage of women decreased slightly from 29.7% in 2019.

Data from Eurostat reveals that the share of female board members in the largest publicly listed companies¹⁸ in Ireland was 28.8% in 2020, and has risen each year since 2012, when the share stood at 8.7% (see Table 4d). This is slightly lower than the EU 27 average of 29.5% in 2020, with the lowest rate found in Estonia (8.8%) and

¹⁷ The median equivalised disposable income is defined by Eurostat as the average income of a household, after tax and other deductions that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults.

¹⁸ The 'largest' companies are taken to be the members (max. 50) of the primary blue-chip index, which is an index maintained by the stock exchange and covers the largest companies by market capitalisation and/or market trades. Only companies which are registered in the country concerned are counted.



the highest rate found in France (45.1%). The share of female executives¹⁹ in the largest publicly listed companies has also increased over time, from 6.5% in 2012 to 25.3% in 2020 (see Table 4j). This is 6 percentage points above the EU 27 average of 19.3% in 2020, with the highest share of female executives found in Romania (32.8%) and the lowest share found in Luxembourg (4.2%).

2017 data collected by Eurobarometer reveal that 12% of those surveyed in Ireland believe that it is acceptable in some circumstances that a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job (see Table 4e). This is 4 percentage points higher than the EU average of 8%. This belief is most prevalent in Romania (25%), and is least common in Spain, France and the Netherlands (3%).

Summary

This section presented data from Ireland on four preferred indicators and one alternative indicator used by the OECD to track progress on Norm 2, as well as five additional data tables that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in the Irish context.

Data from Ireland reveals some evidence of the financial dominance norm, or belief that men should earn more than women, and its consequences. While the percentage in Ireland that believe that it is acceptable in some circumstances that a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job is small, it is higher than the EU average. Men earn more than women in almost all sectors, particularly in the real estate and financial/insurance sectors, with large gender pay gaps also present in low paid sectors. However, there is also evidence that the prevalence of this norm and its consequences are diminishing over time. The gender pay gap in Ireland has decreased since 2011, and was lower than the EU average in 2018. While men in Ireland consistently have higher disposable income than women, the disposable income gap has also narrowed considerably since 2011, and stood at its lowest level in 2018.

¹⁹ Executives refer to senior executives in the two highest decision-making bodies of the largest (max. 50) nationally registered companies listed on the national stock exchange. The two highest decision-making bodies are usually referred to as the supervisory board and the management board (in case of a two-tier governance system) and the board of directors and executive/management committee (in a unitary system).



The percentage of employed women in managerial positions in Ireland was just over one third in 2020, however this share has risen consistently since 2012, and was higher than the EU average in 2020. Focusing on senior and middle management positions, the share of women has also increased over time, and was higher than the EU average in 2018. Among senior managers, the highest share of women in 2021 was in Senior Executive positions, with the lowest share in CEO positions. The share of female board members and female executives in the largest publicly listed companies has also risen since 2012, with the share of female executives higher than the EU average in 2020.

3. A man should work in “manly” jobs

A man should work in “manly” jobs, regarding those professions that society defines as “men’s work” and not those it views as “women’s work”

This section presents the six preferred indicators for Norm 3 where data is available from the Irish context, as well as eight tables of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in Ireland.

Representation of women in managerial positions

See Table 4b

Representation of women in senior and middle management positions

See Table 4c

Representation of women on company boards

See Table 4d



Representation of women as heads of states (presidents)

Table 5a. Percentage of time with a female head of state (president), EU 27 (Q3 2010-2021)

	Total percentage of time
Austria	0%
Belgium	0%
Bulgaria	0%
Cyprus	0%
Czech Republic	0%
Germany	0%
Denmark	0%
Spain	0%
France	0%
Hungary	0%
Italy	0%
Luxembourg	0%
Latvia	0%
Netherlands	0%
Poland	0%
Portugal	0%
Romania	0%
Sweden	0%
Slovenia	0%
EU 27	10%
Finland	17%
Ireland	17%
Greece	17%
Slovakia	25%
Estonia	42%
Croatia	42%
Malta	42%
Lithuania	75%

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values

Representation of women in parliaments

Table 5b. Percentage of women in parliament (both houses), EU 27 (Q3 2012-2021)

	2012 Q3	2013 Q3	2014 Q3	2015 Q3	2016 Q3	2017 Q3	2018 Q3	2019 Q3	2020 Q3	2021 Q3
Hungary	8.8	9.4	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	12.6	12.1	12.1	12.6
Malta	8.7	14.7	12.9	13.0	13.0	12.7	14.5	14.9	12.1	13.4
Cyprus	10.7	12.5	14.3	12.5	18.6	17.9	17.9	18.2	20.0	14.3
Greece	21.0	21.0	21.0	23.3	18.7	18.3	18.3	21.7	21.7	20.3
Romania	9.7	11.7	11.8	11.9	12.1	18.8	19.6	19.8	19.8	20.4
Czech Republic	21.0	20.3	18.9	19.6	19.9	20.3	21.9	20.3	20.7	20.7
Slovakia	18.7	18.7	20.0	20.0	20.5	20.8	20.8	20.7	22.7	21.2
Slovenia	26.2	25.4	26.9	26.2	26.2	26.9	20.0	22.1	21.4	22.1
Bulgaria	23.3	24.6	26.4	20.0	19.2	26.7	26.7	26.4	27.1	24.6
Estonia	20.8	17.8	18.8	23.8	27.0	26.7	29.7	28.7	28.7	25.7
Latvia	23.0	23.2	26.0	16.0	16.0	18.0	18.0	30.0	31.0	27.3
Poland	22.0	21.9	21.7	23.1	25.5	25.7	25.9	25.8	27.7	27.5
Ireland	19.0	19.5	19.5	19.6	24.3	24.3	24.3	24.3	27.3	27.7
Lithuania	19.4	24.1	23.4	24.1	24.3	20.6	21.4	23.2	24.3	28.4
Germany	32.5	33.4	36.6	36.5	36.9	37.3	31.5	31.6	31.7	31.8
Croatia	25.2	23.8	25.2	24.5	19.9	17.9	20.5	19.9	31.1	32.5
EU 27	25.7	26.9	27.9	28.0	28.4	30.1	30.8	31.8	32.5	32.7
Luxembourg	23.3	21.7	26.7	28.3	28.3	28.3	31.7	25.0	31.7	35.0
Italy	20.5	30.6	30.3	30.2	30.2	30.1	35.2	35.8	35.6	35.8
Netherlands	39.6	37.1	37.8	37.1	37.8	35.6	34.2	34.2	33.8	37.5
France	24.8	24.6	25.2	26.2	26.1	34.8	36.9	37.1	38.5	39.4
Portugal	28.7	29.1	30.4	30.9	34.3	35.2	36.1	36.1	40.0	40.4
Austria	29.0	29.0	30.7	29.9	30.7	31.6	35.2	37.3	40.2	40.6
Denmark	38.9	39.1	38.3	37.4	36.9	37.4	37.1	39.1	39.7	40.8
Spain	37.0	37.2	37.4	39.0	38.8	38.6	39.7	44.4	41.6	41.6
Belgium	39.7	39.3	41.9	41.9	41.4	40.9	40.0	43.1	42.4	44.0
Finland	42.5	43.0	42.0	41.5	41.5	42.0	41.5	46.5	46.0	46.0
Sweden	43.6	43.8	43.8	43.6	45.3	46.1	46.1	46.7	47.9	47.0

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values in Q3 2021



Percentage of elected seats held by women in deliberative bodies of local government

Table 5c. Percentage of seats held by women in local governments, EU 27 (2018)

	Percentage of total
Romania	12.5
Cyprus	16.0
Ireland	20.1
Malta	22.0
EU 27	23.9
Lithuania	24.6
Luxembourg	25.1
Slovakia	25.9
Bulgaria	26.0
Croatia	26.4
Germany	27.0
Czech Republic	27.9
Hungary	28.5
Netherlands	28.5
Poland	29.8
Italy	30.4
Denmark	33.3
Slovenia	33.6
Spain	33.8
Belgium	39.0
Finland	39.0
France	40.4
Sweden	43.8
Austria	n/a
Estonia	n/a
Greece	n/a
Latvia	n/a
Portugal	n/a

Source: UNECE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values

Additional data from Ireland

Table 5d. Percentage of time with a female head of government (prime minister) or political executive, EU 27 (Q3 2010-2021)

	Total percentage of time
Sweden	0%
Spain	0%
France	0%
Hungary	0%
Ireland	0%
Italy	0%
Luxembourg	0%
Malta	0%
Netherlands	0%
Portugal	0%
Bulgaria	0%
Cyprus	0%
Czech Republic	0%
Greece	0%
Lithuania	8%
Austria	8%
Belgium	8%
Estonia	8%
EU 27	12%
Slovakia	17%
Croatia	17%
Romania	17%
Slovenia	17%
Latvia	17%
Finland	25%
Poland	25%
Denmark	50%
Germany	100%

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values

Table 5e. Percentage of senior ministers that are female, EU 27 (Q3 2021)

	Percentage of total
Poland	5.0
Romania	9.5
Greece	9.5
Bulgaria	10.5
Slovenia	11.1
Latvia	14.3
Malta	14.3
Slovakia	18.8
Hungary	20.0
Cyprus	25.0
Ireland	26.7
Croatia	27.8
Czech Republic	28.6
Luxembourg	29.4
Denmark	30.0
EU 27	32.4
Italy	33.3
Portugal	40.0
Germany	40.0
Netherlands	43.8
Lithuania	46.7
Austria	46.7
Estonia	46.7
Sweden	50.0
France	51.2
Belgium	53.3
Finland	57.9
Spain	60.9

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values

Table 5f. Percentage of senior administrators in government that are female, EU 27 (2020)

	Percentage of total
Hungary	18.3
Belgium	22.4
Luxembourg	24.6
Denmark	30.0
Germany	30.5
France	30.7
Czech Republic	31.7
Ireland	33.1
Cyprus	36.4
Italy	37.9
Netherlands	38.3
Austria	39.0
Spain	42.9
Malta	43.1
EU 27	43.5
Poland	45.2
Slovakia	47.2
Lithuania	48.8
Estonia	49.5
Sweden	49.7
Portugal	50.5
Greece	53.8
Latvia	54.1
Romania	54.3
Bulgaria	54.4
Finland	55.5
Croatia	57.1
Slovenia	57.3

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values



Table 5g. Percentage who think that gender equality has been achieved in leadership positions in companies and other organisations in their country, EU 28 (2016)

	Yes	No
France	25%	72%
Spain	27%	70%
Italy	35%	58%
Sweden	38%	59%
Croatia	41%	58%
Slovenia	42%	57%
Czech Republic	43%	54%
Germany	43%	55%
EU 28	44%	52%
Hungary	44%	51%
Slovakia	44%	47%
Belgium	45%	54%
Netherlands	49%	49%
Portugal	49%	47%
Estonia	50%	38%
Luxembourg	50%	45%
Ireland	51%	44%
Cyprus	52%	45%
UK	53%	41%
Lithuania	55%	39%
Austria	57%	41%
Denmark	58%	40%
Malta	58%	36%
Poland	58%	35%
Finland	58%	40%
Greece	61%	37%
Bulgaria	62%	30%
Romania	62%	32%
Latvia	69%	23%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by lowest to highest yes values

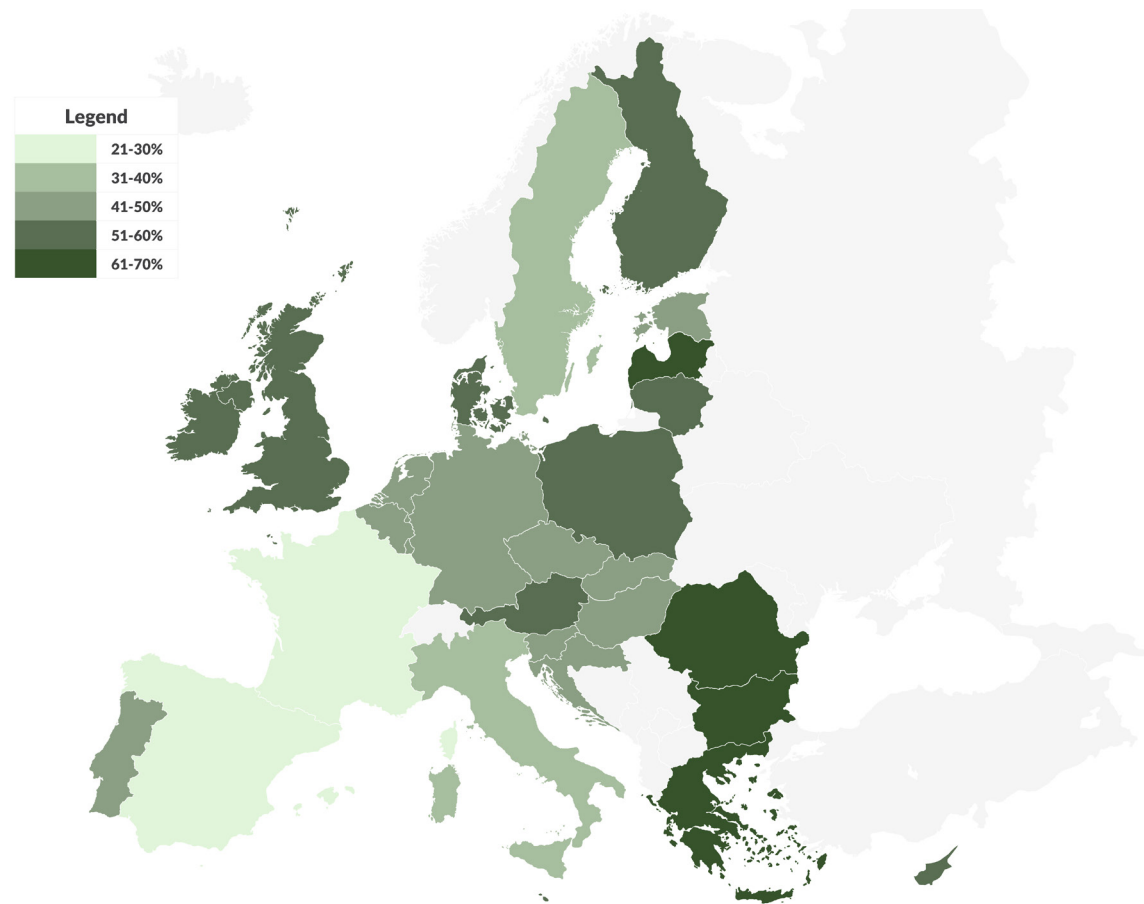


Figure 6. Percentage of the population who think that gender equality has been achieved in leadership positions in companies and other organisations in their country, EU 28 (2016)



Table 5h. Percentage that think that gender equality has been achieved in politics in their country, EU 28 (2016)

	Yes	No
France	32%	63%
Hungary	35%	61%
Spain	36%	61%
Slovenia	38%	59%
Italy	39%	54%
Slovakia	40%	51%
Czech Republic	41%	57%
Croatia	41%	58%
Portugal	44%	52%
Ireland	46%	48%
Estonia	50%	39%
EU 28	51%	45%
Cyprus	51%	48%
Malta	55%	42%
Poland	55%	38%
Belgium	56%	43%
Luxembourg	56%	40%
Romania	57%	38%
Netherlands	58%	40%
UK	58%	37%
Lithuania	61%	34%
Sweden	61%	37%
Greece	63%	36%
Austria	63%	35%
Bulgaria	64%	28%
Germany	66%	33%
Latvia	67%	24%
Finland	67%	29%
Denmark	75%	22%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017
Table is ordered by lowest to highest yes values

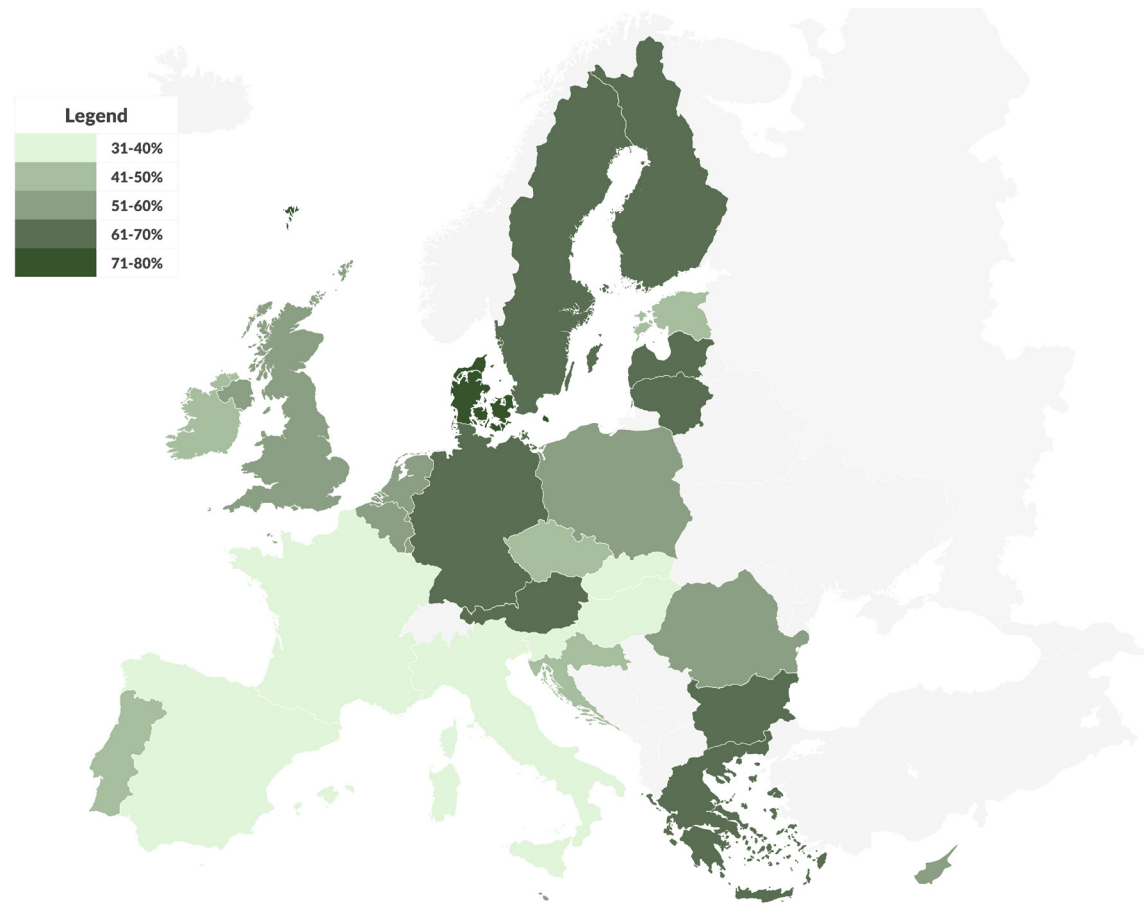


Figure 7. Percentage of population that think that gender equality has been achieved in politics in their country, EU 28 (2016)



Table 5i. Percentage who believe that women do not have the necessary qualities and skills to fill positions of responsibility in politics, EU 28 (2016)

	Agree	Disagree
Hungary	41%	55%
Romania	41%	56%
Italy	37%	61%
Latvia	35%	58%
Slovakia	27%	66%
Bulgaria	24%	70%
Croatia	24%	75%
Czech Republic	23%	73%
Cyprus	22%	78%
Austria	22%	76%
Malta	21%	76%
Estonia	20%	76%
Lithuania	20%	78%
Poland	20%	76%
Slovenia	20%	79%
EU 28	17%	80%
Belgium	16%	83%
Ireland	16%	80%
Portugal	16%	83%
Greece	15%	84%
Germany	13%	86%
Spain	10%	88%
Finland	10%	87%
Luxembourg	9%	88%
UK	9%	85%
Denmark	8%	90%
France	5%	92%
Netherlands	3%	96%
Sweden	3%	96%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by highest to lowest agree values

Table 5j. Gender breakdown of employed persons in Ireland (aged 15-89 years), by occupation (Q2 2021)

	Female	Male
Skilled trades occupations	7.7%	92.3%
Process, plant and machine operatives	17.1%	82.9%
Managers, directors and senior officials	36.4%	63.6%
Elementary occupations	39.0%	61.0%
Associate professional and technical occupations	43.2%	56.8%
All occupational groups	46.2%	53.8%
Professional occupations	53.3%	46.7%
Sales and customer service occupations	58.2%	41.8%
Administrative and secretarial occupations	76.2%	23.8%
Caring, leisure and other service occupations	80.2%	19.7%

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values for females

Table 5k. Gender breakdown of employed persons in Ireland (aged 15-89 years), by sector (Q2 2021)

	Female	Male
Construction	8.0%	92.0%
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	12.1%	87.9%
Transportation and storage	19.0%	81.0%
Industry	29.0%	71.0%
Information and communication	29.1%	70.9%
Administrative and support service activities	35.5%	64.6%
All economic sectors	41.4%	58.6%
Professional, scientific and technical activities	46.0%	54.0%
Financial, insurance and real estate activities	48.7%	51.3%
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	48.8%	51.2%
Accommodation and food service activities	52.1%	47.9%
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	54.0%	46.1%
Education	75.5%	24.5%
Human health and social work activities	80.0%	20.0%

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values for females



From Q3 2010-2021, the majority of EU 27 countries had no female head of state, however Ireland had female head of state 17% of the time (see Table 5a). The country with the highest percentage of time with a female head of state was Lithuania, which had a female president 75% of the time from 2010-2021. This is followed by Malta, Croatia and Estonia (42%), Slovakia (25%) and Greece, Ireland and Finland (17%). In addition to this, the majority of EU 27 countries, including Ireland, did not have a female head of government (prime minister) or political executive between 2010 and 2021 (see Table 5d). The country with the highest percentage of time with a female head of government was Germany, which had a female prime minister 100% of the time. They are followed by Denmark (50%); Poland and Finland (25%); Latvia, Slovenia, Romania, Croatia and Slovakia (17%); and Lithuania, Austria, Belgium, Estonia (8%).

The percentage of women in parliament (both houses) has increased in Ireland over the past 10 years, rising from 19% in Q3 2012 to 27.7% in Q3 2020 (see Table 5b). However, the 2021 share remains smaller than the EU 27 average of 32.7%, with the highest percentage of women in parliament found in Sweden (47%), and the smallest share found in Hungary (12.6%). The percentage of seats held by women in local governments in Ireland was the third lowest in the EU 27 in 2018 (see Table 5c), with only 20.1% of seats held by women. The lowest share of seats held by women was in Romania (12.5%), followed by Cyprus (16%), with the highest share in Sweden (43.8%).

Data from EIGE reveal that in Q3 2021, the share of senior ministers that are female is lower in Ireland (25.7%) than the EU 27 average (32.4%), with the highest share of 60.9% found in Spain and the lowest share of 5% recorded in Poland (see Table 5e). Similarly, the percentage of senior administrators in government that are female was lower in Ireland (33.1%) than the EU average (43.5%) in 2020 (see Table 5f). The highest percentage was recorded in Slovenia (57.3%) and the lowest was found in Hungary (18.3%).

There is a clear gender divide in certain occupations in Ireland, with men making up the vast majority of the workforce in professions typically involving manual labour and management, and women taking up the majority of positions in caring and



administrative professions (see Table 5j). In Q2 2021, the lowest share of women was found in skilled trades occupations (7.7%), followed by process, plant and machine operative occupations (17.1%), while the highest share was found in caring, leisure and other service occupations (80.2%), followed by administrative and secretarial occupations (76.2%).

There is also evidence of gender segregation by sector, with more manual labour-intensive sectors dominated by men, and health and education sectors dominated by women (see Table 5k). In Q2 2021, the sector with the lowest share of women was the construction sector (8% female), followed by the agriculture, forestry and fishing sector (12.1%), transportation and storage sector (19%), industry sector (29%), and information and communication sector (29.1%). The sector with the highest share of women was the human health and social work activities sector (80% female), followed by the education sector (75.5%).

In 2016, 51% thought that gender equality has been achieved in leadership positions in companies and other organisations in Ireland, above the EU 28 average of 44% (see Table 5g). The country with the lowest percentage who agreed with this statement was France (25%), and the country with the highest percentage was Latvia (69%). 46% of those surveyed in Ireland believed that gender equality has been achieved in Irish politics, which was below the EU 28 average of 51% (see Table 5h). The country with the lowest levels of agreement with this statement was France, and the country with the highest levels of agreement was Denmark (75%).

However, when asked if they believe that women do not have the necessary qualities and skills to fill positions of responsibility in politics, 16% of those surveyed in Ireland agreed with this belief, just below the EU average of 17% (see Table 5i). The highest levels of agreement with this belief were found in Hungary (41%), and the lowest levels were found in Sweden and the Netherlands (both 3%).

Summary

This section presented data from Ireland on six preferred indicators used by the OECD to track progress on Norm 3, as well as eight additional data tables that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in the Irish context.



The norm that men should work in “manly jobs” can translate into higher concentrations of men in leadership positions. While approximately one in two people believe the gender equality has been achieved in leadership positions in the workplace and in politics in Ireland, roughly one in six believe that women do not have the necessary qualities and skills to fill positions of responsibility in politics. This belief may be contributing to the low level of female representation in politics, as Ireland had not had a female head of state or head of government over the past 10 years, and was the country with the third smallest share of women in local government in the EU 27 in 2018. Ireland also had a smaller share of female senior ministers and a smaller percentage of women in parliament than the EU average in Q3 2021, although this share of the latter has been increasing over time. The share of senior administrators in government that are female was also lower in Ireland than the EU average in 2020.

This norm may also be contributing to the gender divide in certain occupations and sectors in Ireland. In 2021, men made up over two thirds of those in skilled trade occupations and process, plant and machine operative professions, and contributed over two thirds of the workforce in the construction, agriculture, forestry and fishing; transportation and storage; industry; and information and communication sectors. Women made up over two thirds of those in caring, leisure and other service occupations and administrative and secretarial professions, and contributed over two thirds of the workforce in the human health and social work sector and education sector.

4. A man should be the “ideal worker”

A man should be the “ideal worker”, prioritising work over all other aspects of life

This section presents four preferred indicators for Norm 4 where data is available from the Irish context, as well as three tables of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in Ireland.

Female labour force participation and employment rates

See table 3a and 3b

Percentage of low-paid workers, among all low-paid workers, who are female

See table 3c



Percentage of the population approving of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children

Table 6a. Percentage that approve of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children, EU 28 (2016)

	Approve	Disapprove
Hungary	56%	16%
Czech Republic	58%	25%
Romania	62%	14%
Slovakia	62%	14%
Croatia	66%	13%
Bulgaria	68%	14%
Lithuania	69%	17%
Latvia	73%	15%
Austria	76%	5%
Greece	79%	9%
Estonia	79%	6%
Cyprus	81%	8%
Poland	81%	7%
Belgium	83%	5%
Italy	83%	3%
EU28	84%	5%
Slovenia	87%	5%
Germany	87%	4%
United Kingdom	87%	4%
Luxembourg	89%	4%
Spain	90%	4%
France	90%	4%
Ireland	92%	2%
Netherlands	92%	2%
Denmark	93%	2%
Portugal	93%	2%
Finland	95%	2%
Malta	95%	1%
Sweden	96%	0%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered by lowest to highest approve values

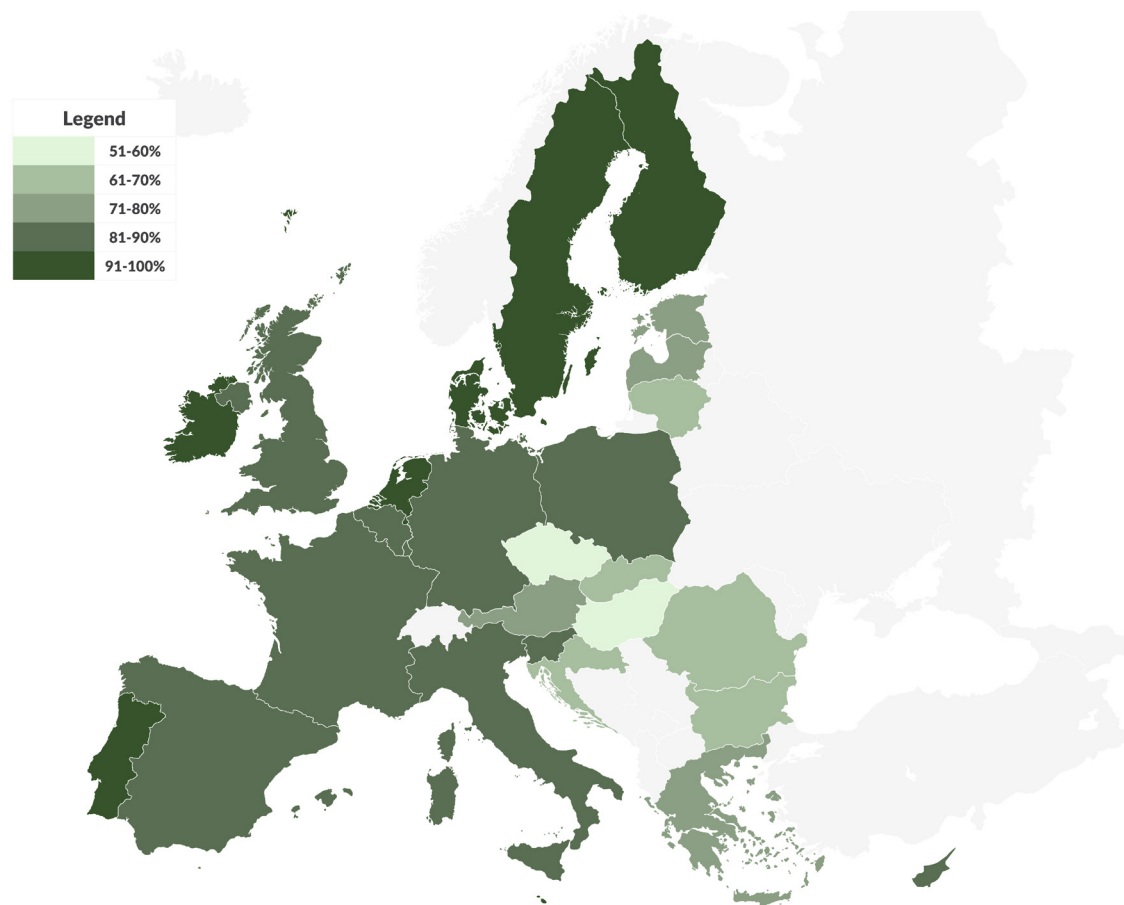


Figure 8. Percentage of population that approve of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children, EU 28 (2016)



Number of users of publicly administered paternity leave benefits or publicly administered paid paternity leave

Table 6b. Paternity benefit rate (per hundred employees) in Ireland, by sector (2016-2019)

	2016	2017	2018	2019
Accommodation and Food Service Activities	0.2	1.3	1.1	1.1
Administrative and Support Service Activities	0.4	2.1	2.0	1.7
Human Health and Social Work Activities	0.5	3.0	2.9	2.7
Wholesale and Retail Trade	0.5	2.8	2.5	2.8
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.6	3.0	2.4	2.9
Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities	0.6	3.4	3.1	3.1
Transportation and Storage	0.6	3.4	3.0	3.2
All economic sectors	0.6	3.3	3.1	3.3
Information and Communication	0.6	3.1	2.9	3.3
Construction	0.6	3.1	3.0	3.4
Education	0.9	4.3	4.2	3.8
Financial and Real Estate	0.9	4.7	4.3	4.2
Industry	0.8	4.0	3.9	4.5
Public Administration and Defence	0.9	4.8	4.8	5.6

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by lowest to highest values for 2019

Additional data from Ireland

Table 6c. Percentage of eligible fathers in Ireland who did not take up paternity benefit, by sector (2017-2018)

	2017	2018
Accommodation and Food Service Activities	52.2	57.5
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	47.7	54.4
Administrative and Support Service Activities	49.1	52.4
Construction	49.9	52.3
Transportation and Storage	47.4	49.2
Wholesale and Retail Trade	44.1	47.8
Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities	41.5	46.5
All economic sectors	42.8	45.5
Information and Communication	43.2	44.6
Human Health and Social Work Activities	39.8	42.0
Public Administration and Defence	39.5	39.2
Financial and Real Estate	34.5	37.9
Industry	35.4	37.2
Education	31.6	30.7

Source: CSO, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest values for 2018



Table 6d. Difference in the number of usual weekly hours of work in main job between men and women, EU 27 (2020)

	Female	Male	Both	Difference (hours)
Netherlands	25.5	34.5	30.3	9.0
Austria	32.0	40.3	36.4	8.3
Germany	30.4	38.4	34.7	8.0
Ireland	32.4	39.9	36.5	7.5
Italy	32.9	39.8	36.9	6.9
Belgium	33.7	40.3	37.2	6.6
EU 27	34.1	39.5	37.0	5.4
Spain	34.8	39.8	37.5	5.0
Greece	38.9	43.9	41.8	5.0
Luxembourg	34.8	39.7	37.4	4.9
France	34.9	39.7	37.4	4.8
Malta	37.2	41.2	39.6	4.0
Denmark	31.4	35.2	33.4	3.8
Finland	34.8	38.1	36.5	3.3
Cyprus	37.3	40.6	39.0	3.3
Poland	38.4	41.4	40.1	3.0
Czech Republic	38.3	41.2	39.9	2.9
Sweden	34.8	37.6	36.3	2.8
Portugal	37.8	40.6	39.2	2.8
Estonia	36.7	39.1	37.9	2.4
Slovakia	38.7	40.8	39.9	2.1
Slovenia	38.4	40.4	39.5	2.0
Latvia	37.9	39.3	38.6	1.4
Croatia	38.9	40.2	39.6	1.3
Hungary	38.6	39.8	39.3	1.2
Lithuania	38.3	39.4	38.8	1.1
Romania	39.3	40.1	39.8	0.8
Bulgaria	40.0	40.7	40.4	0.7

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest difference values

Table 6e. Difference in the number of years of working life between men and women, EU 27 (2020)

	Female	Male	Both	Difference (years)
Italy	26.4	35.7	31.2	9.3
Malta	32.3	41.2	36.9	8.9
Cyprus	33.6	40.7	37.1	7.1
Greece	29.2	36.2	32.8	7.0
Romania	30.4	37.3	34.0	6.9
Ireland	33.5	40.1	36.9	6.6
Czech Republic	32.7	39.2	36.0	6.5
Hungary	31.2	37.4	34.4	6.2
Poland	30.7	36.5	33.6	5.8
Croatia	30.3	35.1	32.8	4.8
EU 27	33.2	38.0	35.7	4.8
Slovakia	31.6	36.4	34.0	4.8
Netherlands	38.8	43.1	41.0	4.3
Austria	35.3	39.5	37.5	4.2
Spain	32.6	36.8	34.8	4.2
Belgium	31.5	35.2	33.4	3.7
Denmark	38.2	41.7	40.0	3.5
Germany	37.3	40.7	39.1	3.4
Bulgaria	31.8	35.2	33.5	3.4
France	33.5	36.7	35.2	3.2
Luxembourg	32.5	35.5	34.1	3.0
Portugal	36.3	39.0	37.6	2.7
Sweden	40.6	43.2	42.0	2.6
Slovenia	34.7	36.6	35.7	1.9
Finland	38.1	39.5	38.8	1.4
Estonia	38.6	39.9	39.2	1.3
Latvia	37.1	37.4	37.3	0.3
Lithuania	37.6	37.2	37.4	-0.4

Source: Eurostat, 2021

Table is ordered by highest to lowest difference values



In the 2017 Eurobarometer survey on gender equality, a high proportion of the Irish population (92%) approved of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children, higher than the EU 28 average of 84% (see Table 6a). The highest levels of approval were found in Sweden (96%), and the lowest levels were in Hungary (56%). In Ireland, the paternity benefit²⁰ rate per 100 employees stood at 3.3 in 2019, and has increased since it was first introduced in 2016 (see Table 6b). The 2019 rate was highest in the public administration and defence sector (5.6 per 100 employees), and lowest in the accommodation and food service sector (1.1 per 100 employees).

The paternity benefit uptake rate has increased in almost all sectors since 2017 (see Table 6c)²¹. However, a high proportion of eligible fathers (45.5%) did not use their paternity benefit in 2018. This percentage was highest in the accommodation and food service sector, where 57.5% did not take up their paternity benefit, and lowest in the education sector (30.7%).

In all EU countries, men work longer hours per week than women (see Table 6d), and in most EU countries, have a longer working life than women (see Table 6e). On average, employed women in Ireland worked 32.4 hours per week in 2020, which is 7.5 hours less than the hours worked by employed men. This difference is larger than the EU average of 5.4 hours, and is among the highest in the EU, with the highest difference of 9 hours recorded in the Netherlands and the lowest difference of 0.7 hours recorded in Bulgaria. Ireland also had one of the highest differences in years of working life among men and women, with women working for an average of 33.5 years, 6.6 years less than men. This is also higher than the average EU difference of 4.8 years, with the highest difference recorded in Italy (9.3 years) and the lowest recorded in Lithuania (-0.4)²² years.

Summary

This section presented data from Ireland on four preferred indicators used by the OECD to track progress on Norm 4, as well as three additional data tables that can

²⁰ For information about maternity benefit uptake, see Statistical Spotlight #3: The Reconciliation of Work and Family Life: <https://www.gov.ie/en/publication/c2a87f-the-statistical-spotlight-series/>

²¹ As mentioned, paternity benefit was first introduced in 2016. It is not restricted to men as it is also available for same-sex couples. For more information, see <https://www.irishstatutebook.ie/eli/2016/act/11/enacted/en/html>

²² In Lithuania, women worked an average of 0.4 years more than men in 2020.



assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in the Irish context.

The ideal worker norm appears less prevalent in Ireland than in many EU countries, however, there is some evidence that it may be contributing to the low rate of paternity benefit uptake. While the vast majority of the population approve of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children, almost half of all eligible fathers did not use their paternity benefit in 2018.

The ideal worker norm may also be encouraging longer weekly working hours and years of working life among men. Men in Ireland work an average of 7.5 more hours a week in their main job than women, and an average of 6.6 more years during their working life. These gender gaps in hours and years worked were among the highest in the EU in 2020.

5. A man should be a “manly” leader

A man should be a “manly” leader, cultivating an assertive and space-occupying leadership style

Of the indicators used by the OECD to measure progress on 5 Norm, which states that men should be “manly leaders”, the only indicators with data available from Ireland are those also used by Norm 3, which relates to men working “manly jobs”. No additional indicators, other than the ones used under Norm 3, could be found to illustrate progress on Norm 5. Therefore, in order to track developments under Norm 5, please refer to Tables 5a to 5k.

Private sphere

The OECD Report also addresses five norms of restrictive masculinities in the private sphere, which typically relate to household decision-making and practices. These norms dictate that a ‘real man’ should not do unpaid care and domestic work, should have a final say in domestic decisions, should protect and exercise guardianship of family members, should dominate sexual and reproductive choices, and should be in control of household assets. The private sphere norms can have a significant impact



on the empowerment of women and girls by hindering their decision-making power over their own time, bodies and resources.

While the OECD Report highlights a number of indicators that can be used to measure the prevalence and consequences of these five private sphere norms, data from Ireland is mainly collected for indicators under Norm 6 (which relates to unpaid care and domestic work). No OECD indicator data or additional data from Ireland could be found for Norm 7, which relates to having the final say in household decisions, and Norm 10, which tracks control of household assets.

This section will highlight the data gaps for each norm, and will outline the data that is available from Ireland that may help to shed light on the OECD indicators from the private sphere. It is worth noting that in some cases, it would be neither necessary nor desirable to fill these data gaps, but in other cases, it may be worthwhile for data to be collected in the Irish context.

OECD indicators used to measure norms in the private sphere

6. Not do unpaid care and domestic work

Considering this work as generally “women’s work”

The norm that a ‘real man’ **should not do unpaid care and domestic work** upholds unequal divisions of household labour, which can present barriers to the participation of women in the paid labour force and hinder their economic empowerment. The OECD Report notes that although women have taken on more paid labour since the start of the 20th century, the contribution of men to unpaid care and domestic work has not increased enough to compensate for this change. There are also clear gender divisions within unpaid work, with men more likely to engage in less frequent tasks such as gardening and repair work, and women more likely to engage in more regular tasks, such as cooking and cleaning.


Table 7a. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 6: Not do unpaid care and domestic work

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population declaring that childcare and housework are not tasks that are suitable for men	No	No
Percentage of the population declaring that: In my community a man who does childcare and housework would be judged	No	No
Percentage of the population associating some household activities with being masculine or feminine, not gender neutral	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A man who stays at home to look after his children is less of a man	No	Yes, 27 countries
Percentage of the population reporting that they share equally childcare and housework	No	No
The female to male ratio of participation rate in unpaid care and housework, by activity	No	No
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of respondents agreeing that employers should make it easier for men to combine childcare with work	No	Yes, 27 countries
Percentage of the population finding it acceptable to let women do the majority of housework, childcare and elderly care	No	Yes, 17 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: I think it is shameful when men engage in caring for children or other domestic work	No	Yes, 5 countries
Percentage of men agreeing with the following statement: society tells me that a husband shouldn't have to do household chores	No	Yes, 3 countries
Percentage of ever-married respondents reporting that they participated in cleaning the bathroom, and/or preparing food in the previous month	No	Yes, 8 countries
Percentage of men reporting that they change diapers of a child (age 0-4 years) several times a week or more	No	Yes, 6 countries
Percentage of men reporting that they cook for a child (age 0-4 years) several times a week or more	No	Yes, 6 countries
Percentage of the population disapproving of a man doing an equal share of housework	Yes, see Table 8a	Yes, 28 countries
Female to male ratio of average time spent on unpaid care and domestic work	Yes, see Table 8b	Yes, 102 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



7. Have the final say in household decisions

Positioning him at the top of a hierarchy at home

According to the OECD Report, norms of restrictive masculinities also dictate that a ‘real man’ **should have the final say in household decisions**, giving men disproportionate influence over the family affairs, relationships and activities of other household members. The Report notes that this can translate into domestic violence if men feel that their decisions are not respected by other household members, in order to preserve their position of power in the household.

Table 7b. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 7: Have the final say in household decisions

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A man should have the final word about decisions in his home	No	Yes, 25 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Most people in my community expect men to have the final word about decisions in the home	No	Yes, 3 countries
Percentage of women taking part in the decision-making process at home	No	No
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of women and men agreeing with the following statement: A wife does not have the right to challenge her husband’s opinions and decisions, even if she disagrees with him	No	Yes, 3 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: Most people in my community believe that a wife does not have the right to challenge her husband’s opinions and decisions even if she disagrees with him	No	Yes, 3 countries
Percentage of women who say that they alone or jointly have the final say in none of the three main decisions (accessing own healthcare; making large purchases; visiting family, relatives, friends)	No	Yes, 69 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



8. Protect and exercise guardianship of family members

Directing it especially at women and girls in the family

The OECD Report details how norms that dictate that a ‘real man’ should **protect and exercise guardianship over women** in the household can lead to control over women’s behaviour and personal choices, such as how they dress, what activities they engage in outside the home, when they can leave the home, and who they can spend their time with. This can also extend to control over which paid professions women are allowed to engage in, which further restricts the access of women to the labour market, particularly to traditionally male-dominated occupations.

Table 7c. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 8: Protect and exercise guardianship of family members

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A woman should obey her husband/partner	No	Yes, 6 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: It is a man’s duty to exercise guardianship over female relatives	No	Yes, 5 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, a woman is expected to obey the decisions of her husband/partner	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: A woman needs to seek approval from her husband/partner before: going outside; working for pay; opening a business; seeking healthcare; visiting friends or family; opening a bank account and/or applying for credit; obtaining a passport; travelling abroad	No	No
Percentage of women reporting that they need to seek approval from their husband/partner before: going outside; working for pay; opening a business; seeking healthcare; visiting friends or family; opening a bank account and/or applying for credit; obtaining a passport; travelling abroad	No	No
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of the population finding it acceptable for women to always obey her husband	No	Yes, 17 countries
Percentage of women and men agreeing with the following statement: A woman does not have the	No	Yes, 3 countries



right to challenge her man's opinions and decisions, even if she disagrees with him		
Percentage of men and women agreeing with the following statement: A married woman should have the same rights to work outside the home as her husband	No	Yes, 4 countries
Percentage of ever-married women whose husband/partner insists on knowing where she is at all times	No	Yes, 54 countries
Percentage of women for whom the decision-maker regarding visits to her family or relatives is mainly the husband	No	Yes, 69 countries
Percentage of women who report that the decision-maker regarding their own healthcare is mainly the husband	No	Yes, 70 countries
Percentage of women whose husband/partner tries to limit their contact with their family	No	Yes, 55 countries
Percentage of ever-married women whose husband/partner does not permit her to meet her female friends	No	Yes, 54 countries
Percentage of ever-partnered respondents agreeing with the following statement: Men tell women who she can spend time with	No	Yes, 17 countries
Percentage of ever-partnered respondents agreeing with the following statement: A husband controls when his wife can leave the house	No	Yes, 8 countries

Source: OECD, 2021

9. Dominate sexual and reproductive choices

Initiating sexual encounters and making decisions regarding having children, birth spacing, etc.

According to the OECD Report, the expectation that ‘real men’ can **dominate the sexual and reproductive choices of women** includes the denial of a woman’s right to refuse sexual intercourse with her spouse, as well as the expectation that men should have the final say over the use of contraceptives and choices about family size and birth spacing. This can undermine a woman’s sexual health, and can force women to have more children than they otherwise would have wanted, which can increase the burden of unpaid work on women and further restrict their access to the labour market, particularly to full-time and higher paid positions.


Table 7d. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 9: Dominate sexual and reproductive choices

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population believing that a woman is not justified in proposing condom use	No	No
Percentage of the population disagreeing that men and women should decide together whether they want to have children, when and how many	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: If a husband/partner provides financially, his wife is obliged to have sex with him whenever he wants	No	Yes, 4 countries
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, most people believe that if a husband/partner provides financially, his wife is obliged to have sex with him whenever he wants	No	No
Percentage of women and men agreeing with the following statement: I think a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband	No	Yes, 6 countries
Percentage of women declaring not using contraception or accessing family planning because of their husband's/partner's refusal	No	Yes, 2 countries
Percentage of women declaring having refused sexual intercourse with their husband/partner without facing adverse consequences	No	No
Percentage of women reporting that they took the decision about whether and how many children to have together with their husband/partner	No	No
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of women and men reporting that a woman is justified in refusing to have sexual intercourse with her husband if: she knows he has sex with other women; he has a sexually transmitted disease; she has recently given birth; she is tired or not in the mood	No	Yes, 78 countries
Percentage of women and men reporting that a wife is justified in asking that her husband use a condom if she knows that he has a sexually transmitted disease	No	Yes, 60 countries
Percentage of the population finding it unacceptable for a woman to refuse sexual intercourse with her partner	No	Yes, 17 countries
Percentage of men agreeing with the following statement: If a husband provides financially, his wife is obliged to have sex with him whenever he wants	No	Yes, 4 countries
Percentage of women and men who agree that a husband is justified in hitting or beating his wife if she refuses to have sex with him	No	Yes, 70 countries
Percentage of men reporting that they would be outraged if their wife asked them to use a condom	No	Yes, 5 countries
Percentage of respondents reporting that the husband has the final say on the use of contraception	No	Yes, 11 countries
Percentage of women with an unmet need for family planning	No	Yes, 78 countries

Source: OECD, 2021



10. Control household assets

Solidifying his authority at home by controlling and administering household assets

Finally, the OECD Report notes that restrictive masculinities also prescribe that a ‘real man’ **controls household assets and finances**, which is key to preserving control in the private sphere. According to the OECD Report, this includes exercising decision-making authority over household expenditure, such as spending on necessities such as food and clothing, as well as long-term financial investments, large purchases and savings. This can also include preventing women in the household from owning, administering and make decisions over land and other non-financial assets. The Report notes that this not only negatively impacts the economic self-sufficiency of women and their ability to leave their partner, but can also hinder the development outcomes of children in the household, as women are more likely to invest in children than men. Men are also more likely to pass on their assets to sons than daughters, leading to even great economic inequality between men and women. If women internalise these restrictive gender norms, they may defer financial decision making and underestimate their own ability to manage resources.

Table 7e. OECD Indicators used to measure Norm 10: Control household assets

	Data available in Ireland?	Data available in other countries?
Preferred indicators		
Percentage of the population declaring that men should have sole decision-making authority over the household’s financial assets	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing that men should have a say in how the money women earn is spent	No	No
Percentage of the population agreeing with the following statement: In my community, men are expected to make the major financial decisions for their households	No	No
Percentage of women who report that they take part in the decision-making processes relating to household financial assets on an equal footing with men in the household	No	No
Percentage of women who report that they take part in the decision-making processes relating to non-financial household assets on an equal footing with men in the household	No	No



Percentage of women who report having the final say in how the money they earn is spent	No	No
Alternative indicators		
Percentage of women for whom the decision-maker regarding major household purchases is mainly the husband	No	Yes, 70 countries
Percentage of respondents reporting that the husband/man usually makes decisions about large investments	No	Yes, 21 countries
Percentage of women who report letting their spouse take the lead on long-term financial decisions	No	Yes, 10 countries

Source: OECD, 2021

Data used to measure norms in the private sphere

The following section will present the data from Ireland that can be used to measure the five norms of restrictive masculinities that dominate the private sphere. This will mainly consist of data used to measure the indicators identified by the OECD, as outlined in the tables in the previous section. However, additional indicators not mentioned in the OECD Report, along with their associated data, will also be presented in this section. These additional indicators can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of norms of restrictive masculinities in the private sphere in Ireland. It is worth noting that some of these indicators can be used to measure progress in more than one norm.

6. Not do unpaid care and domestic work

Considering this work as generally “women’s work”

This section presents two alternative indicators for Norm 6 where data is available from the Irish context, as well as two tables of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in Ireland.



Percentage of the population disapproving of a man doing an equal share of housework

Table 8a. Percentage who disapprove of a man doing an equal share of household activities, EU 28 (2016)

	Approve	Disapprove
Lithuania	64%	16%
Czech Republic	66%	15%
Bulgaria	74%	9%
Greece	72%	9%
Croatia	70%	9%
Austria	74%	8%
Romania	74%	8%
Slovenia	78%	8%
Germany	78%	7%
Cyprus	81%	5%
Latvia	88%	5%
Hungary	74%	5%
EU 28	84%	4%
Poland	85%	4%
Portugal	86%	4%
Slovakia	77%	4%
Spain	93%	3%
Italy	82%	3%
Belgium	88%	2%
Estonia	90%	2%
France	93%	2%
Luxembourg	92%	2%
Finland	91%	2%
United Kingdom	89%	2%
Ireland	93%	1%
Malta	95%	1%
Netherlands	92%	1%
Denmark	95%	0%
Sweden	94%	0%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2017

Table is ordered from highest to lowest disapprove values

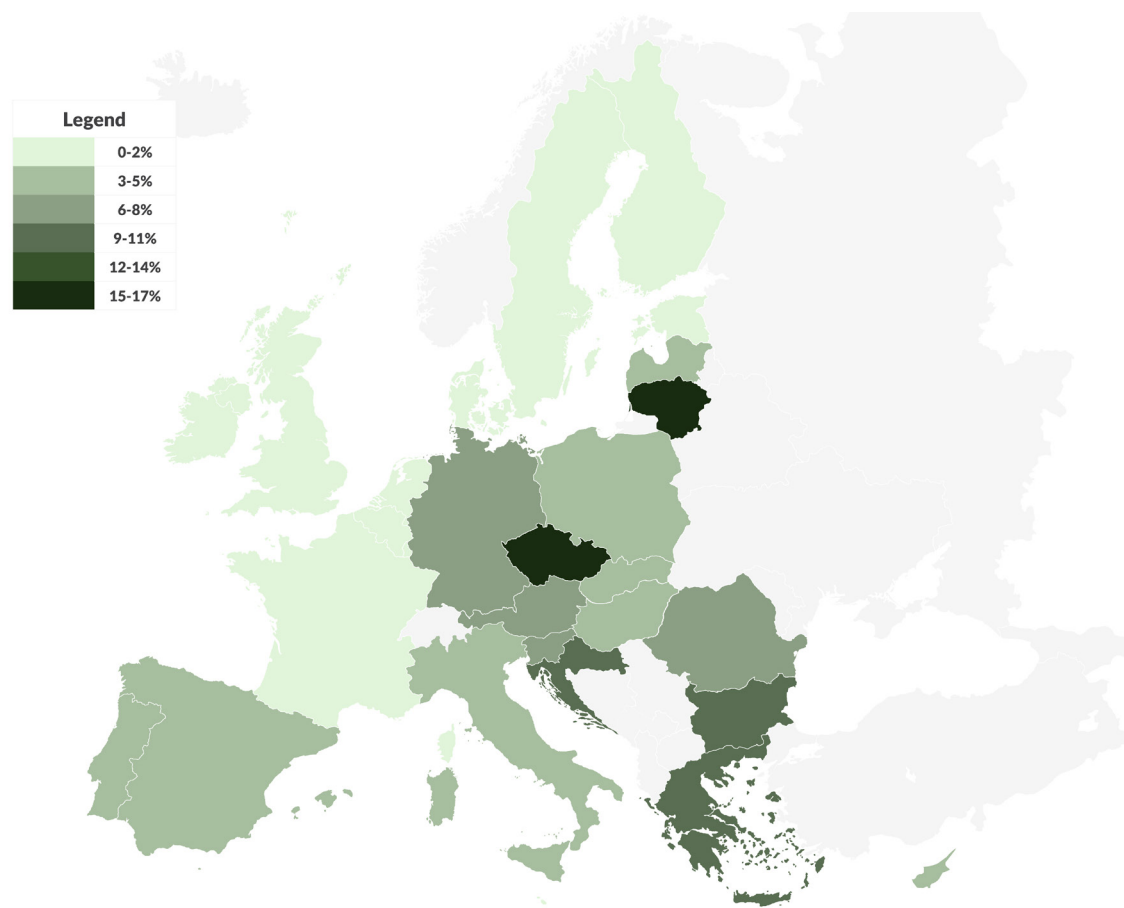


Figure 9. Percentage of the population who disapprove of a man doing an equal share of household activities, EU 28 (2016)



Male to female ratio of average time spent on unpaid care and domestic work

Table 8b. Modelled male to female ratio of weekly unpaid work hours, EU 28 (2016)

	Male: Female ratio of hours worked	Gender gap (hours)
Czech Republic	1.0 : 3.0	19.3
Greece	1.0 : 2.8	20.2
Croatia	1.0 : 2.6	14.1
Italy	1.0 : 2.6	19.7
Bulgaria	1.0 : 2.5	18.4
Lithuania	1.0 : 2.4	17.0
Cyprus	1.0 : 2.2	18.2
Belgium	1.0 : 2.1	15.5
Hungary	1.0 : 2.1	15.1
Malta	1.0 : 2.1	19.4
Slovenia	1.0 : 2.1	13.9
Austria	1.0 : 2.0	16.7
EU 28	1.0 : 2.0	14.5
Poland	1.0 : 2.0	17.4
Portugal	1.0 : 2.0	11.4
Spain	1.0 : 2.0	16.9
France	1.0 : 1.9	13.0
Ireland	1.0 : 1.9	18.1
Luxembourg	1.0 : 1.9	14.3
Slovakia	1.0 : 1.9	11.8
Finland	1.0 : 1.8	11.0
Germany	1.0 : 1.8	11.2
Netherlands	1.0 : 1.8	14.5
Romania	1.0 : 1.7	15.5
United Kingdom	1.0 : 1.7	11.9
Denmark	1.0 : 1.6	7.8
Estonia	1.0 : 1.5	8.7
Sweden	1.0 : 1.4	7.2
Latvia	1.0 : 1.3	7.6

Source: ESRI, 2019

Table is ordered from highest to lowest ratio values



Additional data from Ireland

Table 8c. Mean hours per week men and women in Ireland are involved in cooking and/or housework outside of paid work, 2016

	Women	Men	Difference
Malta	22.4	11.2	11.2
Italy	19.2	8.8	10.4
Cyprus	20.5	10.3	10.2
Greece	19.2	9.1	10.1
Ireland	20.5	11.3	9.2
Spain	20.1	11.1	9.0
Croatia	17.6	8.9	8.7
Slovenia	16.3	8.0	8.3
Luxembourg	16.1	8.3	7.8
Bulgaria	17.8	10.3	7.5
Czech Republic	15.6	8.3	7.3
Lithuania	15.2	8.2	7.0
EU 28	16.5	9.9	6.6
Belgium	15.6	9.1	6.5
Austria	15.8	9.6	6.2
Germany	15.4	9.2	6.2
Hungary	16.6	10.5	6.1
Netherlands	14.4	8.5	5.9
United Kingdom	14.7	8.8	5.9
France	14.3	8.6	5.7
Portugal	16.1	10.5	5.6
Slovakia	14.4	9.2	5.2
Finland	12.8	8.0	4.8
Poland	17.1	12.5	4.6
Latvia	17.3	13.1	4.2
Denmark	10.9	7.9	3.0
Estonia	14.3	11.4	2.9
Romania	22.5	19.8	2.7
Sweden	11.9	9.3	2.6

Source: EIGE, 2021

Table is ordered from highest to lowest difference values

Table 8d. Percentage who find it difficult to combine paid work with their care responsibilities, EU 28 (2016)

	Female	Male
Romania	67.3	36.0
Greece	67.0	54.5
Cyprus	66.8	45.5
Croatia	65.6	51.2
Bulgaria	62.4	47.5
Czech Republic	54.7	58.6
Hungary	51.7	46.5
Spain	50.4	52.3
Malta	48.7	48.2
Italy	47.5	38.1
United Kingdom	43.5	27.8
EU 28	41.9	34.2
Portugal	40.6	30.8
Slovenia	40.2	28.4
Slovakia	38.8	40.0
Belgium	37.2	34.2
Luxembourg	36.5	32.5
Poland	36.5	22.4
France	35.2	24.9
Sweden	35.2	24.6
Latvia	33.4	32.2
Lithuania	31.2	21.5
Finland	30.8	19.7
Germany	28.6	33.0
Ireland	28.1	13.6
Denmark	25.0	20.0
Netherlands	24.0	20.9
Austria	23.9	28.5
Estonia	21.1	23.7

Source: Eurofound, 2016

Table is ordered from highest to lowest values for females



The vast majority of those surveyed in Ireland in 2016 approved of a man doing an equal share of housework: one of the highest levels of approval in the EU 28 (see Table 8a). The average approval level for the EU 28 was 84%, with the lowest percentage found in Lithuania (64%) and the highest percentage found in Sweden (94%).

An ESRI analysis²³ of data from Eurofound reveals that in 2016, Ireland had an average male to female ratio of weekly hours of unpaid work²⁴ of 1.0:1.9 hours, meaning that women engaged in almost twice the amount of unpaid work per week (see Table 8b). This was slightly lower than the EU average male to female ratio of 1.0:2.0 hours of unpaid work, with the highest male to female ratio found in the Czech Republic (1.0:3.0 hours), and the lowest ratio found in Latvia (1:3 hours).

However, the ESRI analysis also reveals that Ireland was among the EU 28 countries with the highest gender gaps in weekly hours of unpaid work in 2016, with women engaging in an additional 18.1 hours of unpaid housework and caring work per week. This gap was highest in Greece, where women worked an average of 20.2 hours more than men, and was lowest in Sweden, where women worked an average of 7.2 hours more than men.

Focusing solely on housework activities, women in Ireland reported engaging in 20.5 weekly hours of housework outside of paid work, 9.2 hours more than men (see Table 8c). This the fourth highest amount of weekly housework activity recorded by women in the EU 28 in 2016, and the fifth highest gender gap in weekly hours of unpaid housework. The largest gender gap of 11.2 hours was recorded in Malta, with the lowest recorded in Sweden (2.6 hours).

The 2016 Eurofound survey also reveals that while 13.6% of men in Ireland found it difficult to combine paid work with their care responsibilities, this percentage more than doubles among women, with 28.1% finding it difficult to combine paid work and unpaid care work (see Table 8d). The percentage of women who agreed with this

²³ The ESRI analysis models the estimated level of unpaid work for men and women in each EU 28 country if the distribution of observed characteristics (age, education, employment status, partnership status, and age of children) was the same in each country i.e. controlling for (holding constant) all of these characteristics.

²⁴ Unpaid work is calculated as the combination of unpaid caring work and unpaid housework. For more information, see https://www.ihrec.ie/app/uploads/2019/07/Caring-and-Unpaid-Work-in-Ireland_Final.pdf



statement was lowest in Estonia (21.1%) and highest in Romania (67.3%). Among men in the EU 28, Ireland was the country with the lowest percentage of men agreeing that they find it difficult to combine paid work with their care responsibilities. The highest level of male agreement with this statement was recorded in the Czech Republic (58.6%), despite the fact that the Czech Republic had the highest male to female ratio of weekly hours of unpaid work, with women engaging in approximately three times the amount of unpaid work (see Table 8b).

Summary

This section presented data from Ireland on two alternative indicators used by the OECD to track progress on Norm 6, as well as two additional data tables that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in the Irish context.

While the vast majority appear to approve of a man doing an equal share of housework, the norm of men not doing unpaid care and domestic work remains visible in data from Ireland. The gender gap in weekly hours of unpaid work was among the highest in the EU 28 in 2016, however men and women in Ireland both reported doing higher levels of unpaid work than the EU average, and the male to female ratio of weekly hours of unpaid work in 2016 was below the EU average. Men in Ireland recorded the lowest levels of difficulty in combining paid work with their care responsibilities in the EU, less than half the level reported by women in Ireland.

8. Protect and exercise guardianship of family members

Directing it especially at women and girls in the family

This section presents one table of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of this Norm in Ireland. No data from Ireland was available to measure any preferred or alternative indicators outlined in the OECD Report.



Additional data from Ireland

Table 9. Percentage who think that trying to control a partner is not wrong and should not be against the law, EU 28 (2016)

	Percentage of total
Lithuania	5%
Italy	4%
Latvia	3%
Romania	3%
Slovakia	3%
EU 28	2%
Belgium	2%
Bulgaria	2%
Germany	2%
Croatia	2%
Austria	2%
Poland	2%
Slovenia	2%
Czech Republic	1%
Estonia	1%
Ireland	1%
Greece	1%
Spain	1%
France	1%
Cyprus	1%
Luxembourg	1%
Hungary	1%
Malta	1%
Netherlands	1%
Finland	1%
Sweden	1%
Denmark	0%
Portugal	0%
UK	0%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2016

Table is ordered from highest to lowest values

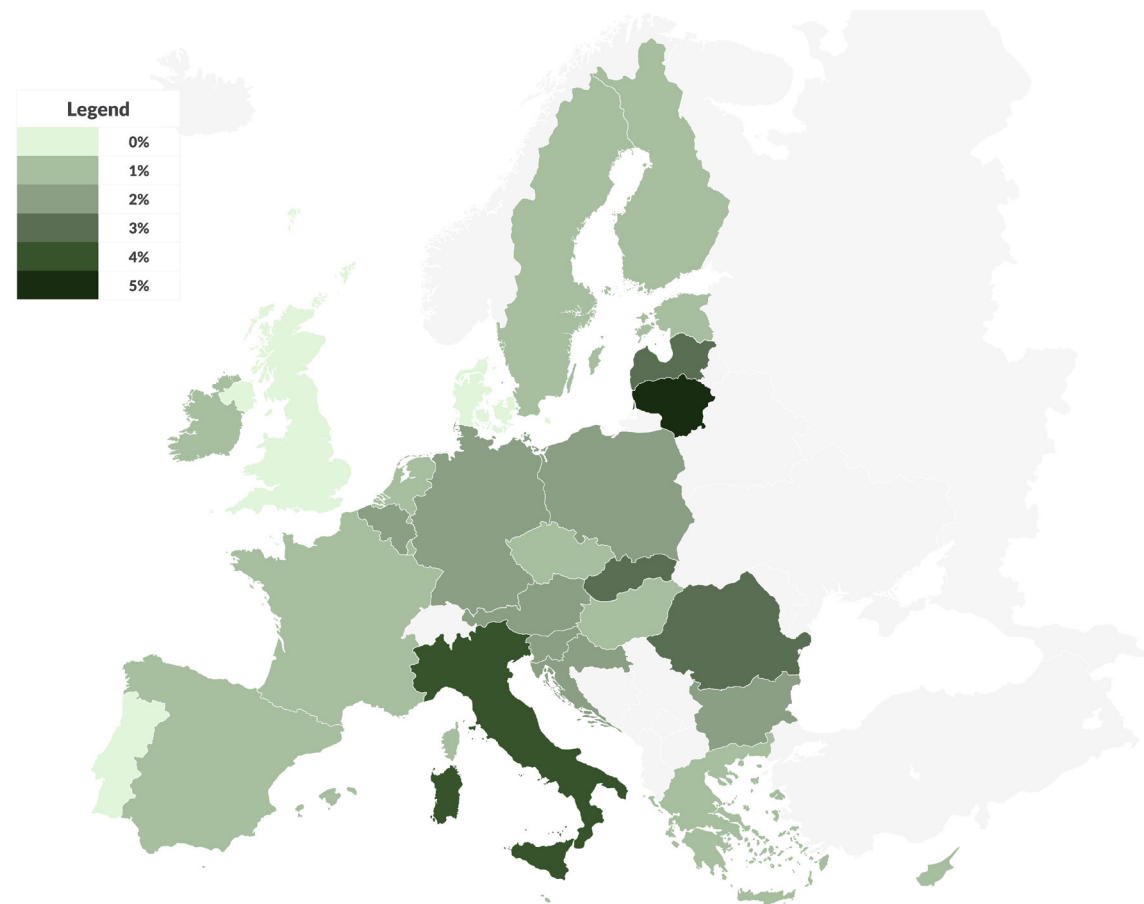


Figure 10. Percentage of the population who think that trying to control a partner is not wrong and should not be against the law, EU 28 (2016)



Eurobarometer data from 2016 reveal that 1% of those surveyed in Ireland believe that trying to control a partner is not wrong and should not be against the law (see Table 9). Controlling a partner is defined as preventing them from seeing and contacting family and friends, denying them money or confiscating mobile phones or official documents (driver's licence, ID etc.). This was below the EU average of 2%, with the highest levels of agreement with this statement found in Lithuania (5%), and the lowest levels of agreement found in Denmark, Portugal and the UK (all 0%).

Summary

This section one additional data table that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of Norm 8 in the Irish context. There is an absence of data from Ireland to allow progress on Norm 8 to be measured across a number of different indicators. Attitudinal data reveals that a small percentage of the Irish population feel that controlling a partner is not wrong and should not be against the law. However, additional data is needed in order to better evaluate if issues related to the control of men over their family members are prevalent in Ireland.

9. Dominate sexual and reproductive choices

Initiating sexual encounters and making decisions regarding having children, birth spacing, etc.

This section presents two tables of additional data not mentioned in the OECD Report that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of Norm 9 in Ireland. No data from Ireland was available to measure any preferred or alternative indicators outlined in the OECD Report.



Additional data from Ireland

Table 10a. Percentage who think that forcing a partner to have sex is not wrong and should not be against the law, EU 28 (2016)

	Percentage of total
Lithuania	4%
Italy	3%
Bulgaria	2%
Czech Republic	2%
Ireland	2%
Latvia	2%
Austria	2%
Poland	2%
Romania	2%
Slovenia	2%
Slovakia	2%
EU 28	1%
Belgium	1%
Germany	1%
Estonia	1%
Greece	1%
Spain	1%
Croatia	1%
Luxembourg	1%
Hungary	1%
Malta	1%
Netherlands	1%
Portugal	1%
Finland	1%
Sweden	1%
Denmark	0%
France	0%
Cyprus	0%
UK	0%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2016

Table is ordered from highest to lowest values

Table 10b. Percentage who think that sexual intercourse without consent is justified in certain circumstances, EU 28 (2016)

	If the other person does not clearly say no or physically fight back	If the assailant regrets their actions
Romania	22%	4%
Czech Republic	19%	2%
Bulgaria	16%	2%
Greece	16%	1%
Luxembourg	15%	2%
Belgium	14%	5%
Germany	14%	1%
Cyprus	14%	2%
Hungary	14%	3%
Slovakia	13%	3%
France	12%	3%
Austria	12%	4%
Estonia	11%	1%
Latvia	11%	3%
Malta	11%	3%
EU 28	10%	2%
Lithuania	10%	2%
Portugal	10%	1%
Croatia	9%	2%
Poland	9%	2%
Ireland	8%	3%
Netherlands	8%	2%
Italy	7%	1%
Denmark	6%	1%
Finland	6%	0%
UK	6%	3%
Slovenia	5%	1%
Sweden	4%	2%
Spain	3%	0%

Source: Eurobarometer, 2016

Table is ordered from highest to lowest values for the first column



The percentage of those in Ireland who believe that forcing a partner to have sex is not wrong and should not be against the law was 2% in 2016, above the EU 28 average of 1% (see Table 10a). The highest rate of agreement with this statement was found in Lithuania (4%), and the lowest rate was recorded Denmark, France, Cyprus and the UK (all 0%). Looking at the percentage that believe that sexual intercourse without consent is justified in certain circumstances, 8% in Ireland believe it is justified if the other person does not clearly say no or physically fight back (see Table 10b). This is below the EU average of 10%, with the highest rate of agreement with this belief found in Romania (22%), and the lowest recorded in Spain (3%). The percentage of those in Ireland who believe that sexual intercourse without consent is justified if the assailant regrets their actions was 3%, however this was above the EU 28 average of 2%. The highest rate of agreement with this belief was in Belgium (5%), and the lowest was in Spain and Finland (both 0%).

Summary

This section presented two additional data tables that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of Norm 9 in the Irish context. Similar to Norm 8, there is a lack of data from Ireland to measure evidence of norm 9, which states that men should dominate sexual and reproductive choices. However attitudinal data reveal that a small percentage of the population think that forcing a partner to have sex is not wrong and should not be against the law. A slightly larger share of the population believe that sexual intercourse without consent is justified if the assailant regrets their actions, with almost one in ten believing that it is justified if the other person does not clearly say no or physically fight back.



Conclusion

This report presented the data that is available from Ireland to track progress on the indicators used to measure the 10 norms of restrictive masculinities, as outlined by the OECD. This report also presented additional data tables that can assist in measuring the prevalence and consequences of these norms in the Irish context. While data from Ireland was not available to track progress on all norms, the report highlights areas where data may need to be collected in future in order to develop a more detailed picture of Ireland's progress on the 10 norms over time.

Looking at the breadwinner norm, the data available from Ireland reveals that a significant proportion of the population believes that the most important role of a man is to earn money and the most important role of a woman is to take care of her home and family. Women in Ireland are more likely to be outside the labour force than men, with the majority of those not seeking employment citing reasons related to the care of adults with disabilities/children or other family/personal reasons. Women are less likely to be employed than men, particularly women with three children or more, and women whose youngest child is less than 6 years old. In addition to this, there is a higher proportion of low wage earners among employed women than among employed men, with women more likely than men to be earning the minimum wage or less. There is also a higher percentage of part-time workers among employed women, although the rates of involuntarily part-time employment are consistently higher among men.

The financial dominance norm is also present in Ireland, and while the percentage that believe that it is acceptable in some circumstances that a woman is paid less than a male colleague for the same job is small, it is higher in Ireland than the EU average. Men earn more than women in almost all sectors, with large gender pay gaps also present in low paid sectors. However, there is also evidence that the prevalence of this norm and its consequences are diminishing over time. The gender pay gap in Ireland has decreased since 2011, and was lower than the EU average in 2018. While men in Ireland consistently have higher disposable income than women, the disposable income gap has also narrowed considerably since 2011, and stood at its



lowest level in 2018. In addition to this, the percentage of employed women in managerial positions in Ireland, which was just over one thirds in 2020, has risen consistently since 2012, and was higher than the EU average in 2020. The share of female board members and female executives in the largest publicly listed companies has also risen since 2012, with the share of female executives higher than the EU average in 2020.

Ireland also displays evidence of norms that say that men should work in ‘manly jobs’ and should be ‘manly leaders’. While approximately one in two people believe the gender equality has been achieved in leadership positions in the workplace and in politics in Ireland, roughly one in six believe that women do not have the necessary qualities and skills to fill positions of responsibility in politics. This belief may be contributing to the low level of female representation in politics, as Ireland was the country with the third smallest share of women in local government in the EU 27 in 2018. Ireland also had a smaller share of female senior ministers and senior administrators in government than the EU average, as well as a smaller percentage of women in parliament, although this share of the latter has been increasing over time. There is also strong evidence of gender segregation in certain occupations and sectors in Ireland.

The ideal worker norm appears less prevalent in Ireland than in many EU countries, however, there is some evidence that it may be contributing to the low rate of paternity benefit uptake. While the vast majority of the population approve of a man taking parental leave to take care of his children, almost half of all eligible fathers did not use their paternity benefit in 2018. The ideal worker norm may also be encouraging longer weekly working hours and years of working life among men, as men in Ireland work an average of 7.5 more hours a week in their main job than women, and an average of 6.6 more years during their working life. These gender gaps in hours and years worked were among the highest in the EU in 2020.

While the vast majority appear to approve of a man doing an equal share of housework, the norm of men not doing unpaid care and domestic work remains visible in data from Ireland. The gender gap in weekly hours of unpaid work was



among the highest in the EU 28 in 2016, however men and women in Ireland both reported doing higher levels of unpaid work than the EU average, and the male to female ratio of weekly hours of unpaid work in 2016 was below the EU average. Men in Ireland recorded the lowest levels of difficulty in combining paid work with their care responsibilities in the EU, less than half the level reported by women in Ireland.

There is a small amount of evidence that the norm that states that men should protect and exercise guardianship of family members also exists in Ireland. Attitudinal data reveals that a small percentage of the Irish population feel that controlling a partner is not wrong and should not be against the law. However, additional data is needed in order to better evaluate if issues related to the control of men over their family members are prevalent in Ireland. There is also some evidence that the norm that states that men should dominate sexual and reproductive choices is present in Ireland, with attitudinal data revealing that a small percentage of the population think that forcing a partner to have sex is not wrong and should not be against the law. A slightly larger share of the population believe that sexual intercourse without consent is justified if the assailant regrets their actions, with almost one in ten believing that it is justified if the other person does not clearly say no or physically fight back.

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Appendix

Legal Frameworks

Theme	Type of legislation	Legislation in place in Ireland?	More details
1. <i>Be the breadwinner</i>	Legal framework mandating non-discrimination on the basis of sex in employment.	Yes	The Employment Equality Acts 1998-2015 outlaw discrimination on the grounds of gender in a wide range of employment and employment-related areas.
2. <i>Be financially dominant</i>	Legal framework mandating equal remuneration for work of equal value.	Yes	The Employment Equality Acts 1998-2015 outlaw discrimination on the grounds of gender in a wide range of employment and employment-related areas, including equal pay for work of equal value.
3. <i>Work in manly jobs</i>	Legal framework that allows women to work in jobs deemed dangerous in the same way as men.	Yes	The Employment Equality Acts 1998-2015 outlaw discrimination on the grounds of gender in a wide range of employment and employment-related areas, including working conditions. Women are further protected under the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act 2005 and the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work (General Application) Regulations 2007 , Part 6, Chapter 2, Protection of Pregnant, Post Natal and Breastfeeding Employees.
	Legal framework that allows women to work in the same industries as men.	Yes	The Employment Equality Acts 1998-2015 outlaw discrimination on the grounds of gender in a wide range of employment and employment-related areas, including recruitment and promotion. Women are further protected under the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act 2005 and the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work (General Application) Regulations 2007 , Part 6, Chapter 2, Protection of Pregnant, Post Natal and Breastfeeding Employees
	Legal framework that prohibits women from entering certain professions.	No	



	Legal framework that allows women to work the same night hours as men.	Yes	<p>The Employment Equality Acts 1998-2015 outlaw discrimination on the grounds of gender in a wide range of employment and employment-related areas, including working conditions.</p> <p>Women are afforded the same protections as men under the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act 2005 and the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work (General Application) Regulations 2007, Part 6, Chapter 3, Night Work and Shift Work.</p>
<p>4. <i>Be the ideal worker</i></p>	Legal framework mandating paid paternity leave.	Yes	<p>Section 6 of the Paternity Leave and Benefit Act 2016 entitles an employee who is a relevant parent to a child to 2 weeks of leave from his or her employment to enable him or her “to provide, or assist in the provision of, care to the child or to provide support to the relevant adopting parent or mother of the child”.</p>
	Legal framework mandating parental leave.	Yes	<p>Section 6 of the Adoptive Leave Act 1995 as amended by the Family Leave and Miscellaneous Provisions Act 2021 provides the qualifying adopter with 16 weeks of adoptive leave.</p> <p>Section 8 of the Adoptive Leave Act 1995 as amended by the Adoptive Leave Act 2005 provides the qualifying adopter with an additional 8 weeks of adoptive leave to commence immediately after the adoptive leave.</p> <p>Section 6 of the Parental Leave Act, 1998 and Section 3 of the Parental Leave (Amendment) Act, 2019 allow each parent up to 26 weeks of unpaid parental leave.</p> <p>Section 5 of the Parent’s Leave and Benefit Act 2019 as amended by the Family Leave and Miscellaneous Provisions Act 2021, provides an employee who is a relevant parent with 5 weeks of leave from his or her employment to enable him or her to provide or assist in the provision of care to the child.</p>
<p>5. <i>Be a manly leader</i></p>	Legal framework mandating non-discrimination on the basis of gender in political and economic leadership positions.	No	<p>Section 42 of the Electoral (Amendment) (Political Funding) Act 2012 provided that qualified political parties face a reduction of half of their State funding under the Electoral Acts if they do not have at least 30% women and 30% men</p>



			<p>candidates at the next Dáil (lower house of Parliament) general election, rise to 40% after 7 years (i.e. by 2023).</p>
	<p>Legal framework that provides women with the same rights as men to hold public and political office, including in the legislature, executive and judiciary.</p>	<p>Yes</p>	<p>Article 16.1.1 of the Constitution of Ireland states that “every citizen without distinction of sex who has reached the age of twenty-one years, and who is not placed under disability or incapacity by this Constitution or by law, shall be eligible for membership of Dáil Éireann”.</p> <p>Article 18.2 states that “a person to be eligible for membership of Seanad Éireann must be eligible to become a member of Dáil Éireann”.</p> <p>Article 12.4.1 states that “every citizen who has reached his²⁵ thirty-fifth year of age is eligible for election to the office of President”.</p>
<p>6. <i>Not do unpaid care and domestic work</i></p>	<p>Specific measures that allow fathers to benefit from shared custody after divorce.</p>	<p>No</p>	<p>Parents may agree to have shared custody of their children following separation or divorce. The gender of the parent is not the determining factor in proceedings regarding the custody of a child following divorce.</p> <p>Section 3 of the Guardianship of Infants Act 1964 provides that in any proceedings regarding guardianship, custody or access to a child, the court shall regard the best interests of the child of being the paramount consideration. Section 31 of the Act, inserted by the Children and Family Relationships Act 2015 provides that the court, in determining the best interests of the child, including in relation to custody, shall have regard to a range of factors including “<i>the benefit to the child of having a meaningful relationship with each of his or her parents ... except where such contact is not in the child’s best interests....</i>”; and that consideration shall be given where appropriate to “<i>proposals made for the child’s custody, care, development and upbringing and for access to and contact with the child, having regard to the desirability of the parents or guardians of the child agreeing to such proposals and co-operating with each other in relation to them</i>”.</p>

²⁵ Note that the use of words “his” and “he” refer to both men and women in this context.



	Legal framework that provides men with the same rights as women to be the legal guardian of their children during marriage, after divorce.	Yes	Under the Guardianship of Infants Act 1964 , married parents are automatically joint guardians of their children. ²⁶ Neither separation nor divorce changes this. Section 10 (2) of the Family Law (Divorce) Act 1996 clarifies that the grant of a decree of divorce shall not affect the right of the father and mother of a child to be guardians of the child jointly.
	Legal framework mandating paid paternity leave.	Yes	See section 4 of this table
	Legal framework mandating parental leave.	Yes	See section 4 of this table
7. <i>Have the final say in household decisions</i>	Legal framework providing women with the same rights as men to be recognised as head of household.	No	
8. <i>Protect and exercise guardianship of family members</i>	Legal framework that requires a married woman to obey her husband.	No	
	Legal framework that includes legal consequences if a wife disobeys her husband.	No	
	Legal framework that provides married women with the same rights as married men to choose where to live.	No	
	Legal framework that requires women to have permission from their husband/legal guardian to register a business.	No	
	Legal framework that requires women to have permission from her husband or legal guardian to work or choose a profession.	No	

²⁶ In the case of children born outside marriage, the mother is the guardian and the father does not have automatic guardianship rights. Under the Guardianship of Infants Act 1964, as amended, an unmarried father is granted guardianship if he has lived with the mother for 12 consecutive months, which must include three months after the birth of the child. Alternatively, both parents can sign a statutory declaration agreeing that the father be appointed as joint guardian. A father can also apply to the court seeking to be appointed as a joint guardian.



<p>9. <i>Dominate sexual and reproductive choices</i></p>	<p>Legal framework that requires women to have the approval of the father to seek a legal abortion.</p>	No	
	<p>Legal framework's definition of rape covers marital rape.</p>	Yes	<p>Marital rape became a crime under section 5 of the Criminal Law (Rape) (Amendment) Act 1990, which abolished 'any rule of law by virtue of which a husband cannot be guilty of the rape of his wife'.</p>
	<p>Domestic violence legislation that covers sexual abuse.</p>	Yes	<p>The provisions of the Domestic Violence Act 2018 are sufficiently broad to ensure that the civil orders under the Act can be obtained by victims of sexual abuse. Section 40 of the Act provides that where offences involving physical or sexual violence are committed in the context of a marriage, civil partnership or an intimate and committed relationship, that fact shall be an aggravating factor at sentencing.</p>
<p>10. <i>Control household assets</i></p>	<p>Legal framework that provides women with the same rights as men to administer the household's financial assets.</p>	Yes	<p>Article 40.1 of the Constitution of Ireland provides that "all citizens shall, as human persons, be held equal before the law. This shall not be held to mean that the State shall not in its enactments have due regard to differences of capacity, physical and moral, and of social function".</p> <p>The Married Women's Status Act 1957 provided for the legal capacity and property of married women, the joint capacity and the property rights of spouses.</p> <p>The Equal Status Acts 2000 to 2018 prohibit discrimination on grounds including those of gender and of civil status in access to and the supply of goods and services, including financial services.</p>
	<p>Legal framework that provides women with the same rights as men to administer the household's land assets.</p>	Yes	<p>Article 40.1 of the Constitution of Ireland provides that "all citizens shall, as human persons, be held equal before the law. This shall not be held to mean that the State shall not in its enactments have due regard to differences of capacity, physical and moral, and of social function"</p> <p>The Married Women's Status Act 1957 provided for the legal capacity and property of married women, the joint capacity and the property rights of spouses.</p>



			<p>Protection is provided for the family home of a married couple under the Family Home Protection Act 1976 as amended by the Family Law Act 1995. Similar protection is provided for the shared home of civil partners by the civil partnership legislation.</p> <p>The Equal Status Acts 2000 to 2018 prohibit discrimination on grounds including those of gender and of civil status in access to and the supply of goods and services, including services in regard to property.</p>
	<p>Legal framework that provides women with the same rights as men to administer the household's non-land and non-financial assets.</p>	<p>No</p>	<p>Article 40.1 of the Constitution of Ireland provides that "all citizens shall, as human persons, be held equal before the law. This shall not be held to mean that the State shall not in its enactments have due regard to differences of capacity, physical and moral, and of social function"</p> <p>The Married Women's Status Act 1957 provided for the legal capacity and property of married women, the joint capacity and the property rights of spouses.</p> <p>The Equal Status Acts 2000 to 2018 prohibit discrimination on grounds including those of gender and of civil status in access to and the supply of goods and services.</p>

Source: OECD, 2021



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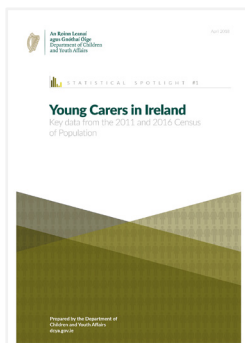
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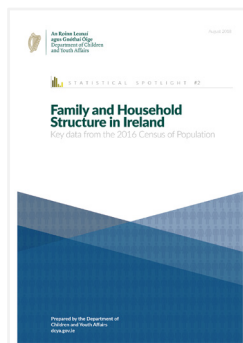


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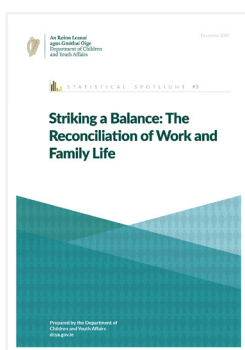
Statistical Spotlight #1
Young Carers in Ireland

Publication Date
April 2018



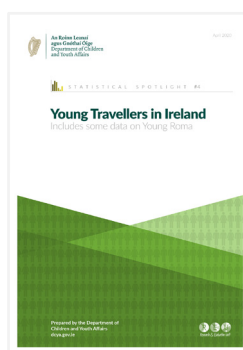
Statistical Spotlight #2
Family and Household Structure in Ireland

Publication Date
August 2018



Statistical Spotlight #3
Striking a Balance: The Reconciliation of Work and Family Life

Publication Date
December 2019



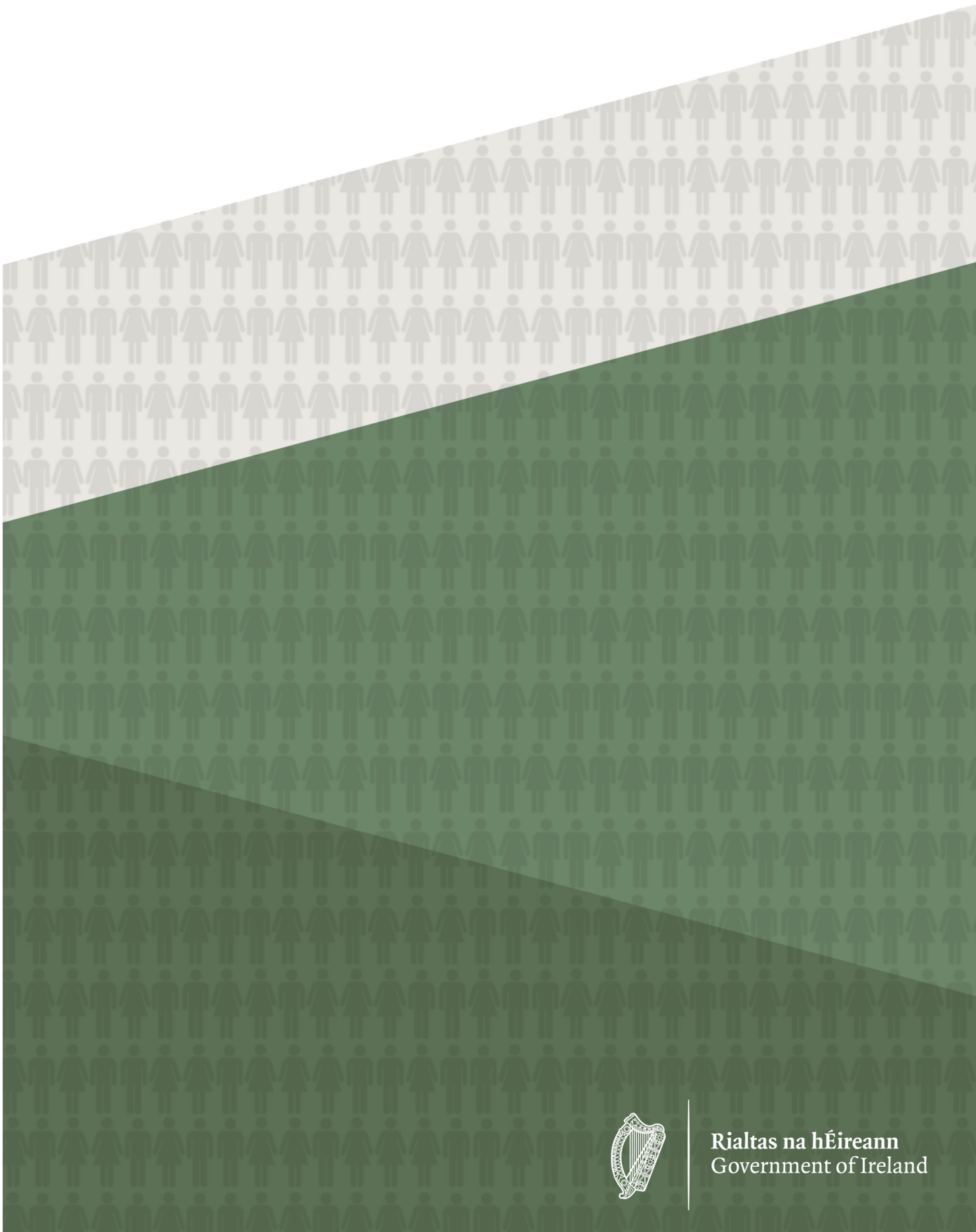
Statistical Spotlight #4
Young Travellers in Ireland

Publication Date
April 2020



Statistical Spotlight #5
Profile of Parents in Ireland

Publication Date
May 2021



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