

Social Focus on Men

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figures and labour market data, as well as the periodic census
of the population and health statistics. The Director of ONS is
also the National Statistician and the Registrar General for
England and Wales, and the agency administers the statutory
registration of births, marriages and deaths there.

Editorial

Women's issues have in recent years received a great deal of attention; increasingly there is interest too in men's changing roles. In order to help inform the debate, this ninth edition in the *Social Focus* series takes men as its subject. *Social Focus on Men* paints a statistical picture of the experiences and lifestyles of men in the United Kingdom today, and sets this in context by making comparisons with women and looking at changes over time. This edition will complement, in particular, two previous editions in the series – *Social Focus on Women* (1995) and *Social Focus on Women and Men* (1998).

Social Focus on Men is aimed at a wide audience: policy-makers in the public and private sectors; market researchers; journalists and other commentators; the business community; academics, teachers and students; and the general public. The statistics and research contained within these pages are drawn from a wide range of sources to provide a broad overview of men's lives; some of the gaps in the availability of data are also highlighted. Comprehensive sources of further reading, contact points and websites are given for those who wish to explore the subject more deeply.

We would like to thank all those who have contributed to this publication, including colleagues in the Office for National Statistics and in other departments and the non-government organisations who have provided data, information and guidance. Particular thanks are extended to Lynda Clarke at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.

The Editors would welcome readers' suggestions for improvements to the *Social Focus* series and thoughts about suitable topics to be covered in future editions. Please write to the address shown below.

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Definitions, symbols and conventions

Men. In general men are defined as being aged 16 and over throughout this report. Where a different age breakdown has been used this has been specified, sometimes in a footnote.

Government departments. At the time of production, the names of the Government departments listed in the report were correct. Since the General Election, however, the names and responsibilities of some Government departments have changed.

Rounding of figures. In tables where figures have been rounded to the nearest final digit, there may be an apparent discrepancy between the sum of the constituent items and the total as shown.

Provisional and estimated data. Some data for the latest year (and occasionally for earlier years) are provisional or estimated. To keep footnotes to a minimum, these have not been indicated; source departments will be able to advise if revised data are available.

Seasonal adjustment. Unadjusted data have been used throughout.

Non-calendar years.

Financial year - e.g. 1 April 1999 to 31 March 2000 would be shown as 1999-00

Data covering more than one year - e.g. 1997, 1998 and 1999 would be shown as 1997-1999

Units on tables. The main unit used in each table is shown at the top of the table. All other units are shown against the relevant row or column. Figures are shown in italics when they represent percentages.

Symbols. The following symbols have been used throughout *Social Focus*:

- .. *not available*
- . *not applicable*
- *negligible (less than half the final digit shown)*
- 0 *nil*

Introduction

In recent years interest in men's issues has come from a wide variety of quarters – from mainstream politics, social policy makers, the mass media, as well as from feminist, gay and men's movements. In this report men are generally defined as males aged 16 and over; at the age of 16 boys can choose to leave school and they are able to marry, although parental consent is needed in England and Wales.

In many ways the world in which men live today differs markedly from the one in which their fathers and grandfathers lived. Family life has become increasingly diverse. While marriage remains the most common form of partnership, an increasing proportion of men are remaining unmarried until later in life. Cohabitation prior to marriage has become the norm for many couples and separation and divorce have increased. Although most children are born to married couples, there is a tendency for children to remain with their mother after a partnership breaks up. Despite the changes in family composition, families continue to play an important role in men's lives with family contact and support remaining common.

Men and women today are more likely than their predecessors to study beyond compulsory school-leaving age, and also to return to education at older ages. More emphasis is now placed on gaining the qualifications and skills necessary to compete in an ever-developing technological society. Engineering and technology courses in higher education are dominated by young male students and more young men than young women take A level courses in mathematics. In the apprenticeship sectors, men far outnumber women in motor industry, construction and electrical installation engineering while women predominate in health and social care, and hairdressing.

Education results are generally improving for all young people, although women's attainment has increased at a faster rate than men's, and women outperform men at many levels of education.

The proportion of married or cohabiting men with the traditional role of primary breadwinner has decreased alongside the increasing participation of women in the workforce. Nevertheless, differences between men's and women's participation in the labour force remain – for example, far fewer men than women work part time. Among older men, male economic activity rates are much lower than three decades ago. Claimant unemployment in Spring 2001 was at its lowest since 1980 for men and all persons since the mid-seventies.

The UK economy has experienced structural changes since the Second World War, with a decline in jobs in the manufacturing sector and an increase in service industries. There has also been a shift from manual to non-manual jobs. There has been a decrease in the proportion of male employees working in craft and related occupations, and a rise in managers and administrators over the last 10 years.

Between 1971 and 2000, the hourly earnings of men and women narrowed and this may have been set in motion by the introduction of the *Equal Pay Act (1970)*, which came into effect at the end of 1975. Changes in the occupational distribution of women and men have also been an important influence. In 1971 the ratio of men's to women's hourly earnings was 1.57 compared with 1.22 in 2000. Employment experience, training and educational attainment are factors which raise the hourly rate of pay. An important aspect of the existing pay gap between men and women is the distinction between hourly and weekly pay. The weekly pay gap is wider than the hourly pay gap as men tend to work longer hours than women. Men are also more likely to receive overtime than women, in part because they are more likely to work in occupations where overtime is paid. In addition, the cash value of their payments tends to be higher.

Men's health is another area in which there has been increasing interest. Males in Great Britain had an expectation of life at birth in 1998 of just under 75 years, compared with just under 80 years for females. Over the last 30 years, male death rates have fallen at nearly all ages, the exception being for those aged under 35. In 1999, the most common causes of death among men were those related to the circulatory system, which includes heart disease and strokes, and cancers.

Coronary heart disease is much more common among men than women and is a disease which has been linked in part to lifestyle. Historically, more men have tended to smoke cigarettes than women, although proportionately more men than women have given up smoking cigarettes. More men than women exceed the government's current recommendation on daily alcohol consumption. More than three-fifths of men are either overweight or obese – prevention of which can be aided by eating a healthy diet and taking part in physical activity. On average young men eat less healthily – for example they have a higher fat intake – than either older men or than women. For physical activity, however, the story is different – the majority of men, and slightly more men than women, take part in at least moderate physical activity, and considerably more men than women take part in vigorous physical activity.

As already noted above, one of the most important changes in UK society in recent decades has been women's increased participation in the labour market. In contrast traditional roles in the home may still exist. Men spend more time than women on traditional male-oriented activities such as DIY and gardening while women still do the bulk of domestic chores. In households with children, men reported spending around three-quarters of an hour a day caring for and playing with their children – just under half the amount reported by women.

Technological advances were particularly rapid during the latter parts of the 20th century. Among one person non-retired households, men are more likely than women to own hi-tech products such as a video recorder, CD player, satellite receiver and an Internet connection. A larger proportion of men than women have used the Internet, and those that are younger are most likely to have used it.

Most perpetrators of crime are men. Over a third of all male offenders are cautioned or found guilty of theft and handling stolen goods. Crimes of violence are almost exclusively committed by men, though the total number of violent crimes committed is relatively small. Young men are also most likely to be the victim of a violent crime, possibly as a result of being in places where violence occurs such as pubs, or in groups late at night.

Men today live in an increasingly diverse world compared with their predecessors. Almost all aspects of men's lives have undergone some degree of change and a great deal of this change has been experienced by the most recent generations. Many examples of change are illustrated in *Social Focus on Men* - family lives are more varied, health has in general improved and there has been a shift in men's participation in the labour market. However, many differences between the genders remain.



Men at home

Information on the size and structure of the male population is important for understanding the role of men in all aspects of society including the labour market and family relationships. The types of households and families in which men live today are increasingly diverse; a reflection of changes in relationship formation and dissolution. Family structures may be changing, but they continue to play an important role in men's lives.

Men's profile

There were 23.1 million men aged 16 and over in the United Kingdom in 1999, of whom 17 per cent were aged 65 and over (see [Table 1.1](#) overleaf). This compares with 14 per cent aged 65 and over

in 1971. Northern Ireland has the highest proportion of young men, with 18 per cent aged between 16 and 24, compared with 14 per cent in the United Kingdom as a whole.

The age structure of the population reflects the different levels of births, deaths and migration in the past. [Chart 1.2](#) (overleaf) shows that in 1971 there were three peaks in the age distribution of the male population. Firstly, there were peaks for men in their early fifties and mid-twenties which were the result of increases in the birth rate following the First and Second World Wars. The effect of the former peak was reduced as some of the males born after the First World War were killed in the Second World War. The third peak, of males aged 10 and under, was the consequence

1.1

Men: by age and country of residence, 1999

	Thousands				
	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
16-24	2,753	163	295	110	3,321
25-34	3,918	206	388	131	4,642
35-44	3,720	203	386	116	4,425
45-54	3,268	196	329	97	3,890
55-64	2,475	157	256	76	2,964
65-74	1,908	125	196	54	2,284
75-84	1,060	69	98	28	1,255
85 and over	263	16	22	6	306
All men aged 16 and over	19,365	1,136	1,970	618	23,088

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

of the high fertility rates of the 1960s baby boom. The high mortality reflected in the size of the male population over the age of 60 in 1971 can partly be attributed to deaths in the First World War. Moreover, men who were above this age at that time also suffered from lower standards of living and poorer nutrition in comparison with today's older people.

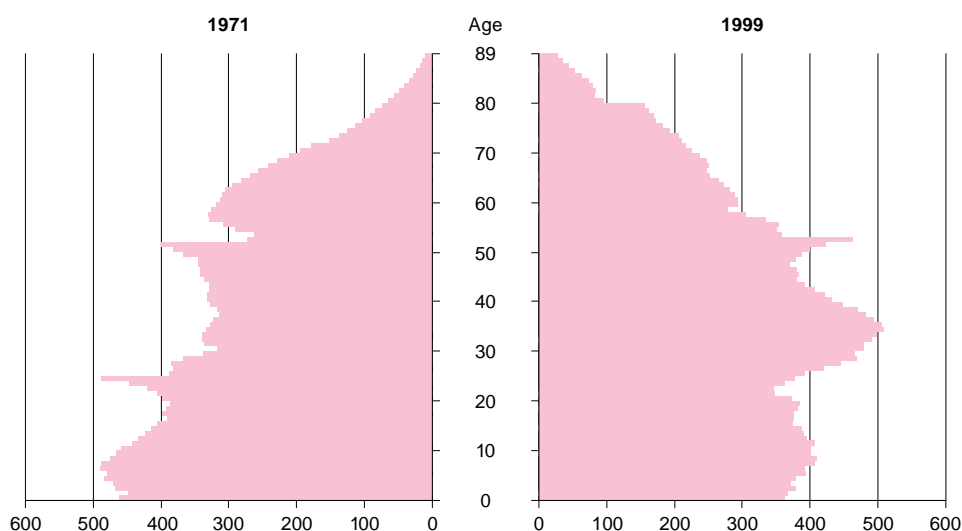
Men born during the baby booms after the Second World War and during the 1960s moved up the pyramid to become those in their early fifties and those between the ages of 35 and 44 in 1999. During the 1970s fertility declined, resulting in there being fewer males under the age of 25 in 1999 than in 1971. Chart 1.2 shows that the average age of the male population is increasing, and this is partly a result of these factors. Another factor in the ageing of the male population has been lower mortality, particularly among older age groups. However, women start to outnumber men in the late forties. Further information on life expectancy and death rates can be found on page 56 in the Men and health chapter.

1.2

Male population: by age, 1971 and 1999

United Kingdom

Thousands



Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Men's net natural population growth (the difference between births and deaths each year as a proportion of the population at the start of the period) has been fairly stable since 1971, at around 2 per cent a year on average (Table 1.3). Inward migration is accounting for a larger proportion of population increase in the United Kingdom than in the past. Average net migration and other changes amounted to around two-fifths of the total increase in the male population between 1991 and 1999, compared with almost a quarter of the total increase between 1981 and 1991.

Past immigration and fertility patterns have led to the British ethnic minority population having a younger age profile than the White population. Information for men is given in Table 1.4. In 1999-00, those identifying themselves as Black Caribbean had the highest proportion of men aged 65 and over of any of the ethnic minority groups. In contrast, the Pakistani and Bangladeshi communities have some of the youngest profiles. The group with the youngest profile of all is the 'Other Black' category. Analysis of response to the 1991 Census question on ethnic group indicated that some children of those defining themselves as 'Black Caribbean' had defined themselves as 'Black British', and they are included in the 'Other Black' category.

Groups with a recent migration history, such as those from South Asia, have more men than women. Of those with Bangladeshi ethnic origins, 54 per cent are men, compared with 49 per cent in the population as whole. The principal cause for this gender ratio is the earlier migration of single men from these communities. It is expected that gender ratios for the different ethnic minority groups will converge in coming generations.

The movement of population within the United Kingdom can affect local economies and local needs for service provision or housing. In 1999 the South West had the highest net gain of men, of around 11 thousand; London had the highest net loss – 16 thousand – just over half of whom were aged 35 to 44 (see Table 1.5 overleaf). Among men aged 16 to 24, most of the movement tended to be from the northern parts of the United Kingdom in a southerly direction, while the largest movements for older age groups was from London

Components of male population change

United Kingdom		Thousands				
Population at start of period	Annual averages					Overall change
	Live births	Deaths	Net natural change	Net migration and other		
Mid-year estimates						
1966-1971	26,511	481	330	151	-19	131
1971-1981	27,167	379	336	43	-18	25
1981-1991	27,412	388	323	65	19	84
1991-1999	28,248	381	306	75	56	131
Mid-year projections¹						
1999-2001 ²	29,299	367	299	67	79	146
2001-2011	29,581	359	295	64	48	111
2011-2021	30,696	364	310	55	48	102

¹ 1998-based projections.

² The population at the beginning of the period is the mid-year estimate for 1999.

Source: Office for National Statistics; Government Actuary's Department; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Ethnic group of males: by age, 1999-00¹

Great Britain		Percentages				
	Under 16	16-34	35-64	65 and over	All males (=100%) (millions)	
White	20	26	40	14	26.1	
Black						
Black Caribbean	23	30	36	12	0.3	
Black African	34	32	31	..	0.2	
Other Black groups	57	27	15	..	0.2	
All Black groups	35	30	29	6	0.6	
Indian	24	29	40	8	0.5	
Pakistani/Bangladeshi						
Pakistani	37	34	25	4	0.4	
Bangladeshi	38	35	22	5	0.1	
All Pakistani/Bangladeshi	37	35	24	4	0.5	
Other groups						
Chinese	20	44	32	..	0.1	
None of the above	33	33	31	3	0.3	
All other groups ²	31	35	31	3	0.4	
All ethnic groups³	21	27	39	13	28.1	

¹ Population living in private households. Combined quarters: Winter 1999 to Autumn 2000.

² Includes those of mixed origin.

³ Includes those who did not state their ethnic group.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

to the East, South East and South West of England. In 1999 fewer men than women were recorded as migrating between regions of the United Kingdom, particularly between the ages of 16 and 24. This apparent gender difference may be partly due to men in this age group being less likely than women to register with a doctor, as migration within the United Kingdom is measured using the number of NHS patients who register with a different doctor each year. It is also possible that men do move less frequently than women. The majority of those who migrate internationally are between the ages of 25 and 44.

1.5

Net internal migration¹ of men: by region and age of migrant, 1999

	Thousands							All men	
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75 and over	aged 16 and over	
North East	-0.4	-1.3	-0.5	-0.2	-	-	-	-2.4	
North West	-1.1	-1.8	-0.3	-0.4	-0.6	-0.3	-0.2	-4.6	
Yorkshire and the Humber	0.4	-1.7	-0.2	-	-	-	-0.1	-1.4	
East Midlands	0.1	0.7	1.2	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.3	4.6	
West Midlands	-1.8	-1.4	-0.1	-0.4	-0.5	-0.2	-	-4.3	
East of England	-1.0	3.1	2.1	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.6	7.6	
London	7.2	-1.2	-8.8	-4.7	-4.4	-2.9	-1.5	-16.3	
South East	-0.7	3.5	3.0	0.3	-0.5	0.2	0.5	6.4	
South West	-0.4	1.9	2.7	2.5	2.8	1.5	0.4	11.5	
England	2.4	2.0	-0.8	-1.0	-1.2	-0.4	-	1.0	
Wales	-0.4	-0.5	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.3	-	1.5	
Scotland	-0.5	-1.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	-	-1.2	
Northern Ireland	-1.4	-0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	-	-1.3	

¹ Data are based on patient movements recorded by the National Health Service Central Registers at Southport and Edinburgh and the Central Services Agency in Belfast. A negative figure implies a net outflow of men from the region.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Households and families

Britain today is a more complex society than in past times, with great diversity in the types of household. An enormous number of changes can occur in the types of household that men live in during their lifetimes. These are reflected by some of the most significant changes in family living: leaving home; forming one's initial partnership; marriage or long-term union formation; having children and, for some, separation, divorce and lone parenthood, followed by children leaving home.

The General Household Survey in Great Britain and the Continuous Household Survey in Northern Ireland both ask respondents about who they live with. Most men live in a married couple family household, although the proportion has been falling. Overall, just over two-thirds of men in the United Kingdom lived in this household type in 1998-99 (Table 1.6). Three in ten men lived in a married couple family household which contained no children, over a quarter lived with dependent children and fewer men, around one in nine, lived in a married couple family household containing only non-dependent children. Cohabitation is becoming increasingly common and whereas in 1986 the proportion of men living within a cohabiting household, regardless of whether the household contained children, was 3 per cent, by 1998-99 this had increased to 9 per cent. Further information on cohabitation is contained in the section that begins on page 18.

Most young men live within a married couple family household with children, either as a child of another family member or as the father themselves. As men get older they are more likely to live in households with dependent children, and then in households without children, mainly as a result of their children leaving the family home.

The decisions that young people make which lead to their leaving home are generally related to life events. For some, this will be to do with getting married or setting up other types of relationship, while for others it will be dependent on education, training or job opportunities. Young men tend to leave the parental home at an older age than young women. In 1999-00, over half of young men aged 20 to 24 in England lived with their parents compared with under four in ten women of the same age (Table 1.7). Further analysis using data combined from the 1997-98 and 1998-99 Surveys of English Housing showed that the proportion of women living independently, that is outside the parental home, exceeded 50 per cent at around the age of 20 or 21, whereas the proportion of men living independently did not pass the 50 per cent mark until about the age of 24. This is only partly accounted for by the tendency of women to marry or start cohabiting at younger ages than men – women under the age of 20 are also more likely to head lone parent households, live alone or share with others. Between the ages of 30 and 34, only one in ten men and even fewer women lived with their parents. In Northern Ireland the proportion of young people living with their parents is higher than in England: 72 per cent of men aged 20 to 24 and 46 per cent of women of the same age lived with their parents in 1999-00.

The trend towards living alone has become increasingly evident and is one of the most notable differences seen in household composition over the past 30 years. People live on their own for a variety of reasons: by choice, as a temporary arrangement or because there is no other option. The increase in the percentage of one-person households containing men has not been uniform across all ages. In recent years, the largest increase in England and Wales has been among households containing men aged under 65, and in particular those aged

Men¹ in households: by age and household type, 1998-99

United Kingdom	Percentages						
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	All men aged 16 and over
One person	5	15	11	13	13	23	14
Two or more unrelated adults	9	5	1	1	1	2	3
One family households							
Couple ²							
Married							
No children	2	12	11	26	59	65	30
Dependent children ³	31	33	58	30	6	1	27
Non-dependent children only	25	8	4	17	14	5	11
Cohabiting							
No children	5	12	3	4	2	1	5
Dependent children ³	4	9	5	2	-	0	3
Non-dependent children only	1	1	1	1	-	-	1
Lone parent ²							
Dependent children ³	9	1	2	2	-	-	2
Non-dependent children only	7	3	3	2	2	1	3
Multi-family households	3	1	1	1	1	1	2
All men in households	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Includes men who were the child of another household member.

² Other individuals who were not family members may also be included.

³ May include non-dependent children.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Continuous Household Survey, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Adults living with their parents: by gender and age

England	Percentages							
	Men				Women			
	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34
1977-78	93	52	19	9	87	31	9	5
1991	92	50	19	9	87	32	9	5
1995-96	91	54	24	11	85	36	11	5
1999-00	86	53	22	10	82	37	11	3

Source: National Dwelling and Household Survey and Survey of English Housing, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions; Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

1.8

Men in one person households as a percentage of all households: by age

England & Wales	Percentages			
	15-29	30-44	45-64	65 and over
1971	0.7	0.8	1.8	2.0
1981	1.1	1.4	2.1	2.7
1991	2.0	2.7	2.7	3.1
1999	2.1	4.2	3.5	3.3
2011 ¹	2.2	4.8	5.3	3.6
2021 ¹	2.2	4.8	6.5	4.6

¹ 1996-based household projections.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions; National Assembly for Wales

between 30 and 44. This, in part, reflects the overall decline in marriage, the delay in first marrying and the rise in separation and divorce. Between 1971 and 1999, the proportion of one person households as a percentage of all households that contained men under the age of 65 increased from around 3 per cent to almost 10 per cent (Table 1.8). Women aged 65 and over have traditionally formed the largest group of one person households as a percentage of all households. The Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions' 1996-based household projections suggest that this group will soon be overtaken by men aged under 65.

Information obtained from household surveys generally only relates to people living in private households. The Census, however, also collects information on people living in communal establishments including hospitals, prisons and accommodation for students and the elderly. On Census night in 1991, two-fifths of residents in communal establishments in Great Britain were men. Men were far more likely than women to be in prisons or live in defence establishments while women outnumbered men by three to one in both residential and nursing homes.

Marriage and divorce

The current profiles of households and families and present day patterns of marital partnership and family circumstance are a result of past trends in marriage, divorce, cohabitation and fertility.

In 1998-99 the majority of adults aged 16 and over in Great Britain were married and were living with their partner. The proportion of men who were married was higher than for women: 59 per cent compared with 54 per cent. This difference is a reflection of there being fewer men than women and, in particular, the tendency for wives to outlive their husbands.

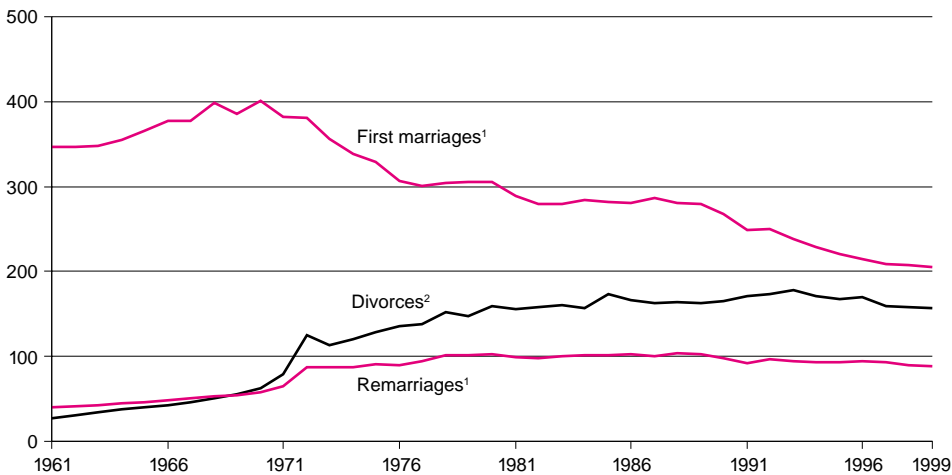
The number of men getting married in Great Britain for the first time has fallen over the last 30 years or so (Chart 1.9). Since the peak in 1970, the number of first marriages for men has almost halved, from 401 thousand in 1970 to 205 thousand in 1999, with the steepest decline in the first half of the 1970s. Between 1970 and 1972,

1.9

Marriages and divorces

Great Britain

Thousands



¹ For men only.

² Includes annulments.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland

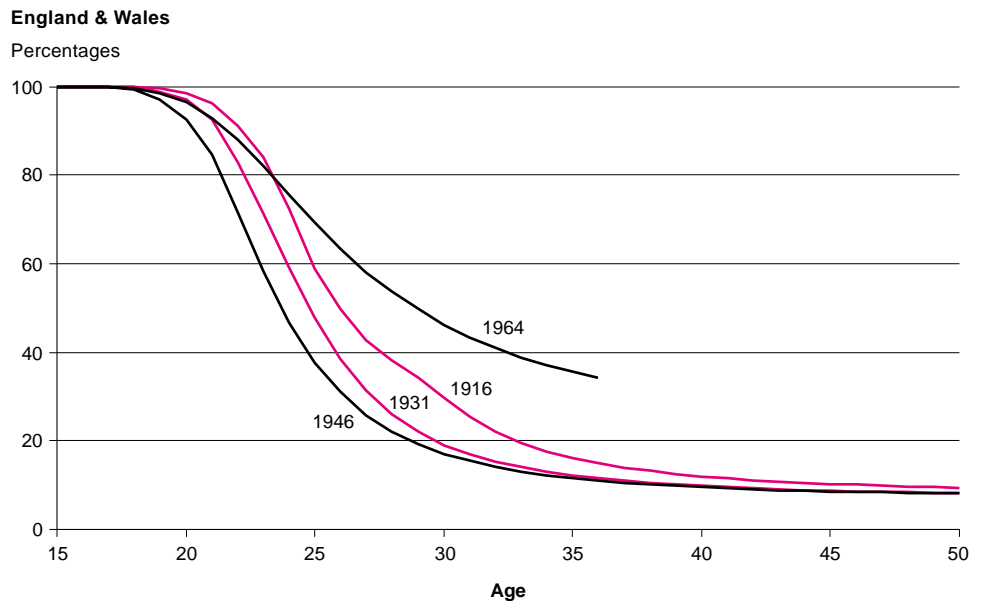
1.10

following the introduction of the *Divorce Reform Act 1969* in England and Wales which came into effect in 1971, remarriages among men in Great Britain increased by a half and divorces doubled. In 1999 three in ten of all men getting married were remarrying.

There has been a tendency for first marriages to take place later in life, which is partly accounted for by the increase in pre-marital cohabitation. During the latter half of the 1960s and the first half of the 1970s the average age at first marriage for all bachelors in England and Wales (including those whose future spouse may have previously been married) was under 25. This exceeded 30 for the first time in 1999. Since the 1960s, among couples who are both marrying for the first time, grooms are on average two years older than their brides.

An increasing proportion of men are remaining unmarried until later in life and some may never marry. **Chart 1.10** compares the proportion of men born in four different decades remaining 'never married' in England and Wales, although they may be in a cohabiting relationship. A higher proportion of men born in 1964 remained 'never married' in their early thirties compared with previous cohorts of men. The relatively large proportion of men born in 1916 remaining 'never married' by their early thirties is likely to be a consequence of the Second World War. If current trends continue, official projections suggest that 16 per cent of men born in 1964 will neither have married nor be in a permanent cohabiting union by the time they reach their fifties, compared with 8 per cent of men born in 1946.

Men remaining 'never married' by certain ages: by year of birth



Source: Office for National Statistics

Over the past few decades, as well as the decrease in the number of first marriages, there has been a trend for first marriages to last for shorter periods of time. Among those first married in the latter half of the 1980s in Great Britain, around one in eight men who were under the age of 30 when they were married had separated within five years; this was almost double the proportion of those married 20 years earlier (**Table 1.11**). In general, men who were first married at a younger age were more likely to have separated within five years than those who were first married at older ages.

1.11

Men¹ separated within five years of first marriage: by year of, and age at, first marriage, 1998-99

Great Britain	Percentages		
	Age at first marriage		
Year of marriage	Under 25	25-29	All men aged under 30
	1965-1969	6	9
1970-1974	11	8	10
1975-1979	15	12	14
1980-1984	12	7	10
1985-1989	18	8	13

¹ Men born between 1940 and 1978.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

1.12

Tenure of men's accommodation one year after separation: by tenure of the former matrimonial home, 1991-1999

Great Britain	Percentages	
	Tenure of the former matrimonial home	
	Owner-occupied	Rented
Tenure one year after separation		
Owner-occupied		
Owned outright	29	3
With mortgage	43	4
Rented from social sector	4	60
Other rented	15	22
Not a householder	9	11
All tenures	100	100

Source: British Household Panel Survey, Institute for Social and Economic Research

Although the divorce rate in England and Wales is highest among men aged 25 to 29 – 31.5 per thousand married men – it is men aged under 25 who have experienced the biggest growth in divorce rates over recent decades. Between 1971 and 1999 the divorce rate for men aged 16 to 24 increased from 5.0 to 29.0 per thousand married men.

In 1999 the majority of decrees, around 70 per cent, were granted to wives. This has not always been the case. Following the introduction of the *Matrimonial Causes Act* in 1857, between 1858 and 1900 approximately 60 per cent of decrees were awarded to husbands. In 1999 the most common reason for wives to be granted a divorce was the unreasonable behaviour of their husbands, while for men it was separation within two years with consent.

Following separation it is commonplace for either one or both partners to leave the former matrimonial home. Table 1.12 compares the tenure of separated men's accommodation in Great Britain one year after separation with the tenure of their former matrimonial home. The table shows that, between 1991 and 1999, over seven in ten men who were living in owner-occupied accommodation before they separated were still living in this type of tenure one year after their separation. Of those who were renting accommodation before their separation, over four-fifths were still renting one year after their separation. Moving between and remaining within tenures may reflect a return to the parental home, or moving in with a new partner.

Looking at patterns of remarriage after separation, combined data from the 1996-97 and 1998-99 General Household Surveys illustrate that among men aged under 35 when their first marriage ended in separation, those separating in the late 1960s and early 1970s were more likely to have

remarried within three years than men who separated 20 years later (Table 1.13). In general, over the past thirty years a smaller proportion of women who were aged under 35 when their first marriage ended had remarried within three years.

Cohabitation

One of the main changes in family life over the last decade or so has been the fall in the proportion of people living in married couples and the increase in cohabitation. Cohabitation may precede marriage but may also follow it as a result of separation, divorce or partner death. In Great Britain, men were first asked questions about cohabitation in the 1986 General Household Survey (GHS). Since then, the proportion of non-married men aged 16 to 59 who were cohabiting has more than doubled, from 11 per cent in 1986 to 26 per cent in 1998-99. In a combined estimation and projections exercise, undertaken by the Government Actuary's Department and the Office for National Statistics, it was estimated that there were just over one and a half million cohabiting couples in England and Wales in 1996, that is one in eight of all couples were cohabiting. Projections for 2021 suggest that this will rise to just under 3 million, the equivalent of more than one in five couples.

The proportion of men that are cohabiting varies according to marital status, with divorced men being most likely to cohabit. Combined data from the 1996-97 and 1998-99 GHS show that, in Great Britain, 38 per cent of divorced men aged 16 to 59 were cohabiting compared with only 9 per cent of widowed men. The proportion of men who are cohabiting also varies according to age – 40 per cent of non-married men aged between 25 and 34 were cohabiting compared with 6 per cent of those aged 50 to 59.

1.13

Cumulative percentages of men¹ remarried within a given period following separation: by year of separation, 1996-1998²

Great Britain	Percentages		
	Remarriage within:		
	3 years	6 years	10 years
Year of separation			
1969-1972	28	62	75
1973-1976	23	52	66
1977-1980	24	54	67
1981-1984	27	54	68
1985-1988	20	42	.
1989-1992	12	.	.

¹ Men aged 16-59 who were under 35 when their first marriage ended in separation.

² Combined data for 1996-97 and 1998-99.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

1.14

The reasons men and women cohabit vary according to age and partnership history. GHS data show that three in ten men aged 16 to 59 who had ever been married had cohabited before their first marriage and that this proportion generally increased with age at marriage. Since 1991, the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) has asked people about their reasons for entering and leaving cohabitation. Over the period 1991 to 1999, of those men who started a cohabitation relationship, almost seven in ten were single, that is never married (Table 1.14). The most common reason for ending the cohabitation was the marriage to their partner, accounting for around six in ten cohabitations ending. Never married people whose partnership dissolved accounted for a further three in ten reasons.

Since 1986 it has been possible to calculate the duration of cohabitation for men from the GHS, although these durations may be incomplete as it is not known at the time of the interview how much longer the union will last or whether it will be translated into marriage. In contrast to the situation for married couples, whose marriages may have lasted up to 50 years and more, most cohabiting couples have been living together for only a few years. Between 1986 and 1998-99 the median duration of cohabitation for single men increased by over a half from just under 2 years to just over 3 years and for divorced men it increased from 2 and a half years to just over 4 and a half years.

Information on attitudes towards marriage and cohabitation is available from the British Social Attitudes Survey. The proportion of men aged 18 and over in Great Britain agreeing that 'It is all right for a couple to live together without intending to get married' was 67 per cent in 1998 and the proportion agreeing that 'It is a good idea for a couple who intend to get married to live together

first' was 63 per cent (Table 1.15). There are considerable variations by age in attitudes. In 1994, over 60 per cent of men and women born before 1930 – roughly aged 60 and over – would have advised a young person to marry without living together first, but the proportion was only about 40 per cent among those aged 40 to 59 and less than 20 per cent among those aged 20 to 39.

The attitudes towards cohabitation and marriage of a very specific group of cohabitants – never married men, without children and aged under 35 – were analysed using data from the 1998 BHPS. Among this group, around three-quarters of men in a cohabiting couple expected to marry their partner, including three in ten of the group who actually had relatively firm plans to marry (see Table 1.16 overleaf).

The cohabitants in the group were also asked 'Do you think there are any advantages to living as a couple, rather than being married?': 40 per cent of these men agreed that there were. Of these male cohabitants who did perceive there to be advantages, over half first mentioned the idea of a trial marriage, and around three in ten first mentioned the advantage of no legal ties. Only a small proportion (4 per cent) reported the benefit of personal independence. Over half of male

Men entering and leaving cohabitation¹ each year, 1991-1999

Great Britain	Percentages
1991-1999	
Men entering cohabitation²	
Single	69
Divorced	13
Separated	8
Married	8
Widowed	2
All men entering cohabitation	100
Men leaving cohabitation³	
Marry partner	59
Partnership dissolves	
Never married	31
Divorced, widowed or separated	10
All men leaving cohabitation	100

¹ Those who changed cohabiting partners were not treated as leaving or entering.

² Previous marital status. As a percentage of all men cohabiting at the end of the period.

³ As a percentage of all men cohabiting at the start of the period.

Source: British Household Panel Survey, Institute for Social and Economic Research

1.15

Attitudes towards marriage and relationships¹: by gender, 1994 and 1998

Great Britain	Percentages			
	1994		1998	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
It is all right for a couple to live together without intending to get married	62	67	67	59
It is a good idea for a couple who intend to get married to live together first	56	59	63	60

¹ Percentage of people aged 18 and over who agreed with the above statements.

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey, National Centre for Social Research

1.16

Marriage expectations of never married childless men aged under 35 in a cohabiting union, 1998

Great Britain	Percentages
	1998
Planning to marry	30
Probably get married at some point	46
Probably just keep living together without marrying	14
Have not really thought about the future	8
Other ¹	3
All	100

¹ Includes 'don't know' and refusals.

Source: British Household Panel Survey, Institute for Social and Economic Research

respondents who perceived a disadvantage to cohabiting, first cited financial insecurity as the reason and around one in seven first mentioned social stigma.

Men as fathers

Mothers have long occupied centre stage in Britain as far as parenting is concerned. However, attitudes towards, and expectations of, fathers are changing. During the 1990s the roles, responsibilities and influences of fathers became a matter of public and political debate. Although the vast majority of fathers are married and living with all of their dependent biological children, changes in family life mean that some fathers may be non-married, no-longer married or re-married; they may also be a biological father or social father whether in an intact, lone or reconstituted family.

Official data sources on fatherhood are relatively scarce. Most national surveys in Britain have not asked men if they have ever fathered a child because of the innate validity problems: men can conceal parenthood or may not even know about conceptions. It is possible to estimate from surveys those households where fathers are living with their own children and those where they live with children that are not their own. However,

official information is not regularly available on men who are fathers and who do not live with their children.

Past data from the 1992 BHPS provided an analysis of the incidence of fatherhood in Great Britain at the time. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the older men were, the more likely they were to be fathers. Over eight in ten men in their seventies were fathers. The proportion of men that were fathers was generally lower than the proportion of women at all ages and the difference was particularly large below the age of 35.

Registration data on age of the father at childbirth are limited to those where there is joint registration on the birth registration form. Data for age of father are based on jointly registered births only (Table 1.17). In instances where the birth is registered solely by the mother, the age of father is not available. In 1971 the average age of the father where the birth occurred inside a married relationship in England and Wales was 27; by 1999 this had increased to 31. These days, fathers are generally three years younger where births occur outside marriage. The average age of the father where the birth occurred outside marriage decreased from 28 to 26 between 1971 and 1991 but has since increased to almost 28 again in 1999.

With the rise in cohabitation has come an increase in births taking place outside marriage. In 1999, nearly a third of all babies in Great Britain were born to unmarried parents who registered the birth together (Chart 1.18), in comparison with one in twenty-five in 1974. In 1999, four-fifths of births outside marriage in Great Britain were jointly registered by both parents. Three-quarters of these couples (that is around 60 per cent of all births outside marriage) gave the same address on the birth registration form and so are presumed to be living together. Almost one in four babies, therefore, is being born to an unmarried couple

1.17

Mean age of father at childbirth¹

England & Wales	Years					
	1971	1980 ²	1991	1997	1998	1999
Births within marriage	27.1	27.8	29.6	31.0	31.2	31.3
Births outside marriage	28.0	26.1	25.9	27.5	27.7	27.8
All live births	27.2	27.7	28.7	29.9	30.0	30.1

¹ Fathers' details are only presented on a jointly registered birth; on a sole registration (those registered by the mother only) the father's details are not present.

² Data for 1981 are not available.

Source: Office for National Statistics

cohabiting as a family. The proportion of births registered solely by the mother was almost 8 per cent, over 52 thousand births.

There is a significant difference in the legal status of married and unmarried fathers. The *Children Act 1989* introduced the concept of parental responsibility and allows unmarried parents to make a parental responsibility agreement. These agreements confer on unmarried fathers all of the rights and duties that a married father, and any mother, automatically has. An unmarried father can acquire this responsibility by making a formal legal agreement with the mother which must then be registered at a court. If the mother will not agree to this, then the father may apply to a court which will decide whether he should be awarded parental responsibility. During 2000, over 4.1 thousand parental responsibility agreements were lodged at the Principal Registry of the Family Division and almost 7.8 thousand parental responsibility orders were made in England and Wales. The current legislation is under review. In March 2001 the *Adoption and Children Bill* received its second reading which included a clause to amend the *Children Act 1989* to provide that unmarried fathers who jointly register their child's birth acquire parental responsibility without further formality.

Data from the 1992 British Household Panel Survey showed that most fathers, 85 per cent, resided with their children. Those that did not were more likely to be separated or divorced and more likely to be never married than men who lived with their children. Only a quarter of fathers who were not co-resident with any of their children were married, compared with 94 per cent of fathers living with all their children and 59 per cent of fathers living with some of their children. Fathers who lived with some of their own children included men who had had children in second relationships and whose children born in a previous relationship remained with their mother.

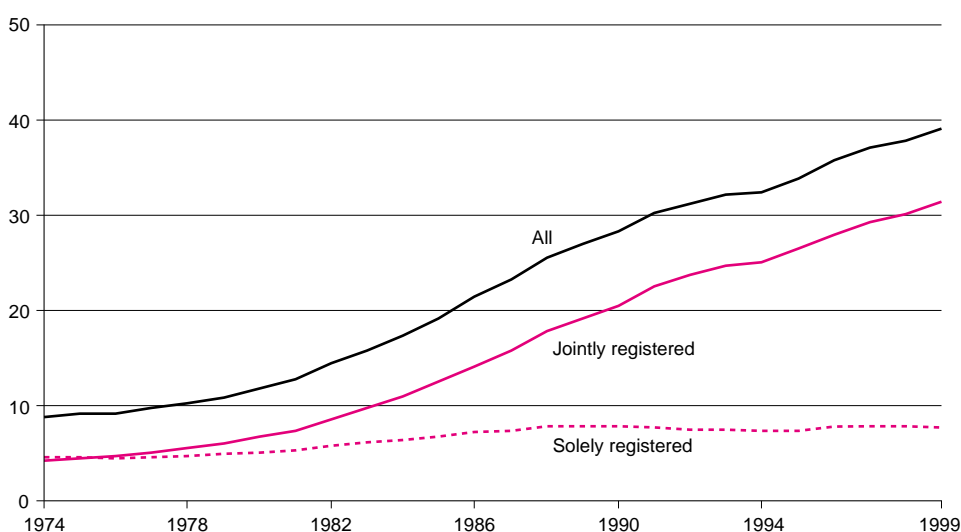
A study by the Social Policy Research Unit at the University of York showed that, in 1995-96, four-fifths of non-resident fathers in Great Britain had seen their children within the last year. Almost half said that they saw their child every week and only 3 per cent said that they never saw their child. Nine-tenths of absent fathers had at some time been married to, or cohabited with, the mother of their child. The majority of fathers had not gone on to form new families; nearly 60 per cent were living without a partner. Further analyses showed that the key determinants of whether a father saw the child regularly were: being in employment, living close, having only one child, and living in a household without children. Overall the study concluded that the great majority of absent fathers were attempting, albeit with some difficulty, to maintain relationships with their children.

1.18

Births outside marriage as a percentage of all live births

Great Britain

Percentages



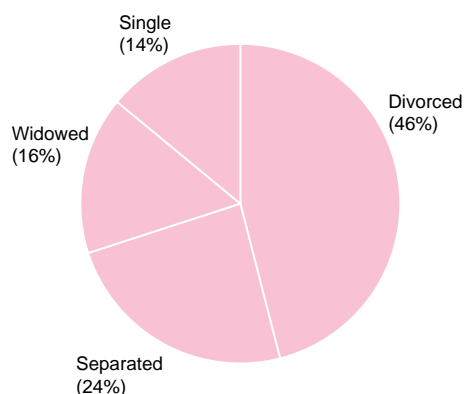
Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland

1.19

Marital status of lone fathers, Spring 2000

United Kingdom

Percentages



Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

This study found evidence of a much higher level of contact than that derived from other studies of lone parents. The authors highlight differences in the questions asked as being one of the possible explanations for variations in results. The fathers were asked 'When did you last see your child from this relationship?'. The authors report that different interpretations of the meaning of the word 'seeing' may not always have picked up alternative ways of maintaining close and perhaps valued relationships between fathers and their children including regular phoning, correspondence and even e-mail.

The Low-income Families in Britain Survey commissioned by the Department of Social Security and undertaken in Great Britain during 1999 asked lone mothers (excluding widows) about present relationships with former partners and their circumstances. Half of all these lone mothers and about a third of their children no longer saw their former partner, at least as far as the lone mother was aware. About a fifth of lone mothers did not know the whereabouts of their former partners and a third of single lone mothers did not know where the fathers of their children now lived. Where known, however, former partners had not gone far. The majority lived locally or within county boundaries and less than a fifth were in another part of Britain altogether or abroad.

In Spring 2000, one in five dependent children in the United Kingdom lived in a lone parent family, of which dependent children living in lone mother families accounted for the vast majority. Only 2 per cent of all dependent children lived in a lone father family. There were a total of 161 thousand lone father families and 1,463 thousand lone

mother families. There are a number of reasons why a father may find himself a lone parent. Chart 1.19 shows that almost half of all lone fathers were divorced and around a further quarter were separated. In comparison, over two-fifths of lone mothers were single and three in ten were divorced.

Step-parenting brings adults together with children who are not their biological offspring. The majority of stepfamily situations involve a step-father, which reflects the tendency for children to remain with their mother rather than their father following divorce or separation. According to GHS data, in 1998-99 stepfamilies (married and cohabiting) where the head of the family was aged under 60 accounted for 6 per cent of all families with dependent children in Great Britain. Almost all, 87 per cent, of stepfamilies consisted of a couple with at least one child from a previous relationship of the female partner only.

Not all men are fathers. Childlessness and fertility have traditionally been emphasised as issues for women and there is a lack of information about male fertility. The 1991 National Child Development Study (NCDS) found that by the age of 33, 34 per cent of men were childless compared with 23 per cent of women. The older age at partnership and first parenthood may help to explain some of the differences between the genders. The NCDS is a longitudinal birth cohort that has been tracing the lives of all those in Great Britain born in a specific week in 1958. Of course, the childless men and women in the study may have gone on to have children after the age of 33. The 'sweep' undertaken during 1999-00 will provide data on those who remained childless by the age of 43.

1.20

Exchanges of help between fathers and their eldest child¹, 1999²

Great Britain

Percentages

	Receiving help	Providing help
Money	5	32
Lifts in car	20	24
Paperwork/maintenance ³	15	23
Domestic tasks ⁴	15	22
Childcare	2	19
Shopping	16	15
Any of the above	38	58

¹ Help exchanged between fathers aged 50 years or over with at least one surviving child, and their eldest child.

² January and February 1999.

³ Includes decorating, gardening or house repairs.

⁴ Includes preparing or cooking meals, washing, ironing or cleaning.

Source: Omnibus Survey, Office for National Statistics; London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine; London School of Economics

It may be a popular misconception that fathers were not historically involved with their children and that such involvement is a purely modern phenomenon. There is too little reliable quantitative data by which to judge the distant past or the shift between then and now. In May 1999, in households with children under the age of 16, men reported spending around three-quarters of an hour caring for and playing with their children – just under half the amount reported by women (see page 70 in the Men and lifestyles chapter).

Intergenerational exchanges of help within the family are widely recognised as being of central importance to both individual and social well being. Data from the January and February 1999 Omnibus Survey, analysed by Grundy, Murphy and Shelton, illustrate the sorts of exchanges of help between generations (Table 1.20). As the questions only related to help fathers gave to or received from the eldest child, the total exchange of help given to or received from all children will be higher. Almost two-fifths of fathers aged 50 and over had received some kind of regular help from their eldest child during the 12 months prior to the interview. The type of help most often received was being given a lift in a car. For mothers, help with shopping, domestic chores, paperwork or household maintenance tasks were also important. Older parents also provide help to their children. Fathers aged 50 and over were most likely to help their children by providing money. Over a quarter of mothers in the same age group regularly helped their eldest child with care of their children and a third helped with domestic tasks.

Changes in relationship formation and dissolution mean that living arrangements and family structures have become increasingly diverse. Despite these changes, families continue to play a very important role in people's lives with family contact and support remaining common. Men are less likely than women to keep in contact with their close relatives and the contact between a mother and her adult child is generally more frequent than between a father and his adult child. In 1995, 10 per cent of men aged 18 and over never saw their non-resident father compared with 3 per cent who never saw their non-resident mother (Table 1.21). Contact between non-resident family members is generally not as regular as between best friends – almost three-fifths of men saw their best friend at least once a week, including those who saw them daily.

1.21

Men's contact with non-resident family members and friends¹, 1995

Great Britain	Percentages					
	Mother	Father	Adult sibling	Adult child	Other relative	Best friend ²
Daily	6	5	4	10	3	11
At least once a week, but less than daily	36	30	20	43	30	46
At least once a month, but less than weekly	26	23	23	16	25	23
Less often	28	29	45	23	38	16
Never	3	10	5	1	1	-
Not answered	1	3	3	7	4	4
All	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Percentage of adult respondents aged 18 and over. Excludes those without the relative in question, and those living with this relative.

² Best friend is the respondent's own definition.

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey, National Centre for Social Research

1.22

Men who are heads of household: by age and tenure, 1998-99

United Kingdom	Percentages							
	Under 25	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75 and over	All
Owner-occupied								
Owned outright	2	2	6	19	43	68	65	27
Owned with mortgage	27	65	74	64	37	9	5	49
Rented from social sector								
Council	22	12	9	10	13	14	20	12
Registered Social Landlord	9	4	3	2	3	4	6	4
Rented privately¹								
Furnished	21	6	3	1	1	-	0	3
Unfurnished ²	19	11	6	4	4	4	5	6
All tenures	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Includes rent-free accommodation.

² Includes partly furnished.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Continuous Household Survey, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

dwelling. Dwellings are assessed as 'unfit' if they fail to meet any of the requirements specified by Section 604 of the *1989 Local Government and Housing Act* in England. The requirements cover: disrepair; structural stability; dampness; provision for lighting, heating and ventilation; water supply; drainage; WC, wash hand basin and bath/shower; and facilities for food preparation (additional requirements are specified in Section 352 of the Act for houses in multiple occupation). Men living on their own are generally more likely than women living on their own to live in 'unfit' housing (Chart 1.23). Private tenants are most likely to be in 'unfit' housing conditions. In 1996, 17 per cent of men renting on their own in private sector housing compared with 7 per cent of men renting on their own in social sector housing, lived in 'unfit' housing conditions.

For a variety of reasons some people may end up homeless. Factors that are associated with rough sleeping include leaving prison, discharge from the armed forces, being told to leave the parental home and marital or relationship breakdown.

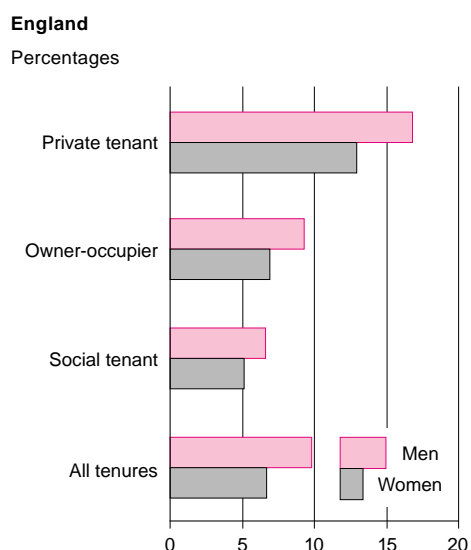
Small scale surveys mainly undertaken in England and dating back 30 years have consistently found that 90 per cent or more of rough sleepers are men. Over this time the main changes have been a reduction in the number of people sleeping rough who are in employment and some growth in younger people sleeping rough. Around a quarter of all people sleeping rough on any one night in London are aged under 26, but there are very few under the age of 18. Around 40 per cent are aged between 26 and 49, with 10 to 15 per cent aged over 60. The Rough Sleepers Unit, established in 1999, has responsibility for reducing rough sleeping in England to as near to zero as possible and by at least two-thirds by 2002. By June 2000 the number of people sleeping rough was estimated to be 1.2 thousand, which was a reduction of around a third, compared with two years previously.

Men and housing

Whereas Table 1.6 shows the type of household in which men live at different ages, Table 1.22 analyses the tenure of housing in which men who are the head of the household live at different ages. That tenure of housing varies with age in part reflects life cycle transitions. Young men who were the head of the household and aged under 25 in the United Kingdom in 1998-99 were more likely to live in private rented accommodation than any other age group. This is the most common move following departure from the parental home and is probably largely driven by taking up further education. Men in their middle years (aged 25 to 54) were most likely to live in owner-occupied housing with a mortgage, while older men tended to own their property outright. The English House Condition Survey provides information about the standard of accommodation in which people live on a range of indicators, including fitness of the

1.23

Percentage of men and women living alone, who live in unfit homes: by tenure, 1996



Source: English House Condition Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

Men and learning



Participation in education has increased dramatically in recent years, with individuals and society attaching greater importance to education as a route to social and economic success. People are now more likely to study beyond compulsory school-leaving age, and also to return to education at older ages.

More emphasis is now placed on gaining the qualifications and skills necessary to compete in an ever-developing technological society and for those who leave school early there is an increased risk of social exclusion and poor labour market prospects.

Educational attainment

Table 2.1 (overleaf) shows that young men today are more likely than previous generations to hold an educational qualification. In Autumn 2000, nine in ten men aged 16 to 24 in the United Kingdom had some sort of educational qualification compared with three-quarters of those aged 55 to 64.

The highest qualification held is also related to a number of other factors, one of which is ethnic group. In 1999-00, 14 per cent of White men of working age in Great Britain held no qualification

2.1

Highest qualification held by men: by age, Autumn 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages					
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	All men aged 16-64
Degree or equivalent	8	21	19	18	13	17
Higher education ¹	4	8	8	9	7	8
GCE A level or equivalent	31	27	30	32	33	30
GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent	35	20	16	11	8	18
Other qualification	12	15	15	14	15	14
No qualification ²	10	9	12	16	24	14
All (=100%)(millions)	3.3	4.4	4.5	3.9	3.0	19.1

¹ Below degree level.

² Includes those who did not state which qualification.

Source: Department for Education and Employment from the Labour Force Survey

compared with 20 per cent from the Indian/Pakistani/Bangladeshi group. White men were more likely to be qualified to A level standard or above than other groups, although there was little difference between the main ethnic groups in the percentage of men with a degree.

While many people have enjoyed the benefits of education, there are some who have problems with basic literacy and numeracy. In 1996 Great Britain participated in the International Adult Literacy Survey that examined the levels of literacy of people aged 16 to 65. Literacy was measured on three scales: prose, document and quantitative. Performance was grouped into five literacy levels with level 1 being the lowest and level 5 being the highest. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development considers level 3 to be the minimum level required to cope with modern life and work.

Performance on the prose scale for men in Great Britain was poorer than on either the document or quantitative scales. About a quarter of men performed at the highest literacy level (level 4/5) on both document and quantitative literacy while around a sixth performed at that level on prose (Table 2.2). There was little gender difference in prose literacy; the only notable difference between men and women was for 46 to 55 year olds where more men scored at the higher literacy levels. On both the document and quantitative scales, overall more men than women were on the higher end of the measurement scales.

Varying levels and types of skills are required for different jobs. Men in managerial, professional or technical occupations are generally likely to have higher literacy levels than those in craft and related occupations and plant and machine operators. Of the occupations identified, those

<p>International Adult Literacy Survey definitions of literacy skills</p> <p>Prose literacy: the knowledge and skills required to understand and use information from texts such as prose, newspaper articles and passages of fiction.</p>	<p>Document literacy: the knowledge and skills required to locate and use information contained in various formats such as timetables, graphs, charts and forms.</p> <p>Quantitative literacy: the knowledge and skills required to apply arithmetic operations, either alone or sequentially.</p>
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2.2

workers who were plant and machine operators tended to have lower levels of literacy across all the scales.

The impact that low levels of literacy and numeracy can have on people's lives can be substantial. A series of studies carried by the Basic Skills Agency found that the educational careers of people in the lowest literacy and numeracy groups were marked by an early exit from school at 16 and non-attainment of any formal qualifications. The employment careers of these men were subsequently characterised by periods of unemployment. Researchers also found that fewer individuals with poor basic skills reported having good work-related skills, especially in key areas of modern employment such as computing.

Participation in education

Today's fast changing labour market calls for flexibility and new skills to be acquired and old skills to be upgraded. The consequences are greater demand for extended education and training for young people before they enter the labour market and for opportunities for continuing education and re-training throughout people's working lives.

At the age of 16 young people are faced with the choice of whether to remain in education, go into training or seek employment. In 1986 young men aged 16 to 18 in England were more likely than young women of the same age to be in education and training, but since the early 1990s the proportions have been similar (Table 2.3). Participation in education and training increased rapidly during the latter part of the 1980s and early 1990s. There was a particularly sharp rise in participation among 18 year old women, with an increase of around two-thirds between 1986 and 1999.

Male literacy: by age, 1996

Great Britain	Percentages				
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4/5	All
Prose literacy					
16-25	18	31	34	17	100
26-35	18	27	36	19	100
36-45	16	29	34	21	100
46-55	20	27	35	18	100
56-65	37	37	20	6	100
All men aged 16-65	21	30	32	17	100
Document literacy					
16-25	15	25	35	25	100
26-35	18	21	33	28	100
36-45	16	23	32	29	100
46-55	20	24	32	25	100
56-65	34	36	23	8	100
All men aged 16-65	20	25	31	24	100
Quantitative literacy					
16-25	17	31	32	20	100
26-35	15	26	27	32	100
36-45	14	22	33	32	100
46-55	17	21	35	27	100
56-65	29	35	25	11	100
All men aged 16-65	18	27	30	25	100

Source: Adult Literacy Survey, Office for National Statistics

2.3

Young people in education and training¹: by gender and age

England	Percentages									
	1986	1988	1991	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Men										
16	83	84	87	89	89	87	86	85	84	85
17	61	74	80	81	81	79	79	78	78	79
18	46	51	58	61	61	61	61	60	60	61
All aged 16-18	63	69	74	77	77	76	76	74	74	75
Women										
16	83	83	89	91	90	89	88	87	88	88
17	57	67	76	81	81	80	80	79	80	81
18	37	39	48	56	58	59	61	60	59	60
All aged 16-18	58	63	70	76	76	77	77	76	75	76

¹ Data are at end of each year. All in full-time education and government-supported training plus employer-funded training and other education and training. There is a slight discontinuity in the data series in 1994 due to changes in the data sources.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

2.4

Men working towards a qualification¹: by age and type of qualification, Autumn 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages				
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
Degree or equivalent	31	29	25	21	14
Higher education ²	6	10	13	9	..
GCE A level or equivalent	35	9	9	9	..
GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent	12	8	6	7	..
Other qualification ³	16	44	46	53	64
All (=100%)(thousands)	1,528	603	421	194	74

¹ For those working towards more than one qualification the highest is recorded.

² Below degree level.

³ Includes those who did not state which qualification.

Source: Department for Education and Employment from the Labour Force Survey

Not everyone working towards a qualification beyond the age of 16 has worked their way continuously through the various levels of education. Table 2.4 shows that under 3 million men of working age were studying towards a qualification in the United Kingdom in Autumn 2000. Of those aged 16 to 24 who were studying for a qualification, roughly equal proportions were studying towards GCE A level (or equivalent) or a degree (or equivalent). Men over the age of 24 were far more likely to be studying towards a degree than either A levels or higher education qualifications below degree level.

There are many courses designed to encourage adults to re-enter the education system and to participate in 'lifelong learning'. Access courses, for example, have been around for over 20 years and are designed to provide the skills and understanding needed to succeed on a degree course for those without formal entry qualifications. Students on Access courses may have difficulty returning to education but have shown the potential to succeed in higher education. Courses are open to 'mature' people who are over 21 but most tend to be 25 to 35 years of age. In 1999/00 men were more likely to study on an Access course full-time rather than part-time, 7.4 and 4.0 thousand respectively (Table 2.5). Two and a half times more women than men were on an Access course, and there was much less difference in the numbers of women studying full-time and part-time: 15.5 and 12.7 thousand respectively. Both women and men were far more likely to study Humanities than any other subject.

The 1970s and 1980s saw a substantial rise in the number of students participating in higher education in the United Kingdom, and it increased again during the 1990s. Men's participation in

2.5

Enrolments on Access courses¹ in further education institutions: by selected subject, gender and mode of study, 1999/00

England	Thousands			
	Men		Women	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
Humanities	4.4	2.4	9.9	8.0
Sciences	1.1	0.3	1.2	0.8
Art and design	0.7	0.5	0.9	1.1
Health and community	0.5	0.3	2.9	2.3
Business	0.4	-	0.3	-
Engineering	0.2	-	-	-
Hotel and catering	0.1	-	0.1	-
Construction	-	-	-	-
All ²	7.4	4.0	15.5	12.7

¹ To higher education.

² Includes those whose subject was not specified.

Source: Further Education Funding Council

2.6

1999/00 was more than twice that in 1970/71 (Table 2.6). Between 1990/91 and 1999/00 there was a 49 per cent increase in the number of male undergraduates studying full-time and a 14 per cent increase in those studying part-time. Over the same time period the number of men studying postgraduate courses part-time more than doubled and in 1999 nine in ten such students were aged over 25. Although there has been an increase in participation for men the increase for women has been far greater; in 1999/00 there were around 1 million females studying in higher education, five times more than in 1970/71. There are now more women than men on undergraduate courses, although men still outnumber women on postgraduate courses.

Male enrolments¹ in higher education: by type of course and mode of study

United Kingdom		Thousands						
		1970/71	1975/76	1980/81	1985/86	1990/91	1995/96	1999/00
Undergraduate								
Full time		241	264	277	294	345	519	513
Part time		127	151	176	182	193	221	220
Postgraduate								
Full time		33	37	41	44	50	76	78
Part time		15	17	32	34	50	98	121
All male enrolments		416	470	526	553	638	913	932

¹ Includes home and overseas students and Open University.

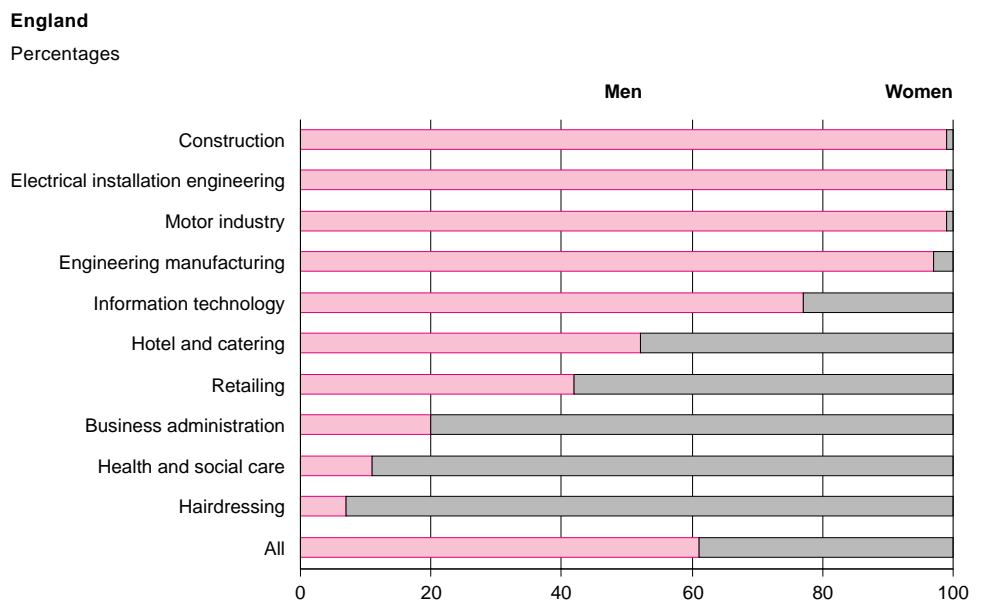
Source: Department for Education and Employment; Higher Education Statistics Agency; Scottish Executive; Northern Ireland Department of Higher and Further Education, Training and Employment

There are various options available to young people who decide not to continue in full-time education, including a number of government-supported training initiatives. In England and Wales, Work-based Training for Young People (WBTYP) was introduced in 1998 (replacing Youth Training) with the aim of ensuring that all young people have access to post-compulsory education or training. Included within this initiative are Advanced Modern Apprenticeships (AMAs) and Foundation Modern Apprenticeships. AMAs are aimed at developing technical, supervisory and craft-level skills among 16 to 24 year olds. In March 2000 there were 296 thousand young people in government-supported training in England and Wales.

Some apprenticeship sectors are highly gender specific. In 2000, 99 per cent of apprenticeship participants in England in the areas of construction, electrical installation engineering and motor industry were men (Chart 2.7). In contrast, men were greatly outnumbered by women in health and social care and hairdressing.

2.7

Advanced Modern Apprenticeships: by selected subject and gender, 2000



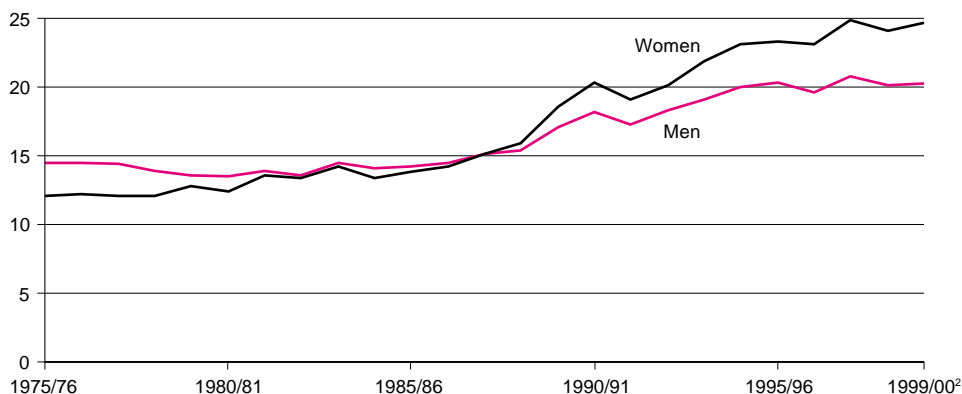
Source: Department for Education and Employment

2.8

Achievement of 2 or more GCE A levels/3 or more Highers¹: by gender

United Kingdom

Percentages



¹ GCE A levels based on population aged 17 at the start of the academic year; SCE Highers – Year S5/S6 in Scotland. Data to 1990/91 (1991/92 in Northern Ireland) relate to school leavers. From 1991/92 data relate to school pupils of any age for Great Britain while school performance data are used for Northern Ireland from 1992/93. Figures exclude sixth form colleges in England and Wales which were reclassified as FE colleges from 1 April 1993. Excludes GNVQ Advanced Qualifications throughout.

² Includes 1998/99 data for Scotland.

Source: Department for Education and Employment; National Assembly for Wales; Scottish Executive; Northern Ireland Department of Education

Qualifications and subject choice

From the age of 14 onwards, young people study for public examinations. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland young people aged 15 and 16 sit GCSEs, and Standard grades are taken in Scotland. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland GCE A levels are generally taken two years later while, in Scotland, Highers require at least a further year of secondary schooling. Over the last twenty-five years there has been an increase in the proportion of young men and women in the United Kingdom achieving two or more GCE A levels (or equivalents) in schools (Chart 2.8). Men out-performed women up to 1987/88, when 15 per cent of both young men and women in schools achieved two or more A levels. Since then the proportion of men achieving two or more A levels has increased to 20 per cent compared with 25 per cent for women.

Since 1992/93 the proportion of young men and women achieving a grade A* to C GCSE (or equivalent) in their final year of compulsory education in Great Britain in all the main subjects has increased. In 1999/00 men performed better than women in geography and women outperformed men in English, any science, mathematics, any modern language and history (Table 2.9).

At the age of 16 young people take a variety of further education options. In 1999/00, young men were entered for 400 thousand GCE A level or equivalent examinations, in comparison with 465

2.9

Pupils¹ achieving GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent: by selected subject and gender, 1992/93 and 1999/00

Great Britain

Percentages

	Men		Women	
	1992/93	1999/00 ²	1992/93	1999/00 ²
English	44	47	61	64
Any science ³	41	47	41	51
Mathematics	40	46	40	48
Any modern language	..	32	..	49
French	20	22	31	34
Geography	22	23	20	21
History	17	19	22	22

¹ Pupils in final year of compulsory schooling.

² Includes 1998/99 data for Scotland.

³ Includes double award, single award and individual science subjects.

Source: Department for Education and Employment; National Assembly for Wales; Scottish Executive

2.10

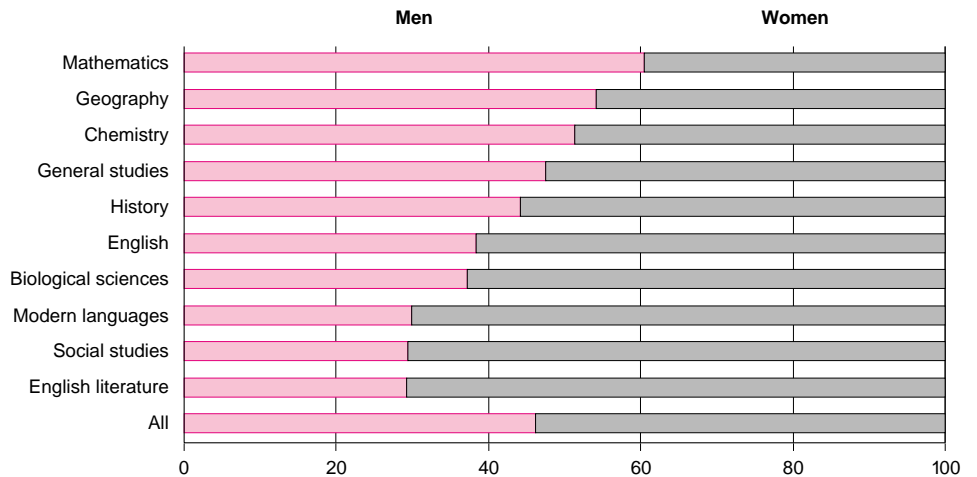
thousand examination entries by young women. There is a wide choice of subjects to study for those who continue their education and gender differences exist, with fewer young women than men taking A level courses in mathematics or physics (Chart 2.10). In 1999/00, 60 per cent of 16 to 18 year olds entered for A level mathematics in Great Britain were male. In comparison, 71 per cent of those entered for social studies or English literature were women.

Alongside A level courses there is now a wide range of vocational qualifications which include General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) and job-specific National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs). GNVQs are mainly undertaken by young people in full-time education between the ages of 16 and 18, and provide a broad-based preparation for a range of occupations and higher education. There are three GNVQ levels – Advanced, Intermediate and Foundation. An Advanced GNVQ requires a level of achievement broadly equal to two GCE A levels. GNVQs may also be taken in combination with other qualifications, such as GCE A levels or GCSEs. In 1999/00 there were around 20 thousand Advanced GNVQ entries by young men and 23 thousand by young women aged 16 to 18 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and, as with A level entries, there were gender differences in subjects selected (Chart 2.11). The largest difference was for those entered for construction, where 97 per cent were men. Conversely, 95 per cent of those entered for health and social care were women.

GCE A level or equivalent entries¹: by selected subject and gender, 1999/00²

Great Britain

Percentages



¹ For students aged 16 to 18 in all schools and further education sector colleges. SCE Higher grade in Scotland.

² Includes 1998/99 data for Scotland.

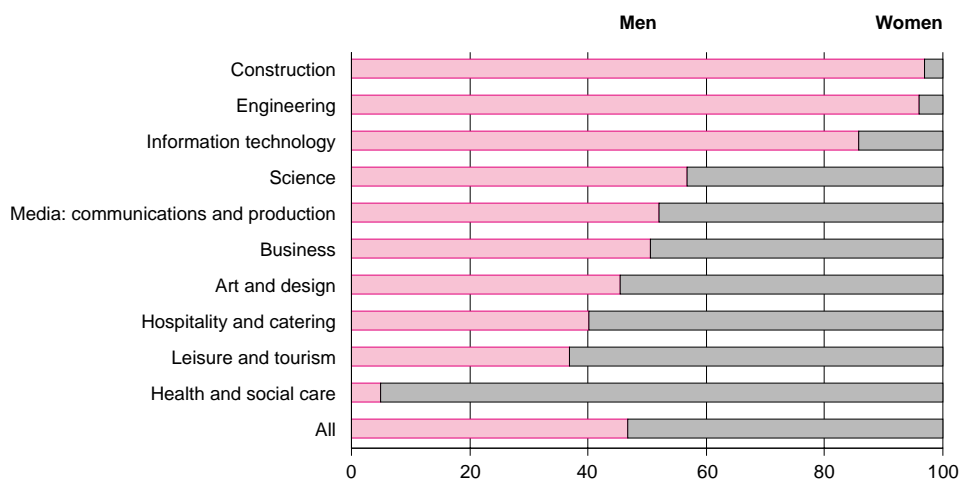
Source: Department for Education and Employment; National Assembly for Wales; Scottish Executive

2.11

Advanced GNVQ entries for 16 to 18 year olds: by selected subject and gender, 1999/00¹

England, Wales & Northern Ireland

Percentages



¹ Includes 1998/99 data for Northern Ireland.

Source: Department for Education and Employment; National Assembly for Wales; Northern Ireland Department of Education

As shown in Table 2.6 on page 29, there have been substantial increases in participation in higher education. In 1999/00, 47 per cent of under 25s in the United Kingdom who graduated with a first degree were men. Again, gender differences in degree subject qualifications were evident. Nearly five times as many young men aged under 25 (13.9 thousand) obtained a first degree in engineering and technology compared with women (2.8 thousand) (Chart 2.12). In contrast, three times as many women as men gained first degrees in subjects allied to medicine (which

includes nursing), at 7.3 thousand females compared with 2.5 thousand males. However, there is little difference between men and women who gained first degrees in medicine and dentistry, 2.5 and 2.8 thousand respectively.

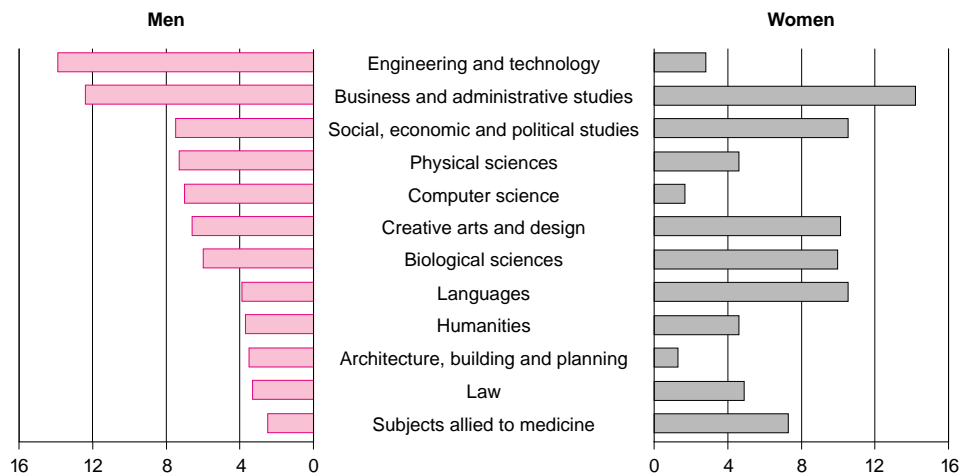
For the first time in 2000 female students slightly outnumbered male students in the number of first-class degrees gained at university in the United Kingdom: 11.0 thousand female students achieved a first-class degree compared with 10.8 thousand male students. Female students also dominated other degree classifications, with 59 per cent of women obtaining upper second-class degrees compared with 41 per cent of men. The number of women achieving postgraduate qualifications is also increasing at a faster rate than among men; between 1999 and 2000 they increased by 8 per cent for women and 3 per cent for men. In 2000, 64.2 thousand women gained postgraduate degrees in comparison with 58.5 thousand men; this compared with 59.5 and 57.0 thousand respectively in 1999. The largest increase in postgraduate qualifications for men was in computer sciences, which increased by 16 per cent between 1999 and 2000.

Men continue to improve in their educational achievements, although women's attainment has increased at a faster rate than men, and women are now beginning to outperform men at many levels of education. However, gender differences exist in subject choice beyond compulsory school leaving age with men still continuing to be more likely to study mathematics and engineering and technology.

2.12

First degree qualifications obtained by students' aged under 25: by gender and selected subject group, 1999/00

United Kingdom
Thousands



¹ Includes home and overseas students.

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency

Men and work



The roles that men and women play in the labour market have changed markedly over the years.

The proportion of married or cohabiting men with the traditional role of primary breadwinner has decreased alongside the increasing participation of women in the workforce. Nevertheless differences between men's and women's participation in the labour force remain - for example, far fewer men than women work part time. Men continue to outnumber women in many professional occupations. Changes in the global economy, international trade, new technology and the economic cycle have had an impact on people's jobs and have had substantial effects on men's employment experiences.

Men in the labour market

In Spring 2000 there were 19.0 million men of working age in the United Kingdom, of whom 15.0 million were in employment (see [Table 3.1](#) overleaf). The number of men of working age in employment was 8 per cent higher than in Spring 1986. Although both the number of men working part time and the number working full time rose over this period, the increase was greatest among those working part time. Nevertheless, almost all the increase in employment since 1996 has been in full-time permanent jobs. The structure of the male labour force is very different from that for women. Despite the increase in part-time working

3.1

Men of working age¹: by employment status

United Kingdom		Millions							
		1986	1988	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000
Economically active									
Employees									
Permanent									
Full time		11.0	11.1	11.4	10.4	10.1	10.3	10.8	11.2
Part time		0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7
Temporary									
Full time		0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Part time		0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
All employees ²		11.6	11.9	12.1	11.4	11.3	11.7	12.3	12.8
Self-employed		2.0	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.2
Others in employment ³		0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1
All in employment		13.9	14.6	15.0	14.0	13.9	14.2	14.7	15.0
Unemployed ⁴		1.8	1.5	1.1	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.1	1.0
Economically inactive		2.2	2.1	2.1	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0
All men of working age		18.0	18.2	18.3	18.4	18.5	18.6	18.9	19.0

¹ Men aged 16 to 64. At Spring each year.

² Includes those who did not state whether they were permanent or temporary employees, or whether they worked full or part time.

³ Includes people on government-supported training and employment training programmes and in 1984 and 1991 those who did not state whether they were employees or self-employed and in 1996 and 2000 those working unpaid for a family business.

⁴ Based on the ILO definition.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

among men, very few, just 7 per cent, of male employees worked part time in Spring 2000. This compares with 39 per cent of female employees.

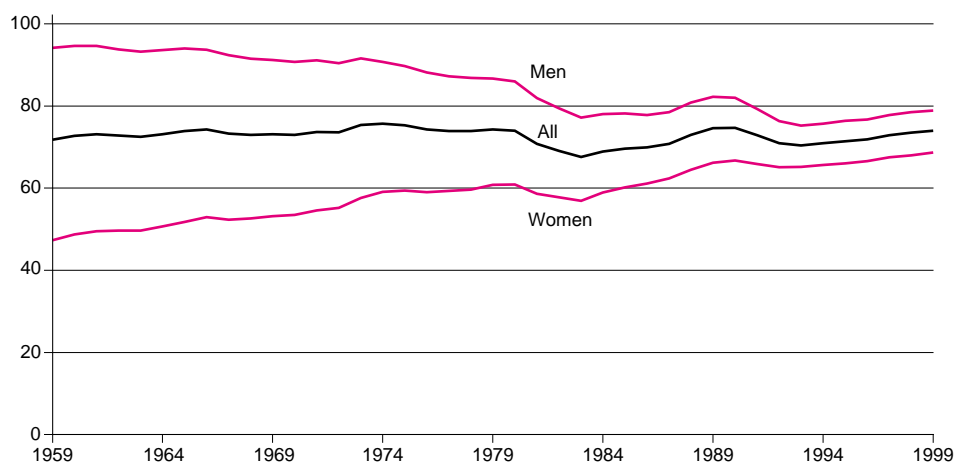
Not only does the structure of male and female employment differ but very different changes have taken place. The trend in the male employment rates (the proportion of the male working age population in employment) was gradually downwards from the mid-1960s through to the late 1970s (Chart 3.2). Each time a dip in the economic cycle has resulted in a fall, the following recovery has not been sufficient to restore rates to their pre-recession levels, and these cyclical effects have been more marked since 1979. Taken over the 40 year period to 1999, the effect has been to reduce the male employment rate from 94 per cent to 79 per cent, a fall of 15 percentage points. However, there is some evidence to suggest that this downward trend has now stabilised with a gradual rise between 1993 and 1999. The picture for women is very different. The employment rate among women rose from 47 per cent to 69 per cent between 1959 and 1999, with the effects of changes in the economic cycle being generally less marked than for men.

3.2

Employment rates¹: by gender

United Kingdom

Percentages



¹ At Summer each year. In 1959 to 1971, men aged 15 to 64 and women aged 15 to 59; from 1972 onwards men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

The likelihood of being economically active (that is, either in work or unemployed but actively looking for work) varies with age. Up until the early 1970s there was a 'natural progression' for most young men – moving from school into work, irrespective of educational achievement. In 1971 the economic activity rate for 16 to 24 year old men was 82 per cent compared with 74 per cent in 2000 (Chart 3.3). The overall employment and economic activity rates mask even greater

3.3

changes in young people's employment patterns. There has been an increase in the proportion of students in full-time education who are also in paid work and are therefore classified as 'economically active'. In Spring 1999, 35 per cent of young men aged 16 to 24 in full-time education, and 40 per cent of their female counterparts, were also in paid work.

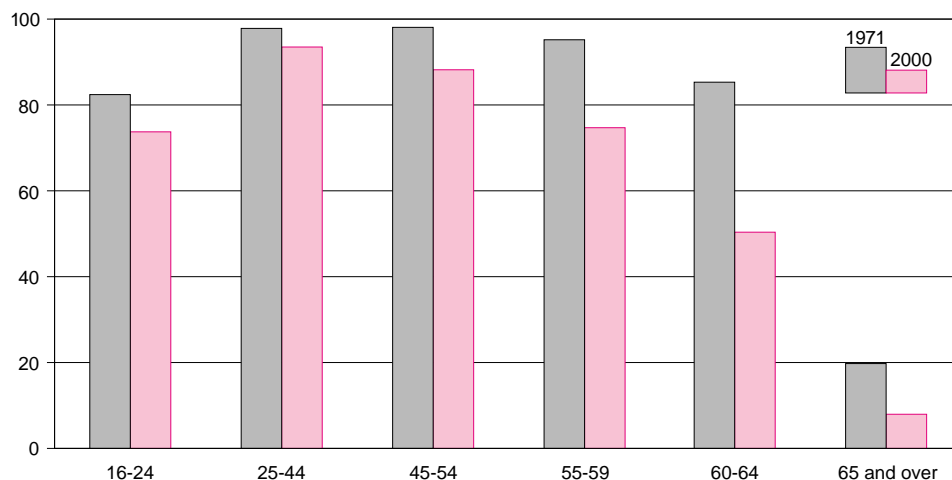
At the other end of the age range, from the 45 to 54 age group onwards, male economic activity rates were much lower in 2000 than in 1971 when the rates stayed above 95 per cent until the 60 to 64 age group. The rates for the 60 to 64 age group fell from 85 per cent in 1971 to 50 per cent in 2000. Reasons for this dramatic fall may include earlier retirement, possibly linked to increasing access to occupational pension schemes, and long-term sickness or disability.

For a variety of cultural reasons, as well as differing age structures, economic activity rates vary between people of different ethnic groups in Great Britain (Table 3.4). Overall, men from ethnic minority groups have lower economic activity rates and higher ILO unemployment rates (see definition on page 42) compared with white men. Economic activity and unemployment rates for the Indian ethnic group are close to those of White men. In contrast, Chinese and Bangladeshi men have very low economic activity rates and Black men have the highest unemployment rates. In all ethnic groups, women had lower economic activity rates than men, with the lowest activity rates for women in the Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups at 31 and 24 per cent respectively.

Economic activity rates¹ for men: by age, 1971 and 2000

United Kingdom

Percentages



¹ The percentage of the population that is in the labour force. The definition of the labour force changed in 1984 when the former Great Britain civilian labour force definition was replaced by the ILO definition which excludes members of the armed forces.

Source: Census and Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

3.4

Economic activity rates¹ of men: by ethnic group and age, 1999-00²

Great Britain

Percentages

	16-24	25-44	45-64	All men aged 16-64
White	78	94	78	85
Black Caribbean	76	89	66	80
Black African	53	86	73	76
Other Black groups	80	84	..	82
Indian	61	95	74	82
Pakistani	59	90	63	76
Bangladeshi	55	81	44	65
Chinese	..	84	74	66
None of the above ³	54	84	80	76
All ethnic groups ⁴	76	94	77	85

¹ The percentage of the male population that is in the labour force.

² Average: Summer 1999 to Spring 2000.

³ Includes those of mixed origin.

⁴ Includes those who did not state their ethnic group.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

3.5

Men entering employment through the New Deal: by age and type of employment, January 1998 to March 2001

Great Britain	Percentages		
	18-24	25 and over	All aged 18 and over
Sustained employment			
Unsubsidised	67	64	66
Subsidised	9	19	11
All	76	82	77
Other employment			
Unsubsidised	22	16	21
Subsidised	2	3	2
All	24	18	23
All entering employment (=100%)(millions)	0.2	0.1	0.3
Those entering sustained employment as a percentage of all male leavers	40	15	30

Source: Employment Service

Changes in the industrial structure of the labour market have led to some older workers, particularly men, being detached from the workforce because they are less likely to meet the change in skill demands. At the other end of the age spectrum unemployment rates among young people are relatively high. The Government introduced the New Deal scheme for 18 to 24 year olds and over 25s in 1998 as a means of helping different groups of unemployed people who are at a disadvantage in the labour market back into work.

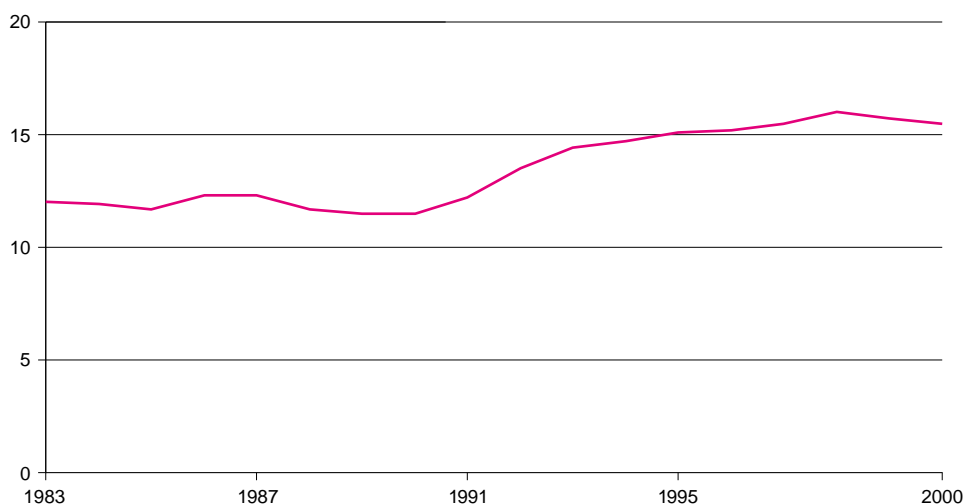
Participation in the Government's New Deal scheme is mandatory for 18 to 24 year olds who have claimed jobseeker's allowance continuously for six months. There is a Gateway period that includes intensive careers advice and guidance and help with job search skills. The aim is to find unsubsidised jobs for as many as possible. Those who do not find a job then move onto one of four options: subsidised employment; work experience with a voluntary organisation or on an environmental task force, both with training; or full-time education. For those reaching the end of their option without keeping or finding work, there is a follow-through period of support and further training if needed. Of those young men aged 18 to 24 in Great Britain leaving the New Deal in March 2001, 40 per cent entered employment (Table 3.5).

The New Deal scheme is also available to those aged over 25 who have been claiming jobseeker's allowance continuously for two years and, as for 18 to 24 year olds, participation at this stage is mandatory. Those joining enter an advisory process lasting between three and six months with an average of seven interviews. During this period the employment service and other agencies work with them to improve employability and find unsubsidised jobs for as many as possible. The

3.6

Economic inactivity rates among men¹

Great Britain
Percentages



¹ Men aged 16 to 64. At Spring each year.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

scheme has similar arrangements for young people in that those who do not find a job or transfer to another provision may enter a period of subsidised employment, lasting 6 months, or a course of full-time education or training lasting for up to a year. Table 3.5 shows that among those men aged 25 and over leaving the New Deal programme in March 2001, a much lower proportion moved into employment – only 15 per cent compared with 40 per cent of 18 to 24 year olds.

Economic inactivity

One of the most pronounced changes in the UK labour market over the last two decades has been the rise in the number of economically inactive men of working age. These are men aged between 16 and 64 who are neither employed nor recorded as unemployed. Chart 3.6 shows that economic inactivity among men of working age has been less responsive to the economic cycle than unemployment rates. Between 1983 and 1991 economic inactivity fluctuated around 12 per cent and then rose continuously until 1998 when 16 per cent of men of working age were economically inactive in Great Britain. In Spring 2000, 3.0 million men were economically inactive, or 16 per cent of the male working age population.

There are a variety of reasons why people are economically inactive. Around seven in ten men and women of working age in the United Kingdom who were economically inactive in Spring 2000 said that they did not want a job (Table 3.7). But the reasons why men and women who are inactive do not want a job differ. In Spring 2000, a quarter of all economically inactive men did not want a job because they were long-term sick or disabled. This was around twice the proportion for

economically inactive women. In contrast, only 3 per cent of economically inactive men of working age, but a third of women in the same position, did not want a job because they were looking after the family or home. A similar pattern emerges for those who have not actively sought a job in the previous four weeks: men were far more likely than women to give being long-term sick or disabled as a reason, while women were far more likely than men to give the reason of looking after family or home.

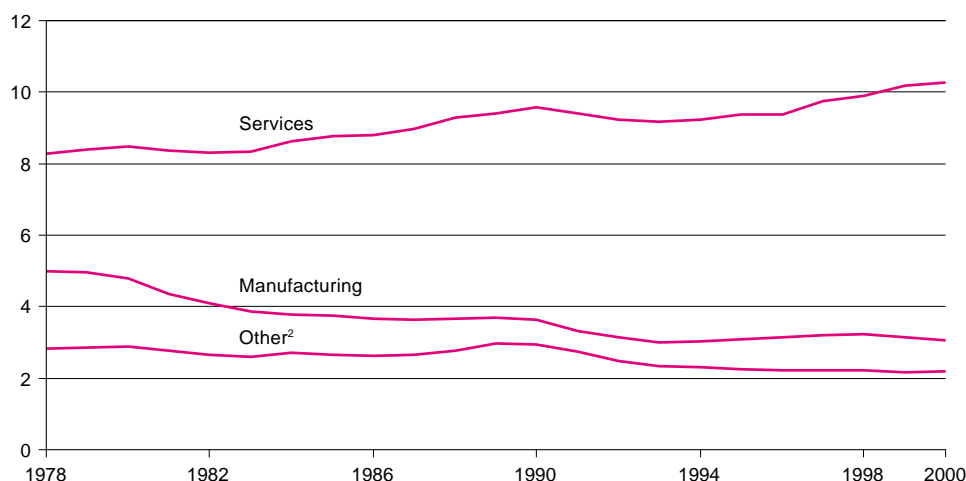
Type of job

The UK economy has experienced structural changes since the Second World War, with a decline in jobs in the manufacturing sector and an increase in service industries. For men, jobs in the service industries increased by 24 per cent between 1978 and 2000, to 10.3 million (Chart 3.8). Note that the chart is based on jobs rather than people – one person may have more than one job, and jobs may vary in the number of hours of work they involve.

Male workforce jobs¹: by industry

United Kingdom

Millions



¹ At June each year.

² Includes agriculture, construction, energy and water.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Reasons for economic inactivity¹: by gender, Spring 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages	
	Men	Women
Does not want a job		
Long-term sick or disabled	25	14
Student	21	13
Looking after family or home	3	33
Other	19	10
All	68	71
Wants a job but not seeking in last four weeks		
Long-term sick or disabled	16	6
Student	4	3
Looking after family or home	2	12
Discouraged worker ²	1	1
Other	6	4
All	29	26
Wants a job and seeking work but not available to start³		
	3	3
All reasons (=100%)(millions)	3.0	4.8

¹ Men aged 16 to 64, women aged 16 to 59.

² People who believed no jobs were available.

³ Not available for work in the next two weeks. Includes those who did not state whether or not they were available.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

3.9

Self-employment: by gender and industry, 1991 and 2000¹

United Kingdom	Percentages					
	1991			2000		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Construction	29	2	22	27	1	20
Banking, finance and insurance	14	13	14	19	18	19
Distribution, hotels and restaurants	21	29	23	18	21	19
Transport and communication	6	2	5	8	3	7
Manufacturing	11	10	11	7	7	7
Agriculture and fishing	10	7	9	7	4	6
Public administration, education and health	4	14	6	5	22	10
Other services	5	22	9	9	23	13
All industries ² (=100%)(millions)	2.6	0.8	3.0	2.3	0.8	3.1

¹ At Spring each year.

² Includes those in energy and water supply industries for which figures are not shown separately because of the small sample sizes. Also includes those who did not state industry and those whose workplace was outside the United Kingdom, but percentages are based on totals which exclude these groups.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Self-employment also forms an important part of the labour force. Around 2.3 million men aged 16 and over in the United Kingdom were self-employed in Spring 2000 (Table 3.9). The number of self-employed men increased from 2.0 million in 1984 to 2.7 million in 1989 and 1990. It then fell back to 2.4 million in 1992 and fluctuated between 2.4 and 2.5 million up to 1998. Self-employment is much more common among men than women – 15 per cent of men in employment were self-employed in Spring 2000 compared with 7 per cent of women.

There is also considerable variation in the types of self-employed work that men and women undertake. More than a quarter of self-employed men in Spring 2000 worked in the construction industry, but very few women did so. On the other hand, 23 per cent of self-employed women worked in 'other' services – for example, community, social and personal services and a further 22 per cent were in public administration, education and health, areas where self-employed men are comparatively under represented.

3.10

Employees¹: by gender and occupation, 1991 and 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages			
	Men		Women	
	1991	2000	1991	2000
Managers and administrators	16	19	8	11
Professional	10	12	8	10
Associate professional and technical	8	9	10	11
Clerical and secretarial	8	8	29	25
Craft and related	21	17	4	2
Personal and protective services	7	8	14	17
Selling	6	6	12	12
Plant and machine operatives	15	14	5	4
Other occupations	8	8	10	8
All employees ² (=100%)(millions)	11.8	12.8	10.1	11.0

¹ At Spring each year. Men aged 16 to 64, women aged 16 to 59.

² Includes those who did not state their occupation. Percentages are based on totals which exclude this group.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Linked to the changing industrial structure has been the shift from manual to non-manual jobs. Between 1991 and 2000 there was a decrease of 4 percentage points in the proportion of male employees working in craft and related occupations, and a rise of 3 percentage points in managers and administrators (Table 3.10). The proportion of male managers and administrators is nearly twice that of women, while men outnumber women by more than three to one among plant machine operators and by even more in craft and related occupations. The most common

3.11

occupations among women employees continue to be in the clerical and secretarial sphere, followed by personal and protective services.

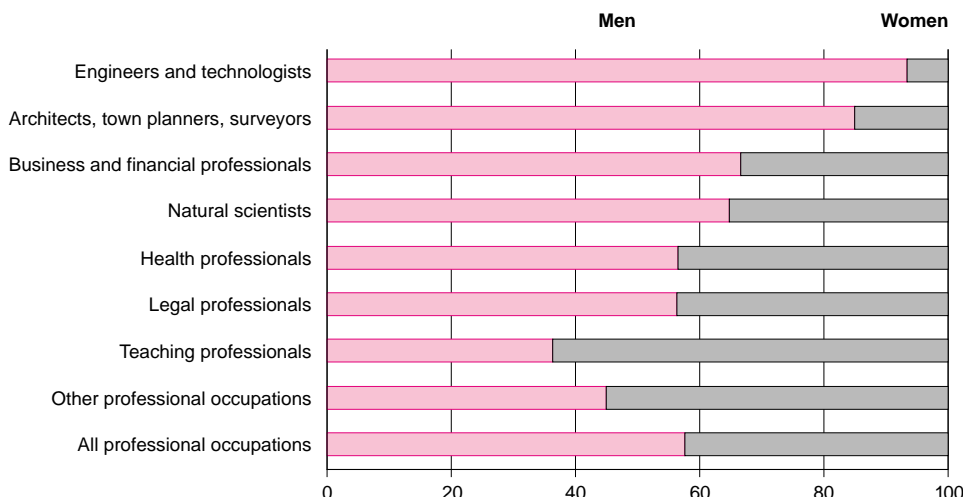
Despite the changes in the industrial structure and the significant advances made by women over the last two decades in the labour market, men still dominate certain occupations while women predominate in others. In Spring 2000, six in ten employees of working age in professional occupations were men (Chart 3.11). This ratio was far higher in some professions; for example, 93 per cent of engineers and technologists and 85 per cent of architects, town planners and surveyors were men. In contrast, men accounted for just 36 per cent of teaching professionals.

More detailed information provided by the various professional associations and other bodies reinforces the view that men still outnumber women in the upper levels of management in certain professions. For example, although men formed only 17 per cent of all teachers in nursery and primary schools in 1999, 42 per cent of all nursery/primary headteachers were men, although this has decreased since 1990 (see Table 3.12 overleaf). In secondary schools, men represented 47 per cent of all teachers in 1999, but 72 per cent of all head teachers; again, this proportion has declined since 1990.

The position which men hold in the teaching profession is reflected in other occupations. In the civil service, men continue to predominate in the upper levels of management, although there are roughly equal numbers of men and women overall. In April 2000, 78 per cent of senior civil

Employees' in professional occupations: by gender, Spring 2000

United Kingdom
Percentages



1 Men aged 16 to 64, women aged 16 to 59.
Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

service employees were male while at the other end of the civil service grades women outnumbered men at office assistant level.

Among police officers there were five times as many men as women in England and Wales at the end of September 2000, with men predominating in all ranks. Constables formed the majority of officers and 81 per cent of constables were men, a lower proportion than for higher ranks where over 90 per cent of officers were men.

3.12

Teachers in maintained schools who are men: by grade

England & Wales	Percentages					
	Nursery/primary			Secondary ¹		
	1990	1995	1999	1990	1995	1999
Head	51	48	42	80	76	72
Deputy head	35	31	27	66	66	64
Classroom and other ²	12	12	12	51	48	45
All teachers	19	18	17	52	49	47

¹ Excludes sixth form colleges.

² Other comprises mainly unqualified teachers.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

3.13

Main reason why men¹ did not want a full-time job: by age, Autumn 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages		
	16-44	45-64	All men aged 16-64
Already financially secure	..	32	23
Earn enough from part-time job	8	18	15
To spend more time with family	14	6	9
Need to meet domestic commitments	13	5	8
Other	56	34	41
All who did not want a full-time job (=100%)(millions)	0.1	0.3	0.4

¹ Men who were employed, self-employed or unpaid family workers working part-time, or those not in paid work but working part-time in last job if held during last 8 years.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Patterns of employment

Changes in the structure of the labour market have led to changes in the patterns of work. More diverse working practices have developed and these have taken a number of forms, including part-time work, variable hours, temporary work and self-employment. However, the majority of men continue to work full time.

Part-time working may provide both employers and employees with a degree of flexibility. For employers it can provide a mechanism for long opening hours while for some employees it may help to balance the demands of family or academic life and work. As Table 3.1 illustrated, over the last two decades, the number of male part-time employees has grown faster than the number of full-time employees. In Autumn 2000, 0.4 million men of working age in the United Kingdom who worked part-time (or were not in paid work and had worked part-time in their last job) did not want a full-time job (Table 3.13). Reasons given ranged from being already financially secure (23 per cent) through to the need to meet domestic commitments (8 per cent). A third of men aged 45 to 64 gave being already financially secure as the main reason that they did not want a full-time job. In comparison, younger men were more likely to give the reasons as being, either to spend more time with their family or the need to meet domestic commitments.

The prevalence of part-time employment also varies between occupations (Table 3.14). For example, of the 961 thousand male part-time employees in the United Kingdom in Spring 2000,

3.14

24 per cent worked in sales and 18 per cent in personal and protective services. In contrast, associate professional and technical and craft and related occupations only formed 4 per cent each.

The proportion of full-time employees who had been in their current job for less than a year is one indicator of job tenure and turnover. In Spring 2000, 17 per cent of men in Great Britain who were full-time employees had started their job in the previous 12 months (Chart 3.15). On this measure, turnover is very cyclical, being highest in times of job growth as more jobs are created and people are more likely to change jobs. Research using the Labour Force Survey indicates that, in the late 1990s, typically when someone started a new job it lasted about 15 months, but that the average job in progress lasted about 5.5 years. This is because most employees eventually find a long-term job match.

There are sharp contrasts in job tenure across gender. Job tenure has fallen for men and women without dependent children but has risen among women with children. The largest fall in job tenure has been among men aged 50 and over, from 15 years and three months in 1975 to 13 years and eight months in 1995. In Spring 2000, 0.8 million male employees in the United Kingdom were employed in temporary jobs compared with 0.6 million in 1994, with the proportion of men who are employed in temporary jobs who are agency temping rising from 9 per cent in 1994 to 17 per cent in 2000. However, over the same period the proportion of men employed in temporary jobs, working on fixed period contracts, declined from 55 per cent to 48 per cent.

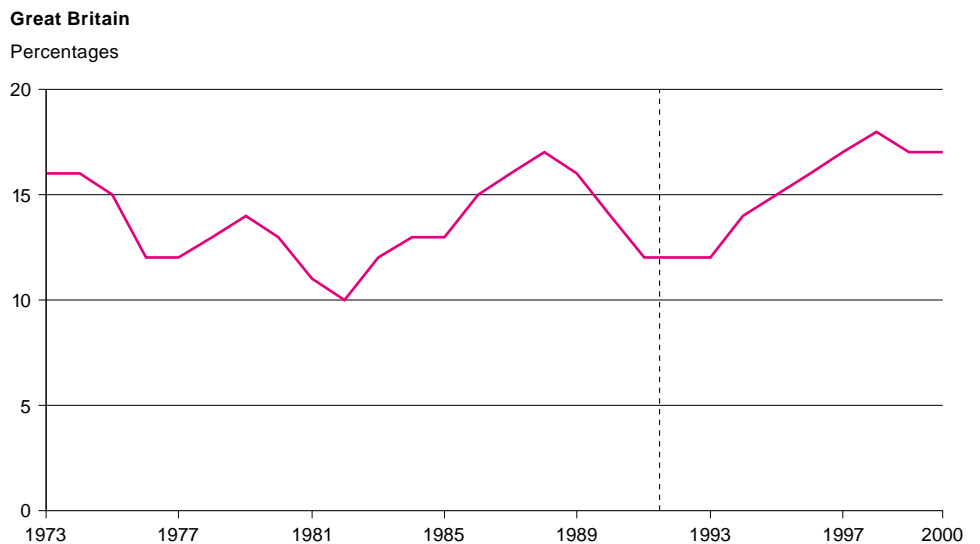
Male part-time employees¹: by occupation

United Kingdom	Percentages		
	1992	1996	2000
Managers and administrators	5	4	5
Professional	7	8	7
Associate professional and technical	5	5	4
Clerical and secretarial	7	9	8
Craft and related	5	4	4
Personal and protective services	17	18	18
Sales	22	22	24
Plant and machine operatives	7	7	7
Other	26	25	23
All occupations ² (=100%)(millions)	0.5	0.8	1.0

*1 Men aged 16 to 64. At Spring each year.
2 Includes those people who did not state their occupation.
Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics*

3.15

Proportion of male full-time employees who started their current job in the previous 12 months¹



*1 General Household Survey data up to 1991; Labour Force Survey data from 1992 onwards.
Source: General Household Survey and Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics*

3.16

Male unemployment rates¹: by age

United Kingdom	Percentages									
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
16-17	15.4	17.7	18.5	18.8	19.2	21.3	19.4	18.1	21.5	20.1
18-24	15.7	19.0	21.1	19.3	17.7	17.2	14.8	13.1	12.6	11.8
25-44	8.0	10.5	10.9	10.2	8.9	8.7	6.9	5.7	5.6	4.8
45-54	6.3	8.4	9.4	8.6	7.5	6.4	6.1	4.7	4.9	4.8
55-59	8.4	11.2	12.3	11.6	10.3	9.8	8.0	6.7	6.4	5.4
60-64	9.9	10.2	14.2	11.6	9.9	8.9	7.6	6.9	6.4	5.8
65 and over	5.9	4.9	4.6	3.7	..	4.0	4.1
All men aged 16 and over	9.2	11.5	12.4	11.4	10.1	9.6	8.1	6.8	6.7	6.1

¹ At Spring each year. Unemployment based on the ILO definition as a percentage of all economically active.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

ILO unemployed - an International Labour Organisation (ILO) recommended measure, used in household surveys such as the Labour Force Survey, which counts as unemployed those aged 16 and over who are without a job, are available to start work in the next two weeks, who have been seeking a job in the last four weeks or are waiting to start a job already obtained.

3.17

Male unemployment rates¹: by ethnic group and level of highest qualification, 1999-00²

United Kingdom	Percentages			
	Above GCE A level or equivalent	At or below GCE A level or equivalent	No qualification	All men aged 16 to 64
White	3	6	14	6
Black	11	17	30	17
Indian	..	10	..	7
Pakistani/Bangladeshi	..	16	21	16
Other ethnic groups	..	17	..	13

¹ Unemployment based on the ILO definition as a percentage of all economically active for men aged 16 to 64.

² Autumn 1999 to Spring 2000.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Unemployment

The number of people unemployed is linked to the economic cycle, albeit with a time lag. Broadly speaking, as the country experiences economic growth so the number of jobs grows and unemployment falls. Any mismatches between the skill needs of the new jobs and the skills of those available for work may slow this process.

Conversely, as the economy slows and goes into recession, so unemployment tends to rise. In Spring 2000 there were just under 1 million men unemployed in the United Kingdom on the ILO definition, the lowest number since the series began in 1984. Claimant unemployment (those claiming unemployment related benefits) in Spring 2001 is at its lowest since 1980 for men and all persons since the mid-seventies.

In Spring 2000 the unemployment rate for men aged 16 and over was 6.1 per cent (Table 3.16). Men had higher unemployment rates than women across all age groups. The length of time that people spend unemployed is linked to age. Young unemployed men are less likely than older men to have been unemployed for a long period. In Spring 2000, around a fifth of unemployed men in their thirties and forties had been unemployed for three years or more and this rose to nearly a quarter among those aged 50 to 64.

The level of qualification a person has is also an important factor when looking at unemployment. Generally, unemployment rates are higher for those with no qualifications (Table 3.17). Unemployment rates are also high for Black men and Pakistani/Bangladeshi men. In 1999-00 the

3.18

unemployment rate for men from the Black group ranged from 30 per cent for those with no qualification to 11 per cent for those with a qualification above GCE A level or equivalent.

Work and the family

The traditional division of family labour allocated fathers the role of primary breadwinner and mothers the care of home and family. This has changed as the representation of women in the UK labour force has increased steadily and the proportion of couples with dependent children in Great Britain where only the man is working has decreased from 43 per cent in 1979 to 24 per cent in 1998-99 (Chart 3.18). This has been offset by the increase in the proportion of couples with dependent children where two people are in employment. For two person families, the employment rates of men with dependent children are very high, particularly for those with young children. For men, the employment rate is higher for those with children than without. And again, unlike the pattern for women, the employment rate for men declines as the age of the child increases. It remains, however, higher than the employment rate for women throughout the age range of the dependent child.

In Spring 2000 men in full-time employment worked an average of 40 hours a week. Men with dependent children tended to work longer hours than men without dependent children. In Spring 2000, a third of men with dependent children usually worked 50 or more hours a week; this compares with just under a quarter of men without dependent children (Chart 3.19).

Couples¹ with dependent children: by number of earners

Great Britain

Percentages



¹ Married and cohabiting couples with men aged 16 to 64 and women 16 to 59. Calendar years up to 1987. Data not available for 1997-98.

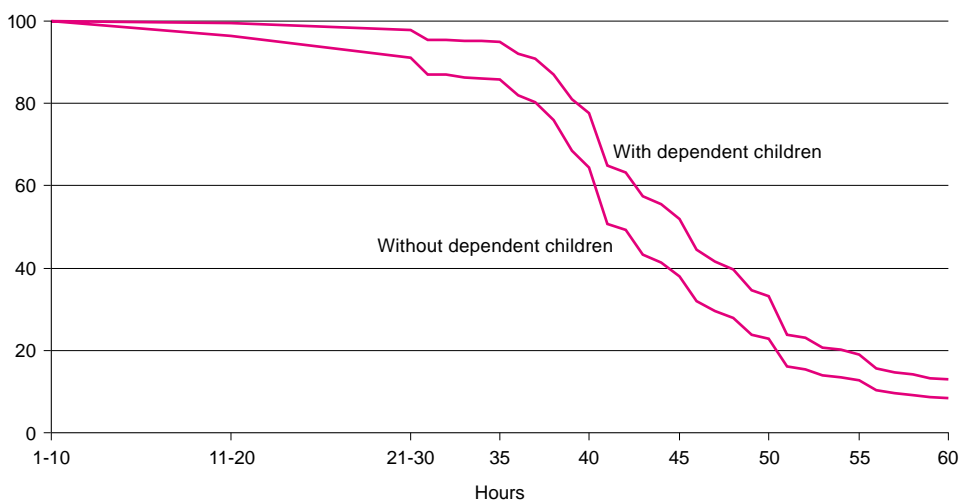
Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

3.19

Cumulative distribution of usual weekly hours of work of men in employment: by whether or not there are dependent children living in the household, Spring 2000

United Kingdom

Percentages



Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

3.20

Employees' use of flexible working time arrangements: by gender, Spring 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages	
	Men	Women
Flexible working hours	8.7	11.1
Annualised hours	3.9	3.9
Four and half day week	2.0	0.8
Term-time working	1.2	7.6
Zero hours contract	0.8	0.8
Nine day fortnight	0.3	0.2
Job share	0.1	1.3
None of these	82.9	74.3
All employees (=100%)(millions)	12.9	11.5

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Overall male employees are less likely than female employees to use flexible working time arrangements. In general, one of the reasons females use more flexible working contracts is because term-time working is included and, as Table 3.20 shows, a greater proportion of women have this working arrangement. Term-time working is mainly used by teachers and, as Chart 3.11 (on page 39), shows that teachers are mainly female.

When men were asked about a series of working practices, for example, annualised hours, flexible working hours, job share and nine day fortnight, 83 per cent of men reported that they worked none of these in comparison with 74 per cent of women (Table 3.19). In Spring 2000, men were more likely than women to work a four and a half day week but in general women were more likely than men to have flexible working hours arrangements.

child's fifth birthday, provided they have at least one year's service and subject to certain conditions about when the leave can be taken.

The Work-Life Balance Survey asked employees about the type of leave they had taken in the last 12 months in 2000. Men and women were equally likely to have taken bereavement leave, but women were far more likely than men to have taken time off to look after children (Table 3.21).

3.21

Proportion of employees' who had taken selected types of leave in the last 12 months: by gender, 2000

Great Britain	Percentages	
	Men	Women
Bereavement leave	14	14
Time off to look after children	12	18
Leave to look after others	10	12
Career breaks	7	6

¹ Aged 15 to 65.

Source: Work-life Balance (Employee) Survey 2000, Department for Education and Employment

According to a Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) study of working parents in Autumn 2000, 85 per cent of those working fathers able to take time off work when their last child was born (after October 1995) had taken some paternity leave.

A new right to parental leave was introduced in 1999. This enables fathers and mothers of children born on or after 15 December 1999 to take up to 13 weeks unpaid leave before the

Men and resources



Changes in resources, measured by income, wealth and expenditure, are often associated with transitions in a man's life. Events such as leaving school, entering and leaving paid employment, getting married or living together, having children, getting divorced and retiring are all associated with changes in income levels.

Men's income

Men's median income is higher than women's, at all ages. In 1998-99 the median gross income for men in Great Britain was £247 per week compared with £119 per week for women. A median measure of income is used in these analyses to avoid the effect of very high and very

low levels of income in the distribution. The low income for women in their thirties and forties, relative to the income of men of the same age, illustrates the impact of family and child rearing responsibilities (see [Chart 4.1](#) overleaf). Among women in their forties, over 30 per cent had gross weekly individual incomes below £100, and fewer than 10 per cent had gross weekly individual incomes of £500 and over. This compares with 15 per cent and 25 per cent respectively for men of the same age. Age, however, does play an important role in determining men's income. The gross income of men generally increases with age, until the mid to late thirties, starting to decline after the age of 50 years and continuing to do so into retirement.

4.1

Median gross and disposable individual income: by gender and age, 1998-99

Great Britain

£ per week



Source: Individual Income Series, Department of Social Security

Any erosion of the male bread-winning role by changing economic circumstances might have implications for sources of income. The Department of Social Security (DSS) uses the mean average measure rather than median average in Table 4.2. In 1998-99, 66 per cent of men's gross weekly individual income came from earnings compared with 61 per cent of women's individual income.

Income is not distributed equally among the population. Table 4.3 shows the percentage of men in each quintile group of the adult gross individual income distribution. Men are under-represented in the bottom quintile groups and over-represented in the top quintile groups of the income distribution. Aside from pensioner couples, men, particularly those in couples, are over-represented in the top two quintile groups. Single men without children tend to be more equally distributed.

There is considerable difference in weekly median individual incomes according to marital status. Compared with women, men's income varies more with marital status. Among men, those who were married had the highest gross weekly individual income in 1998-99 (£293) and those

4.2

Mean gross individual income and sources of income: by type of family, 1998-99

Great Britain

Percentages

	Single adult		Couple			All men ¹
	No children	Pensioner	No children	Children	Pensioner	
Earnings	76	2	69	78	5	66
Self employment	10	1	13	15	4	12
Benefit income	6	53	5	4	41	9
Occupational pensions	2	32	8	1	38	8
Investment	3	10	3	2	10	4
Other	3	2	1	1	1	1
All gross income (=100%) (mean £ per week)	237	168	391	457	225	332

¹ Includes single men with children.

Source: Individual Income Series, Department of Social Security

Quintile groups. One method of analysing income distribution is to rank individuals by a given income measure, and then divide the ranked individuals into groups of equal size. Groups containing 20 per cent of individuals are known as 'quintile groups'. Thus the bottom 'quintile group' represents the 20 per cent of individuals with the lowest incomes. If individuals were equally distributed throughout the income distribution, 20 per cent would be in each quintile group.

4.3

who were widowed had the lowest (£133) (Chart 4.4). Widowers are more likely to be older than non-widowers. Among women, those who were cohabiting had the highest income (£185) whereas those who were married had the lowest (£103). The weekly median gross individual income for married women was around a third of that for married men, while for cohabiting women it was around two-thirds of that for cohabiting men. Analysis of these data by quintile group indicates that married women are over-represented in the bottom two quintile groups, while married men are over-represented at the top of the income distribution.

Analysis of income can be either carried out at an individual level or at the household level. When examining the impact of events involving couples a household measure of income is commonly used. Over the past 20 years there has been an increase in divorce rates. Research indicates that household finances change dramatically following a divorce, especially for women. When a person joins with or leaves a partner, the amount of household income required to maintain the same standard of living for each individual will change. This is the same as saying that the equivalised income of the household or households formed

Equivalisation. In analysing the distribution of income, household disposable income is usually adjusted to take account of the size and composition of the household. This is in recognition of the fact that, for example, to achieve the same standard of living a household of five would require a higher income than would a single person. This process is known as equivalisation.

Distribution of adults within gross individual income quintiles: by type of family, 1998-99

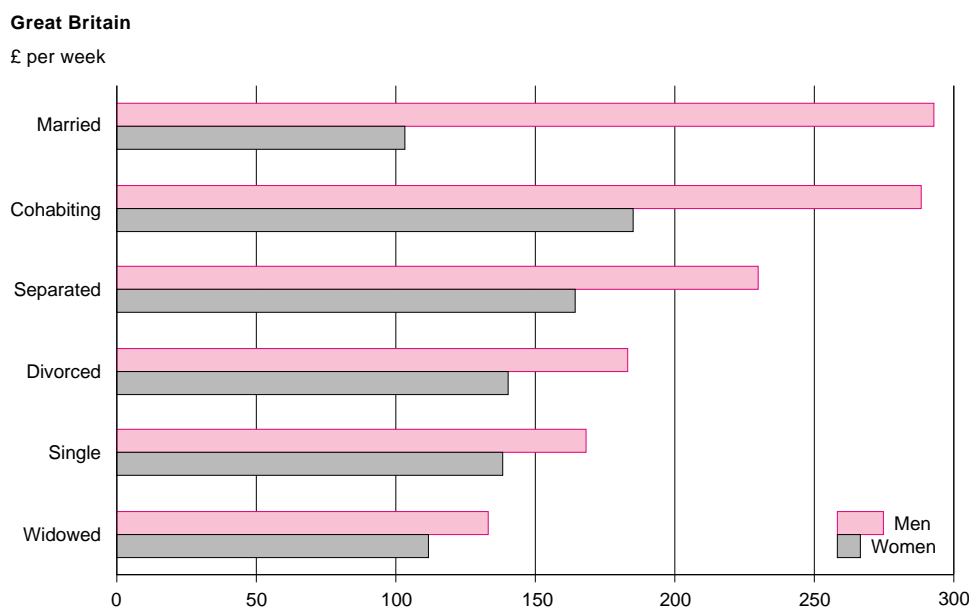
Great Britain		Percentages					
		Bottom fifth	Next fifth	Middle fifth	Next fifth	Top fifth	All
Men							
Single adult							
	No children	24	15	20	23	18	100
	Pensioner	6	48	29	10	7	100
Couple							
	No children	7	8	15	30	39	100
	With children	7	6	12	26	49	100
	Pensioner	4	34	31	20	12	100
All men ¹		12	15	18	25	30	100

¹ Includes single men with children.

Source: Individual Income Series, Department of Social Security

4.4

Median gross individual income: by marital status and gender, 1998-99



4.5

Effects of changes in family composition on household income¹: by gender, 1991 to 1999²

Great Britain	Percentages			
	Income fell 1 or more quintiles	Income stable ³	Income rose 1 or more quintiles	All
Joined with partner				
Men	31	42	27	100
Women	20	34	45	100
Separated from partner				
Men	23	40	36	100
Women	49	31	19	100

¹ Gross equivalised household income has been used for ranking households into quintile groups.

² Changes in living arrangements and income between individual years have been analysed separately and then combined in this table.

³ Income did not change by one quintile.

Source: British Household Panel Survey, Institute for Social and Economic Research

will change. Table 4.5 shows the effects on gross equivalised household income for men and women experiencing family changes.

Over the period 1991 to 1999, more than four in ten women found that their gross equivalised household income rose by at least one quintile when they set up home with a male partner. Men in this situation were more likely than women to see their equivalised household income fall; three in ten men experienced a fall of one or more quintiles. This reflects the higher individual income of men compared to women (see Chart 4.1 on page 46). Consequently, if separation occurs, women are more likely than men to see their gross equivalised household income fall.

Upon divorce, child maintenance from a former partner is an important potential source of income for mothers. However, the Low-income Families in Britain Survey, carried out during 1999, indicates that incidence of maintenance payment is low. The survey, commissioned by the DSS and based on child benefit recipients, indicates that the proportion of lone parents receiving child support

payments from non-resident parents fell from 30 per cent in 1989 to 25 per cent in 1999. The 1999 figure, however, also reflects changes in procedure under the Child Support Agency (CSA) rules whereby a much higher proportion of child support payments are collected directly from non-resident parents and discounted against income support payments to parents with care of children. About four in ten CSA assessments are collected by the Agency. This leaves parents with care uncertain about whether the resident parent is paying or not. On average £54 was paid per week in child support in 1999.

A study by the Social Policy Research Unit at the University of York, based on interviews in 1995-96 with a sample of non-resident fathers identified using Omnibus Surveys from National Opinion Polls and the Office for National Statistics, showed that various factors affect the payment of child maintenance. It was much less likely to be paid if the father was unemployed and if he was under 20 years old when he first became a father. Other factors which were important were if the father did not provide informal support, if he had not made a formal arrangement for paying maintenance and if he had no contact with the mother. Payment was more likely to be paid if the relationship with the mother was described as amicable. In addition, where the mothers were not receiving income support, the chances of their receiving maintenance were increased more than fivefold.

Men's earnings

A variety of factors influence the level of earnings which employees receive, such as work experience, gender, occupation, industry, hours worked, ethnicity, qualifications and region. Among men, young men earn the least and earnings increase with age, generally peaking in

4.6

Average gross weekly earnings¹ of full-time male employees: by age

Great Britain	£ per week ²		
	1986	1990	2000
16-24	252	276	274
25-34	349	386	416
35-44	410	457	492
45-54	398	499	505
55-64	348	351	437
65 and over	..	315	408
All men aged 16 and over	361	393	453

¹ Earnings including overtime, for full-time employees on adult rates, whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

² As at April each year adjusted to April 2000 prices using a deflator based on the retail price index.

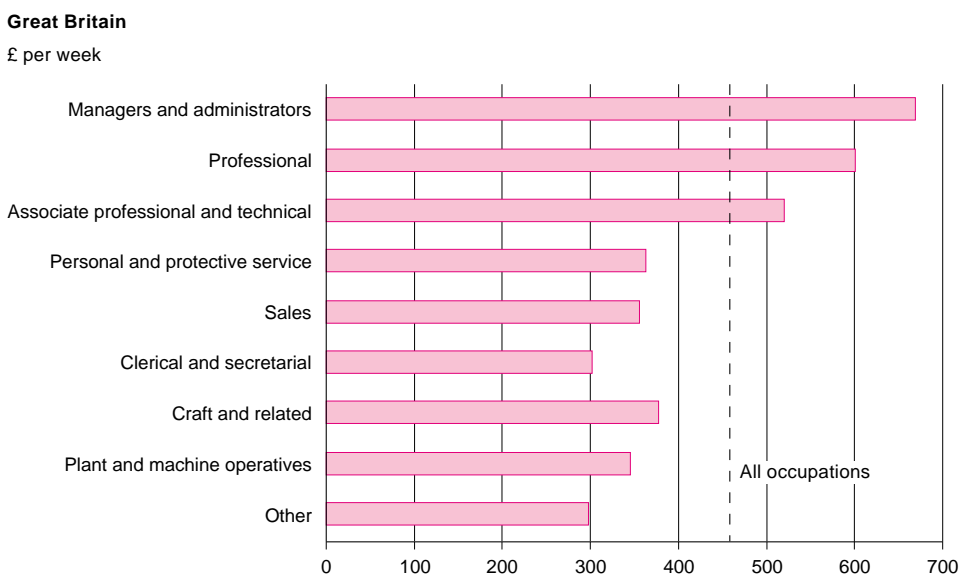
Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

4.7

middle age (Table 4.6). Taking into account inflation, gross weekly earnings of full time male employees increased by a quarter between 1986 and 2000.

Data in Chart 4.7 show the average gross weekly earnings for men in April 2000 by occupation. As can be expected, earnings vary across occupations. Men in managerial occupations earned the highest levels, double the amount earned in the clerical and secretarial occupations. In April 2000, male employees who worked full-time earned just over a third more per week than their female counterparts. Part-time male and female employees earned approximately the same. Women are more likely than men to work part-time and this has implications for overall earnings levels.

Between 1971 and 2000 the hourly earnings of men and women narrowed and this may have been set in motion by the *Equal Pay Act (1970)*, which came into effect at the end of 1975. Changes in the occupational distribution of women and men have also been an important influence. In 1971 the ratio of men's to women's hourly earnings was 1.57 compared with 1.22 in 2000 (Chart 4.8). Factors which raised the hourly rate of pay included employment experience, training and educational attainment. An important aspect of the existing pay gap between men and women is the distinction between weekly and hourly pay. For example, in April 2000, among full-time employees women earned 82 per cent of the average hourly earnings of men, but only earned 75 per cent of men's weekly earnings. The weekly pay gap is wider than the hourly gap because men tend to work longer hours than women. Men are also more likely than women to receive overtime payments, in part because they are more likely to work in occupations where overtime is paid. In addition, the cash value of their payments tends to be higher.

Average gross weekly earnings¹ for full-time male employees: by occupation, April 2000

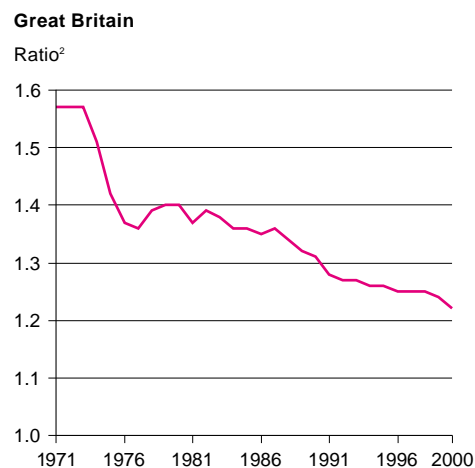
¹ Earnings including overtime, for full-time employees on adult rates, whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

Men and their benefit income

Another source of income is state benefits. Overall, where direct comparison can be made between men and women, the receipt patterns are broadly similar. However there are differences in the detail. In 1999-00 single female pensioners were more likely than single male pensioners to receive income support and/or council tax benefit. However, among single adults with no children, men were twice as likely as women to receive jobseekers allowance (see Table 4.9 overleaf).

4.8

Hourly earnings¹ differentials

¹ Average hourly earnings excluding overtime for adults whose pay for the survey pay period was not affected by absence. Data up to 1983 relate to full-time men aged 21 and over and women aged 18 and over; data for 1984 onwards relate to full-time employees on adult rates.

² Ratio of men's to women's earnings.

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

4.9

Receipt of selected social security benefits: by type of family, 1999-00

Great Britain	Percentages							
	Single adult					Couple		
	Male, no children	Female, no children	With children	Male pensioner	Female pensioner	No children	With children	Pensioner
Housing benefit	10	11	57	29	29	5	8	10
Council tax benefit	11	12	62	35	42	7	11	17
Jobseeker's allowance	9	4	1	.	.	2	3	.
Sick and/or disabled ¹	8	8	8	20	20	16	9	24
Income support	7	8	54	12	24	4	5	6
Retirement pension	.	.	0	97	96	9	0	99
Child benefit	.	.	98	0	0	.	98	1
Family credit/working families tax credit	.	.	19	0	0	.	7	0
Other benefit	1	5	6	0	1	2	2	1
Any benefit	23	23	99	99	99	28	98	100

¹ Includes claimants of at least one incapacity benefit, severe disablement allowance, disability living allowance, disability working allowance, disabled person's tax credit, attendance allowance, industrial injuries disablement benefit, and war disablement benefit.

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department of Social Security

4.10

Contributions to pension schemes by men in full-time employment: by age, 1999-00

Great Britain	Percentages							
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-75	All men 75 and over	aged 16 and over
Employees								
Occupational pension only	16	45	58	61	51	5	0	49
Personal pension only	5	15	15	15	15	5	0	14
Both occupational and personal pension	0	2	3	3	3	0	0	2
Any pension scheme	22	62	77	79	68	10	0	65
No pension scheme	78	38	23	21	32	90	100	35
All employees	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Self-employed								
Personal pension	15	49	58	59	59	15	15	54
No pension scheme	85	51	42	41	41	85	85	46
All self-employed	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department of Social Security

The working families' tax credit (WFTC) was introduced in October 1999, gradually replacing family credit. WFTC was introduced to provide low/middle income working families with extra help, building on the effect of the National Minimum Wage. Part of the reason for the change was to more clearly distinguish a tax credit from an in-work benefit and to reinforce the differences between working and being on benefit.

Men's wealth, savings and debt

Wealth is a distinct concept from income. Income measures the flow of money, for example wages and salaries or from state benefits, towards the individual. Wealth describes the ownership of assets valued at a particular point in time. These assets may provide the owner with a flow of income, for example interest received on a building society account, or they may not, for example, ownership of antiques – unless the assets are sold. Marketable wealth describes the assets people have, which they can sell if they want to. This differs from non-marketable wealth, for example some occupational pensions which cannot be 'cashed in'.

Membership of a pension scheme is sometimes considered an investment for the future and adequate pension provision has important implications for income in retirement. This is of interest given the growing number of elderly people, the trend towards earlier retirement and the increasing reliance on occupational and private pensions. Analysis of the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) (1991-1997), which aimed to examine poverty and retirement, confirmed that retired people are among the poorest in society. Table 4.3 on page 47 shows that they are over-represented in the second from bottom income quintile group in the income distribution.

The pattern of contributions to pension schemes in Great Britain is analysed in Table 4.10. Over a third of male employees, and almost a half of self-employed men, did not pay into a pension at all in 1999-00. Age is a factor in contributing to an occupational or personal pension scheme. Just over one in five 16 to 24 years old employees contributed to either an occupational or personal pension scheme. This proportion rose with age to four in five male employees aged 45 to 54 years. It then declined for men just prior to retirement. This cohort effect in part may be due to the rapid expansion of occupational pension schemes during the 1950s and 1960s, after these men started their working lives.

The DSS Pensioners' Incomes Series indicates that in 1998-99 the net weekly income of single pensioner men (£156) was higher than for single pensioner women (£136) and the main difference occurred in income from occupational pensions. Single men received £50 gross income a week on average from occupational pensions, compared with £31 for single women.

Factors affecting membership of pension schemes include gender, employment status (full/part time) and income. Men are more likely to be members of a pension scheme than women. Full-time workers are more likely than part-time workers to be a member of a pension scheme and those on high incomes are more likely than those on low incomes. In March 2000, the most common reason employees gave for not being in an occupational pension were ineligibility, or satisfaction with other pension/financial arrangements.

Many people do not feel that the level of state pension is sufficient to provide pensioners with a decent standard of living in their retirement. The 1998 British Social Attitudes Survey found that around three-quarters of the people surveyed

Adults holding selected forms of wealth: by type of family, 1999-00

Great Britain	Percentages				
	Single adult		Couple		
	Man	Woman	Man's name	Woman's name	Joint names
Current account	77	72	75	73	14
Other bank/building society account ¹	42	45	45	50	11
Stocks and shares	14	12	26	21	0
Premium bonds	13	14	22	21	0
PEPs ²	7	6	14	12	0
TESSAs ³	6	8	13	14	0
ISAs ⁴	6	6	9	9	0
Post Office account	5	7	4	5	-
Unit trusts	3	3	5	4	0
National Savings bonds	2	4	3	4	0
Save as you earn	1	-	1	1	.
Gilts	-	1	1	1	0
Any form of wealth	86	83	75	75	19

¹ Excluding current accounts, PEPs, TESSAs and ISAs.

² Personal equity plans.

³ Tax exempt special savings accounts.

⁴ Individual savings account.

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department of Social Security

thought that a pensioner couple living on the state pension would be 'really poor' or 'hard up'. When the same people were asked a follow-up question about a married pensioner couple living on £103 per week after rent (the actual level of state pension that a married couple would have received in 1998), a fifth fewer people thought pensioners would be 'really poor' or 'hard up'. There is an age relationship with younger people being more likely than older people to believe that pensioners have enough to live on.

The types of financial accounts and other products held by men and women, both individually and jointly, are shown in Table 4.11. In both single adult and couple families, current accounts were the most commonly held form of account for both men and women in 1999-00, with

4.12

Amount of savings held: by type of family, 1999-00

Great Britain	Percentages				
	Single man		Couple		
	No children	Pensioner	No children	With children	Pensioner
No savings	47	26	19	26	16
Less than £1,500	26	19	21	30	15
£1,500 but less than £3,000	7	9	8	8	7
£3,000 but less than £8,000	10	14	16	15	13
£8,000 but less than £10,000	2	3	4	3	4
£10,000 but less than £16,000	3	6	8	6	9
£16,000 but less than £20,000	1	3	4	2	4
£20,000 or more	5	20	19	9	32
All	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department of Social Security

14 per cent of adults holding a joint account. Women were more likely than men to have other bank and building society accounts in single adult families and also in their own name in couple families. Men were more likely than women to hold stocks and shares, irrespective of family type.

Levels of savings are shown in Table 4.12. The Family Resources Survey gives an indication of the amount of savings held by family type in Great Britain. Almost half of single men with no children had no savings while a further quarter had savings of less than £1,500. People tend to save over the life cycle and a third of pensioner couples had savings of £20,000 or more.

4.13

Men in debt¹: by age and amount, 1995

Great Britain	Percentages						
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	All men 65 and over	aged 16 and over
Less than £100	5	3	3	3	3	1	3
£100 but less than £500	7	12	9	6	7	3	7
£500 but less than £1,500	11	13	12	9	6	2	9
£1,500 but less than £5,000	10	20	17	15	7	2	12
£5,000 or more	2	7	7	6	3	-	4
Any debt	35	55	49	40	27	8	36
No debt	65	45	51	60	73	92	64
All	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Excludes overdrafts, mortgages and housing related loans.

Source: British Household Panel Survey, Institute for Social and Economic Research

Some men, however, do not have any savings and are in debt. The British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) last asked a question on the amount of debt in 1995. Debt is defined as including hire purchase agreements, credit cards (including store cards), personal loans, catalogue or mail order purchase agreements, DSS Social Fund loans and other loans from a private individual. It does not include housing-related costs or overdrafts. Table 4.13 shows that the majority of men in 1995 were not in debt. This did vary with age, however, with over a third of 16 to 24 year olds and more than a half of 25 to 34 year olds being in debt. The likelihood of debt then decreases with age with less than a tenth of pensioners reporting any debt.

Men's spending

One of the hypotheses common to research concerning money and men is that as women enter the labour market in greater numbers they will become less economically dependent on their male partners. This, it is suggested, will alter existing patterns of behaviour within the household which are based on gender roles. Changes will include greater control over money for women. There is some evidence from the BHPS (1991-1995) which suggests that women moving from no employment into part-time employment were more likely to share responsibility for spending money within the family. Conversely, women who moved from either full or part-time employment to no employment were less likely to share such responsibility. However the researchers do point out that other factors may affect this and that five years is a relatively short time span for such analyses.

The main source of information on expenditure is the Family Expenditure Survey. This collects information about the expenditure patterns of households in the United Kingdom, and asks individuals to keep a diary of everything they spend their money on over a two week period. It is difficult to calculate changes in individual men's and women's expenditure as we cannot discern on whose behalf expenditure is made. Hence [Table 4.14](#) illustrates household weekly expenditure of one person households.

Household expenditure of one person households: by type of household, 1999-00

United Kingdom	Percentages				
	Man		Woman		
	Non-retired, no children ¹	Retired ²	Non-retired, no children	Non-retired, with children ¹	Retired ²
Housing	21	20	22	15	18
Motoring and fares	19	15	16	10	7
Leisure goods and services	17	16	14	14	16
Food	13	18	13	21	20
Household goods and services	12	13	16	17	20
Alcohol	7	5	3	2	2
Clothing and footwear	4	2	6	7	5
Fuel, light and power	3	6	3	6	7
Tobacco	2	2	2	3	1
Other goods and services	2	3	5	5	6
All household expenditure (=100%)(£ per week)	250	132	234	207	128

¹ Those who were under 18 years of age and unmarried.

² Retired households are those where the head of household is retired.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

Of those categories shown in the table, retired single women households spent the least (£128 per week) and non-retired, single men households with no children spent the most (£250 per week) in 1999-00. Retired men spent double the proportion on motoring and fares than did retired women. This is likely to be related to both the higher income of retired men as well as their greater likelihood of having a driving licence compared with retired women.

4.15

Weekly expenditure on travel and leisure: by gender, 1999-00

United Kingdom	£ per week	
	Men ¹	Women ¹
Motoring, fares and other travel costs	47.80	36.70
Alcohol and tobacco	22.30	11.00
TV, video, computers and audio ²	10.50	5.60
Clothing and footwear	9.10	14.20
Holidays	5.70	6.30
Books and magazines	3.00	2.80
Sports admissions and subscriptions	2.90	1.20
Gambling	2.70	1.40
Toiletries and beauty products	1.80	5.80
Other leisure	4.30	5.60
All expenditure on travel and leisure	110.10	90.60

¹ Households headed by a single non-retired person aged 16 and over with no children.

² Includes rental.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

The proportion spent on essentials such as housing, food, fuel, light and power are similar for both single male and female, non-retired households without children. Further analysis indicates some gender differences in spending however. These single men spent more on average than single women generally: £250 per week compared with £234. Within this, men spent more than women on motoring, fares and other travel costs and they spent almost double the amount on TV, video, computers and audio equipment and gambling. Women spent more than men on both clothing and footwear, and toiletries and beauty products. There was little difference between men and women in the amount of household spending on books and magazines (Table 4.15).

Income, wealth and expenditure are useful indicators of both individual and societal changes. On an individual level, men earn more than women both overall and on an hourly basis. Hence men tend to dominate the top quintile groups in the income distribution. The majority of men are not in debt although this varies with age and the likelihood of being in debt decreases as men get older. On a household level, men's equivalised income declines when couples join and rise when couples separate.

Men and health



In recent years, there has been growing awareness of men's health issues. Some health problems, such as prostate cancer, are relevant only to men, while many others affect men more than women. Men have lower life expectancies than women; mortality rates are higher among men; and men are more likely to commit suicide, suffer from coronary heart disease, have a major accident, or drink too much alcohol.

Mortality and morbidity

Males in Great Britain had an expectation of life at birth in 1998 of just under 75 years, while life expectancy for females was five years higher, at just under 80. This gap is around the same size as it was immediately after the Second World War, although it did rise to over six years in the 1960s.

Since the 1960s the gap between males and females in the expectation of life at age 65 has also narrowed, and in 1998 was around 15.2 years for men compared with 18.5 years for women. Although the absolute gap between the genders at age 65 is smaller than the gap at birth, the proportional gap is, of course, much wider.

Inequality in life expectancy between social classes has widened over the last 20 years. Life expectancy at birth for all men in England and Wales rose by nearly five years between 1972-1976 and 1992-1996 (see [Table 5.1](#) overleaf). The rise for men in social class I, the 'professional' class, was above this, at almost six years, while the rise for men in social class V, 'unskilled manual', was less than two years. By 1992-1996 the gap between the professional and unskilled manual classes was almost 10 years.

5.1

Life expectancy of men: by social class

England & Wales	Years				
	1972-76	1977-81	1982-86	1987-91	1992-96
At birth					
Professional	72.0	74.7	75.1	76.7	77.7
Employers and managers	71.7	72.4	73.8	74.4	75.8
Intermediate and junior non-manual	69.5	70.8	72.2	73.5	75.0
Skilled manual	69.8	70.0	71.4	72.4	73.5
Semi-skilled manual	68.4	68.8	70.6	70.4	72.6
Unskilled manual	66.5	67.0	67.7	67.9	68.2
All men at birth	69.2	70.0	71.4	72.3	73.9
At age 65					
Professional	14.2	15.5	15.4	15.8	16.8
Employers and managers	13.3	14.2	14.4	14.8	15.5
Intermediate and junior non-manual	12.6	13.3	13.6	14.1	15.1
Skilled manual	12.2	12.6	13.0	13.4	14.2
Semi-skilled manual	12.3	12.1	12.6	12.7	13.8
Unskilled manual	11.6	11.9	11.7	11.8	12.6
All men at age 65	12.3	12.7	13.1	13.5	14.6

Source: Longitudinal Study, Office for National Statistics

For men still alive at the age of 65, the increase in life expectancy was much greater between 1972-1976 and 1992-1996 than it was for men born in those years. The increase in life expectancy for men, irrespective of social class, was 19 per cent, indicating that over this 20 year period risks to older men have declined compared with risks to younger men. The difference in life expectancy at age 65 between social classes I and V rose from around three years to four years between 1972-1976 and 1992-1996.

Over the last 30 years death rates in the United Kingdom have fallen among most age groups (Table 5.2). The exceptions are men in the 16 to 24 and 25 to 34 age groups, for whom the death rates in 1999 were virtually the same as in 1971. The death rate for men of all ages fell by 33 per cent between 1971 and 1999; the greatest decline was among men aged between 45 and 64.

5.2

Death rates¹ among men: by age

United Kingdom	Rates per 1,000 men							
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75 and over	All men aged 16 and over ²
1971	1.0	1.0	2.4	7.2	20.4	51.1	131.4	16.6
1976	1.0	1.0	2.2	7.2	20.0	50.9	135.8	16.7
1981	0.9	0.9	1.9	6.3	18.1	46.4	122.1	15.0
1986	0.8	0.9	1.7	5.5	17.0	43.5	117.2	14.2
1991	0.9	0.9	1.8	4.7	14.2	38.7	110.5	12.8
1996	0.8	1.0	1.7	4.2	12.4	35.4	106.8	12.0
1999	0.8	1.0	1.6	4.1	11.2	32.2	101.9	11.2

¹ Data are based on deaths registered in each year.

² Age-standardised to the European population.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

The most common cause of death among men in the United Kingdom is circulatory disease, which includes heart disease and stroke (Table 5.3). Diseases of the circulatory system were the cause of two-fifths of deaths among men in 1999. The next biggest killer of men is malignant neoplasms, or cancers. More than a quarter of men who died in 1999 did so as a result of a cancer of some sort, and 3 per cent of all deaths among men were as a result of cancer of the prostate. Among younger men, cancer kills more men than circulatory diseases, as few younger men suffer from coronary heart disease. The proportion of deaths among men that were caused by diseases of the circulatory system fell between 1989 and 1999, particularly for men aged between 35 and 54: 31 per cent of male deaths in this age group

were caused by circulatory diseases in 1999, compared with 40 per cent in 1989. The proportion of deaths among men of all ages that were caused by respiratory diseases rose slightly over the same period, from 12 per cent to 16 per cent. For malignant neoplasms, the proportion of deaths was the same in 1999 as it had been ten years earlier.

The proportions of deaths of men and women caused by circulatory disease and cancer are similar. However, the age breakdown reveals interesting differences. Whereas for men circulatory diseases are the most likely cause of death from age 35 onwards, for women cancer is the most likely killer between the ages of 35 and 74. Cancer is the cause of around half of all deaths among women aged between 35 and 54. For both men and women, respiratory diseases are the cause of around a fifth of deaths of those aged 75 and over.

There are large gender differences in age-specific death rates at young ages: in 1999 there were more than twice as many deaths among 16 to 34 year old men as among women of the same age. In particular, death rates from accidents and suicides are much higher among young men than young women. Among men aged between 16 and 24, 35 per cent of deaths were from accidents, compared with 24 per cent of deaths among women of the same age, suggesting perhaps that men engage in more risky activities than women, or behave in a riskier way. (Table 5.12 on page 62 of this chapter shows that men are also more likely than women to be involved in a major accident.)

A particular cause of death among men which is of concern is suicide. In 1999 suicide was the cause for around a quarter of deaths among men aged between 16 and 34 in the United Kingdom (Table 5.3). There is an increasing gender difference in suicide rates. In 1999 men aged 15 and over were three times as likely to have committed suicide as women. This gap has widened considerably since 1971, when around one and half times more men than women committed suicide.

5.3

Main causes of death among men: by age, 1999

United Kingdom	Percentages					
	16-24	25-34	35-54	55-74	75 and over	All men aged 16 and over
Circulatory system	3	8	31	41	42	40
Malignant neoplasms	8	9	27	35	22	26
Respiratory system	3	3	5	12	22	16
External causes, of which:	62	53	16	2	1	4
accidents	35	24	7	1	1	2
suicides and 'open verdicts'	25	27	8	1	-	2
Digestive system	1	4	10	4	3	4
Mental disorder	10	10	3	1	2	2
Nervous system	5	4	3	1	2	2
Infectious diseases	2	2	2	1	1	1
Other causes	7	7	4	3	6	5
All deaths (=100%)(thousands)	2.5	4.5	22.8	107.1	160.0	296.9

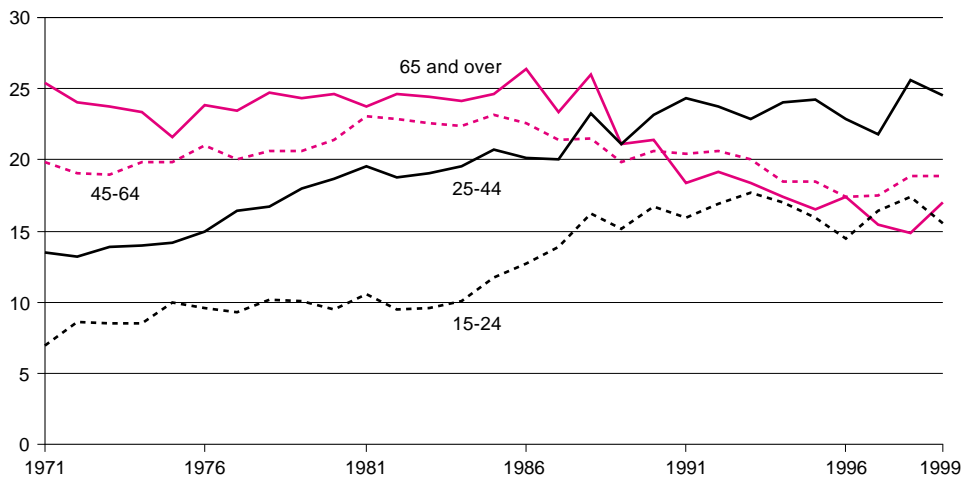
Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

5.4

Death rates from suicide¹ among men: by age

United Kingdom

Rates per 100,000 men



¹ Data are based on suicides registered in each year. Includes deaths undetermined whether accidentally or purposely inflicted, and open verdicts in England and Wales only.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

One notable trend has been the rise in suicide rates among younger men. For men aged 15 to 24, there were 16 suicides per 100,000 population in 1999, compared with a rate of only seven per 100,000 in 1971 (Chart 5.4). The suicide rate for men aged 25 to 44 almost doubled over the same period, to reach a peak of almost 26 per 100,000 population in 1998. In contrast, the suicide rate for males older than this peaked in the mid-1980s and has fallen since, although the suicide rate for men aged 65 and over rose again between 1998 and 1999.

There are also very large differences in male suicide rates by marital status. In 1995 the suicide rate for widowed and divorced men aged 15 to 44 was 35 per 100,000 population, more than double the rate for married men. The rate for single men has risen markedly since 1983, from 15 per 100,000 population to 22 per 100,000 population in 1995.

Despite men's higher death rates and lower life expectancy, they are more likely than women to perceive themselves to have good health. In 1998-99, 62 per cent of men in Great Britain

reported themselves to have a 'good' state of general health over the previous 12 months, compared with 57 per cent of women. In addition, two-fifths of both men and women reported a longstanding illness. One characteristic which is linked to men's self-reported health is marital status. Less than half of men who were separated, widowed or divorced reported 'good' general health, compared with more than two-thirds of men who were married or cohabiting (Table 5.5). An even higher proportion of single men reported 'good' general health. However, this can be accounted for by the fact that a higher proportion of single men than those in the other marital statuses fall into the younger age categories. After standardising to account for the effect of the age structure of the population, men who were married or cohabiting were the most likely to report 'good' general health. In 1998-99, 654 per 1,000 married or cohabiting men said that their health had been 'good' over the last year, compared with 582 per 1,000 men who had been married but were separated, widowed or divorced, and 599 per 1,000 men who were single. Analysis of the General Household Survey (GHS) indicates that the presence or absence of dependent children had no altering impact on the self-reported health of men aged between 16 and 59.

One in four deaths in men is from cancer, while one in three men develop a cancer at some stage in their lives. Cancers occur predominantly in older people: among men, under 3 per cent of cases occur in those aged under 40, while 81 per cent occur in men aged 60 and over. Between 1981 and 1994 the incidence of cancer among men rose by 8 per cent to peak at 518 cases per 100,000 men aged 15 and over, but it has fallen since then to 497 cases per 100,000. (Incidence is defined as the rate at which new cases occur in the population.) Improved awareness may have contributed to the rise over the 1980s and early 1990s. Since 1981 the incidence of the most common cancer for men, lung cancer, has fallen

5.5

Men's self-assessed good general health¹: by age and marital status, 1998-99

Great Britain	Percentages		
	Married/ Single cohabiting	Separated/ widowed/ divorced	..
16-24	79	79	..
25-34	70	74	..
35-44	68	72	60
45-54	55	63	57
55-64	43	54	48
65-74	39	49	43
75 and over	..	36	32
All men aged 16 and over	70	62	48

¹ Men reporting good general health in the last 12 months.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

5.6

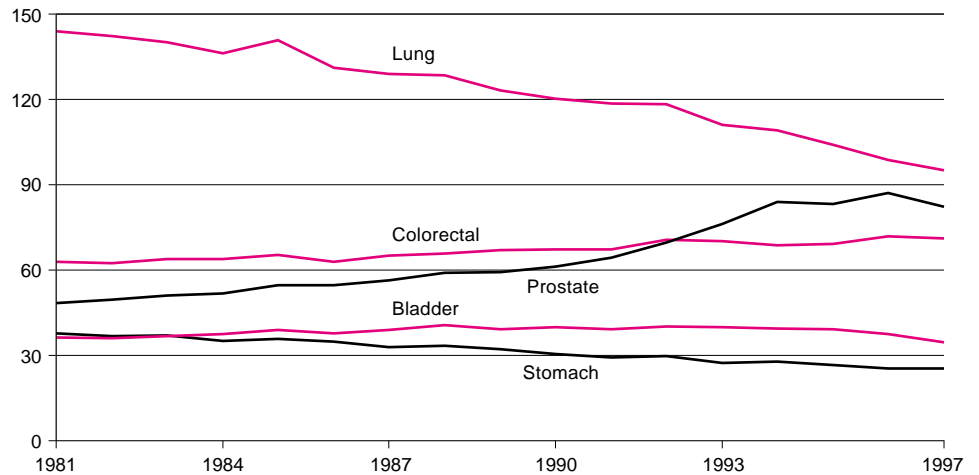
dramatically, from 144 cases per 100,000 male population to 95 per 100,000 in 1997 (Chart 5.6). This has mainly been as a result of the decline in smoking, information on which is given in Chart 5.13 on page 62.

Prostate cancer is the second most common cancer among men. Chart 5.6 shows that, after standardising to account for the effect of the age structure of the population, in 1981 there were 48 cases of prostate cancer per 100 thousand men in Great Britain, but by 1997 this had risen to 82. Prostate cancer occurs predominantly among older men: incidence rates are very low below the age of 45 (less than 0.5 cases per 100,000 men), but then rise steeply and continuously with age. In 1997 there were more than 700 cases of prostate cancer per 100,000 men aged 75 and over (Table 5.7). There is currently no formal screening programme for prostate cancer. However, the Department of Health (DH) is currently piloting a prostate cancer risk management programme for England, which will include the first standardised testing in this country for prostate cancer.

In contrast to prostate cancer, the other male-specific cancer shown in Table 5.7, cancer of the testis, mainly occurs among younger men. Although the overall incidence of cancer of the testis was much lower than for prostate cancer, those aged between 25 and 34 were most likely to suffer from this disease. Since 1971 the incidence of cancer of the testis has risen for men aged between 20 and 59, but it has not increased for older men. However, data on survival after diagnosis of this cancer clearly illustrate that more men are now living for at least five years after being diagnosed with cancer of the testis. Almost 94 per cent of men diagnosed in 1991-1993 were still alive five years after diagnosis, compared with 69 per cent of men diagnosed in 1971-1974. Survival from this disease is now the highest of any cancer in men.

Standardised incidence rates¹ of selected cancers among men

Great Britain

Rates per 100,000 men²

¹ Age-standardised to the European population.

² Aged 15 and over.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Coronary heart disease is much more common among men than women. According to data from the General Practice Research Database (GPRD), among men aged 35 and over there were 79 cases of treated coronary heart disease (CHD) per 1,000 male patients in 1998 (see Chart 5.8 overleaf). Prevalence of treated CHD increases dramatically with age: there were five cases per thousand patients among men aged 35 to 44 in 1998, compared with 229 cases for men aged 75 and over. Heart disease is an illness that is strongly associated with deprivation. For men in all age groups between 35 and 74, the more deprived the area in which they lived, the more likely they were to develop coronary heart disease. In the 45 to 54 age group, 21 per 1,000 male patients from the least deprived areas were treated for heart disease, compared with 39 per 1,000 patients in the most deprived areas. For men aged 75 and over, the relative deprivation of the area has no effect on the prevalence of treated coronary heart disease.

5.7

Incidence rates for selected cancers among men: by age, 1997

Great Britain	Rates per 100,000 men		
	Prostate	Testis	Lung
15-24	0.1	5.8	0.1
25-34	0.1	13.4	0.4
35-44	0.3	12.1	5.2
45-54	9.6	5.1	35.8
55-64	92.2	3.1	145.9
65-74	337.9	1.4	398.8
75 and over	726.6	2.0	626.0
All men aged 15 and over	94.0	7.4	105.4

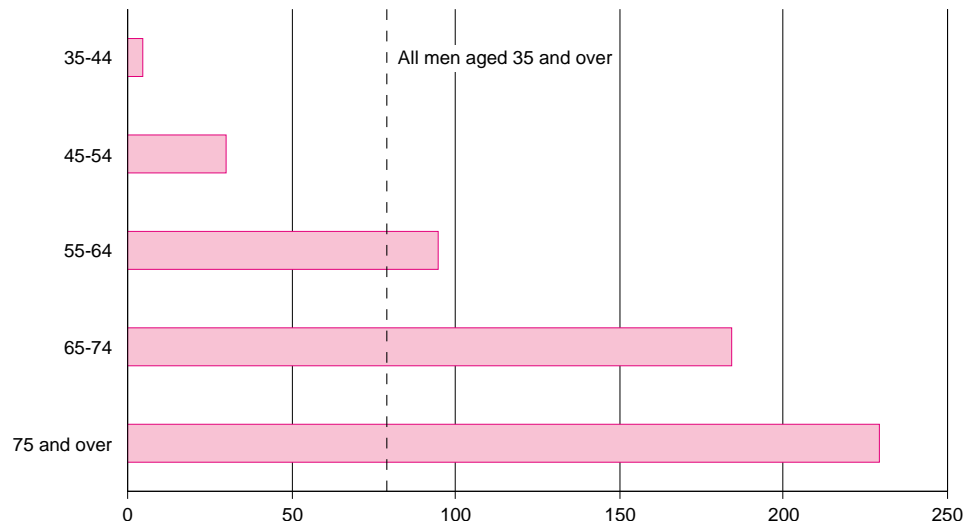
Source: Office for National Statistics

5.8

Prevalence of treated coronary heart disease among men: by age, 1998

England & Wales

Rates per 1,000 male patients



Source: Office for National Statistics, from Medicines Control Agency data

Obesity, high cholesterol levels, smoking, alcohol consumption, physical inactivity and high blood pressure are all related to coronary heart disease. In 1999, more than three-fifths of men in England who did not have cardiovascular disease were either overweight or obese, compared with seven in ten of those who did have heart disease.

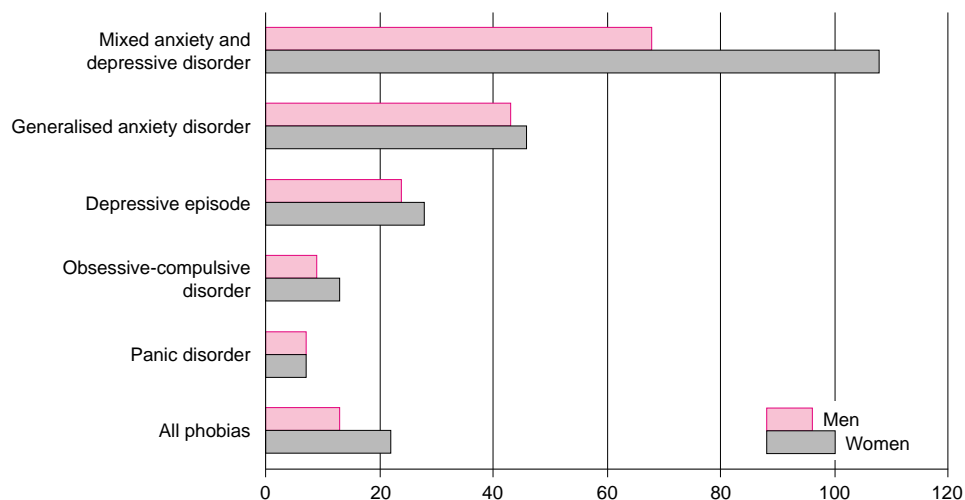
As well as highlighting cancer and coronary heart disease as areas for concern in the realm of public health, the Government's NHS Plan for England, published in July 2000, also emphasised the importance of mental health. Despite the fact that more men commit suicide than women, men's mental health in general is much better. The Psychiatric Morbidity Survey of adults living in private households carried out in Great Britain by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) measured a range of mental disorders and symptoms, and of these the most common were neurotic disorders, such as anxiety, depression and phobias. In 2000, 135 men per 1,000 were assessed as having some kind of neurotic disorder; for women the rate was much higher, at 194 per 1,000. In particular, men had significantly lower rates of phobias and mixed anxiety and depressive disorder: 68 men per 1,000 were diagnosed with this illness while the rate for women was much higher, at 108 per 1,000 (Chart 5.9). Treatment by a GP for depression has risen over the last few years, particularly among younger men, perhaps indicating growing awareness and acceptance of mental illness. According to GPRD data, almost 16 men aged between 16 and 24 per 1,000 patients were treated for depression in 1998 in England and Wales, almost double the rate in 1994.

5.9

Prevalence of neurotic disorders¹: by gender, 2000

Great Britain

Rates per 1,000 population



¹ In the week before interview. Some people may appear in more than one category.

Source: Psychiatric Morbidity Survey, Office for National Statistics

Reports of some sexually transmitted infections (STIs) rose over the latter part of the 1990s. The rise is due in part to increased testing, but there may also have been an increase in unsafe sex in recent years. Between 1995 and 1999, the number of new reports of genital chlamydia infection among men in the United Kingdom rose

5.10

by 73 per cent (Chart 5.10). Knowledge and awareness of some STIs is still very low. Almost half of the new episodes of chlamydia in 1999 were among men aged between 16 and 24; and yet in 1998, according to the National Statistics Omnibus Survey, 89 per cent of men in that age group in Great Britain had not even heard of the disease or did not know what it was. There is, of course, a risk of transmitting chlamydia to women, and this is particularly important because women can develop serious reproductive complications – including infertility – as a result.

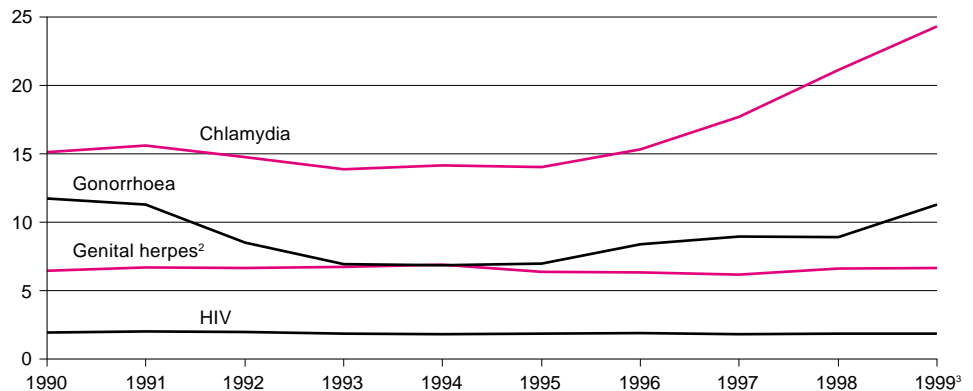
By the end of the 1990s the number of new reports of the human immuno-deficiency virus (HIV) rose to a record level. However, for men there was little change over the 1990s in the number of new diagnoses of sexually acquired infection per year: 1,945 cases were diagnosed in men in 1990, and in 1999 there were 1,857 diagnoses. Patterns of infection, however, have changed. In 1990, 13 per cent of new sexually acquired HIV cases among men were transmitted via heterosexual sex; by 1999 this had risen to 31 per cent.

A measure of dental health is possessing 18 or more sound and untreated teeth and, not surprisingly, data show that fewer men in the higher age groups meet this criterion (Chart 5.11). Improvements in dental care and dental health over the last decade have impacted mainly on younger men. Between 1988 and 1998 the proportion of men in the United Kingdom who had 18 or more sound and untreated teeth rose from 81 per cent to 94 per cent for the 16 to 24 age group, and from 43 per cent to 68 per cent for men aged between 25 and 34. The equivalent proportion of men aged between 45 and 54 changed very little between 1988 and 1998, and the proportion for men in the 55 and over age group fell from 10 per cent to 6 per cent over the same period. It should be noted that during this same ten year period, the proportion of people aged 55 and over who retained some of their

Men with sexually transmitted infections¹

United Kingdom

Thousands



¹ New cases in the year diagnosed at genito-urinary clinics.

² First attack only.

³ Cases diagnosed in 1999 and reported by the end of that year; sexually acquired infections only. The number is likely to rise as further reports of diagnoses made in 1999 are received. In the past about three-quarters of new diagnoses of HIV infections have been reported within the year in which the diagnosis was made.

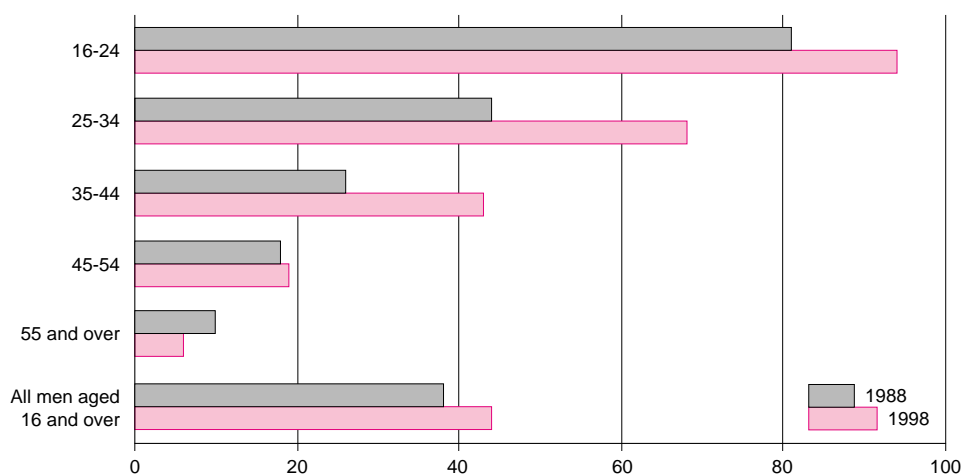
Source: Public Health Laboratory Service; Information and Statistics Division, NHS in Scotland; Scottish Centre for Infection and Environmental Health; Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety, Northern Ireland

5.11

Percentage of dentate men¹ with 18 or more sound and untreated teeth: by age, 1988 and 1998

United Kingdom

Percentages



¹ Men with one or more natural teeth.

Source: Adult Dental Health Survey, Office for National Statistics

5.12

Annual major accident¹ rates: by selected type of accident and gender, 1999

England	Rates per 100 population	
	Men	Women
At work ²	10	3
Falls ³	8	9
Sporting	4	2
Caused by a tool or other implement	4	1
Involving a moving vehicle	3	2
Any major accident	19	15

¹ Non-fatal accidents which caused the person to consult a doctor or go to a hospital.

² Per 100 men/women in work.

³ Excludes falls while playing sports or exercising.

Source: Health Survey for England, Department of Health

natural teeth increased dramatically, for example from 69 per cent to 82 per cent among men aged 55 to 64.

Another condition that mainly affects older people is poor hearing. In 1998-99, 20 per cent of men in Great Britain interviewed in the GHS reported difficulty with hearing, compared with 13 per cent of women. There is a clear relationship with age – 53 per cent of men aged 75 and over reported some difficulty, compared with 7 per cent of men aged 16 to 44.

It is not just through a variety of diseases and other illnesses that men have a higher tendency than women to suffer poor health. They are also more likely to be involved in major accidents. In Table 5.12 major accidents are defined as non-fatal accidents which caused the person to consult a doctor or go to a hospital. Data from the 1999 Health Survey for England show that men are at greater risk than women of having a major accident involving sport, a moving vehicle, tools/ implements or work. There is a particularly large gender difference for work accidents – in 1999 there were 10 major accidents per 100 men in work in England, compared with a rate of just three per 100 women in work.

This fall has been faster among men than women. Between 1974 and 1998-99, the proportion of men in Great Britain who were cigarette smokers fell by almost half, from 51 per cent to 28 per cent (Chart 5.13), while the proportion of women who were cigarette smokers fell from 41 per cent to 26 per cent over the same period.

Smoking among men is more common in the younger than in the older age groups. In 1998-99, 36 per cent of 16 to 24 year old men and 37 per cent of those aged between 25 and 34 were regular cigarette smokers. The proportions fell with age from the 20 to 24 age group onwards, so that 17 per cent of men aged between 65 and 74 and 8 per cent of older men were regular cigarette smokers. Smokers tend to die younger than non-smokers, and a higher proportion of older men have quit smoking. In 1998-99, 54 per cent of men aged 60 and over said that they were ex-regular cigarette smokers, compared with 31 per cent of all men aged 16 and over. In 1999-00 in England, 5,429 men set a quit date through smoking cessation services in Health Action Zones, and of these, 41 per cent had successfully given up smoking at the four week follow-up.

The consumption of alcohol in excessive amounts can also lead to ill health, and an increased likelihood of problems such as high blood pressure, cancer and cirrhosis of the liver. The current Department of Health advice on alcohol is that consumption of between three and four units a day for men (and two to three units a day for women) will not accrue significant health risks, but consistently drinking more than four units a day for men (more than three units for women) is not advised because of the progressive health risks.

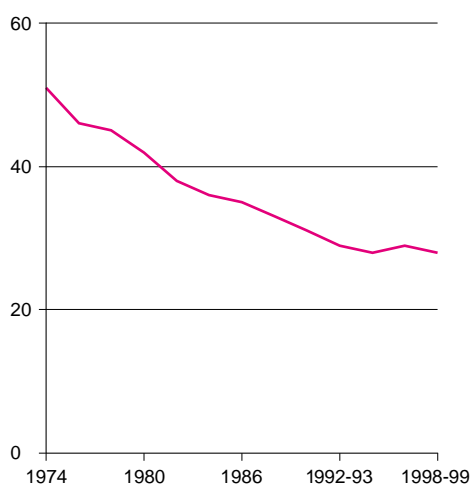
In 1998-99, around two-fifths of men in the United Kingdom had exceeded the recommended amount of alcohol on their heaviest drinking day in the week prior to being interviewed (Table 5.14).

5.13

Prevalence of cigarette smoking among men

Great Britain

Percentages



Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

Health-related behaviour

Smoking causes the deaths of around 80 thousand men each year in the United Kingdom, through diseases such as lung cancer, chronic obstructive lung disease and ischaemic heart disease. Historically, men have been more likely to smoke than women. This has resulted in the higher rates of death among men than women from lung cancer. However, as illustrated in Chart 5.6 on page 59, the incidence of lung cancer among men has fallen and this is thought to be largely due to the decline in smoking among men.

5.14

This was almost double the proportion for women (although the recommended amount of alcohol is less for women than it is for men). The proportions for 16 to 24 year olds were much higher, with half of men in this age group having consumed more than four units. Slightly fewer men in the 16 to 24 age group drank than men aged between 25 and 64 in 1998-99, but when these younger men did drink, they tended to drink larger amounts, thereby engaging in risky behaviour. While 11 per cent of young men told the GHS that they never or only occasionally had a drink, only 7 per cent of men aged between 35 and 54 said the same.

Percentage of adults drinking over specified levels of alcohol¹: by gender and age, 1998-99

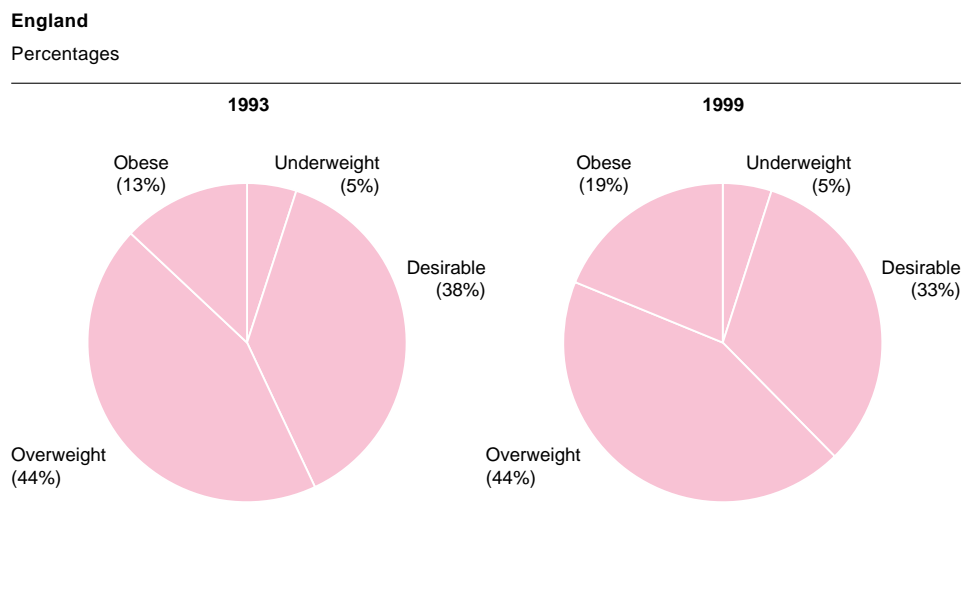
United Kingdom	Percentages				
	16-24	25-44	45-64	65 and over	All aged 16 and over
Men					
More than 4 units and up to 8 units	13	18	20	12	17
More than 8 units	37	28	17	4	21
Women					
More than 3 units and up to 6 units	18	17	12	3	13
More than 6 units	23	11	4	1	8

¹ On the heaviest drinking day in the week before interview.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Continuous Household Survey, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Obesity, a major risk factor for cardiovascular disease, diabetes, hypertension and premature death is increasing in the industrialised countries and is rapidly increasing worldwide. A widely accepted measure of obesity is body mass index (BMI), a measurement which allows for differences in weight due to height, in accordance with the World Health Organisation International Standards for the classification of obesity in adults. The BMI is calculated as weight (kg)/height (m)²; underweight is defined as a BMI of 20 or less, desirable is 20 to 25, overweight is 25 to 30 and obese is over 30. Between 1993 and 1999 the proportion of men in England who were classified as being of desirable weight fell (Chart 5.15), and in 1999 six in ten men were either overweight or obese. The problem was even more marked for men aged 45 and over, of whom more than seven in ten were overweight or obese. Virtually all of the increase for all men between 1993 and 1999 was contained in the 'obese' category. In 1999 there were also large differences in obesity patterns for minority ethnic groups - Chinese and Bangladeshi men were far less likely to be obese than men in any other minority ethnic group, or than men in the general population.

Body mass among men, 1993 and 1999



Source: Health Survey for England, Department of Health

5.15

5.16

Men's diets: by age, 1998

England	Percentages		
	High fat intake ¹	High fibre intake ²	Adds salt without tasting food
16-24	38	7	34
25-34	24	13	31
35-44	24	13	36
45-54	23	17	34
55-64	22	17	36
65-74	27	23	36
75 and over	28	24	39
All men aged 16 and over	26	16	35

¹ Equivalent to 122 grams or more per day.
² Equivalent to 30 grams or more per day.

Source: Health Survey for England, Department of Health

Poor diets and sedentary lifestyles have been shown to be the main causes in the development of obesity. A diet which is rich in wholegrain cereals and fruit and vegetables and low in salt and saturated and total fat has been shown to be strongly linked with a reduced chance of suffering from cardiovascular disease and high cholesterol and also, in the case of fruit and vegetables, cancer. Table 5.16 shows selected aspects of men's diets, and it is clear that on average younger men eat less healthily than those who are older. In 1998, 38 per cent of men aged between 16 and 24 had a high fat intake, compared with 22 per cent of men aged between 55 and 64; in comparison, only 16 per cent of women aged 16 to 24 had a high fat intake. More men than women actually consume a high amount of fibre, but again, younger men seem considerably less healthy than their older counterparts in this respect.

Physical activity is another key determinant of good health, particularly because of the effect it has in reducing the chances of contracting coronary heart disease, stroke, diabetes and osteoporosis. Comparing men with women, the story is somewhat different from the one for diet. In 1998, more than four-fifths of men in England had taken part in at least moderate physical activity (defined as activities with an energy cost of at least 5 kcal/min but less than 7.5 kcal/min) in the four weeks prior to being interviewed. (Table 5.17). This was only slightly above the figure for women. However, almost a third of men had taken part in vigorous physical activity (activities with an energy cost of at least 7.5 kcal/min), compared with only a fifth of women. Two-thirds of men in the 16 to 24 age group said that they had taken part in vigorous physical activity, and although just 2 per cent in the 75 and over age group did so, only a quarter had been inactive (activities with an energy cost of less than 2 kcal/min).

In 1999 people from different minority ethnic groups were asked to record their activities. In the general population, 38 per cent of men had participated in sports and exercise (excluding walking), at a moderate level or above. The highest participation rate was for Black Caribbean men (47 per cent) while the lowest was for Bangladeshi men (24 per cent).

The number of recent sexual partners influences the likelihood of contracting a sexually transmitted infection (STI). Results from a module of the National Statistics Omnibus Survey, run over four months between June 1998 and February 1999, show that there is a clear gender variation in the number of sexual partners for men and women in the previous year. Among those aged between 16 and 24, 35 per cent of men in Great Britain had had two or more sexual partners compared with

5.17

Maximum intensity level attained in physical activity by men¹: by age, 1998

England	Percentages				
	Inactive ²	Light ³	Moderate ⁴	Vigorous ⁵	All
16-24	2	5	26	67	100
25-34	2	5	41	52	100
35-44	2	9	51	37	100
45-54	5	13	58	25	100
55-64	10	19	59	13	100
65-74	13	17	64	6	100
75 and over	25	27	46	2	100
All men aged 16 and over	7	12	49	32	100

¹ In the four weeks before interview.

² Activities with an energy cost of less than 2 kcal/min.

³ Activities with an energy cost of at least 2 kcal/min but less than 5 kcal/min.

⁴ Activities with an energy cost of at least 5 kcal/min but less than 7.5 kcal/min.

⁵ Activities with an energy cost of at least 7.5 kcal/min.

Source: Health Survey for England, Department of Health

5.18

25 per cent of women (Table 5.18). The older men got, the less likely they were to have had multiple sexual partners in the previous year.

Consistent condom use helps prevent the acquisition and transmission of sexually transmitted infection. Younger men were more likely to have used a condom than older men (although this is probably due in part to the fact that younger men have more sexual partners). Six in ten 16 to 24 year old men reported having used a condom in the previous year, compared with over a third of men aged between 35 and 44 and a quarter of men aged between 45 and 54. However, the data on STIs contained in Chart 5.10 do suggest that unsafe sex has been increasing since the mid-1990s, and it is younger men who are the most likely to contract such illnesses.

Evidence from the British Crime Survey of 1998 shows that drug use decreases with age. More than a third of men aged between 16 and 24 in England and Wales reported having used an illicit drug of some sort in the past 12 months, compared with a fifth of those aged 25 to 34 and less than a tenth of those aged between 35 and 44 (Table 5.19). Cannabis is clearly more commonly used than any other prohibited drug: it was used by just under a third of men aged 16 to 24. The next most popular substance was amphetamines, especially for younger men. In 1999 the ONS carried out a survey of drug use among young teenagers in England, which found that 13 per cent of 11 to 15 year old boys had used drugs in the past year. It also found a link between drug use and low self-esteem – for example, boys who were expecting to take GCSEs and do badly were more likely to have used drugs than boys who were expecting to sit exams and do well and those who were not expecting to sit exams.

Number of sexual partners in the previous year: by gender and age, 1998

Great Britain	Percentages						
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54 ¹	55-64	65-69	All aged 16-69 ²
Men							
None	32	8	6	10	15	29	15
One	33	74	87	83	80	69	73
Two or three	25	12	5	4	4	1	9
Four or more	10	6	2	2	1	1	4
All	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Women							
None	21	6	12	11	12
One	54	86	84	87	80
Two or three	20	5	3	2	7
Four or more	5	2	-	-	2
All	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Data relate to age group 45 to 49 for women. Women aged 50 and over were not interviewed.
² Data relate to age group 16 to 49 for women.

Source: Omnibus Survey, Office for National Statistics

5.19

Men who had used selected drugs in the last 12 months: by age, 1998

England & Wales	Percentages				
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-59	All men aged 16-59
Cannabis	32	17	6	3	12
Amphetamines	12	5	1	-	3
Poppers	7	2	1	-	2
Ecstasy	6	2	-	-	2
Cocaine	4	3	1	-	2
LSD	5	1	-	-	1
Magic mushrooms	5	1	-	0	1
Heroin	1	-	-	-	-
Any drug	36	20	7	4	14

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

Health and care services

A factor with potentially large implications for the state of men's health in the United Kingdom is their use of health and care services. Table 5.20 gives an overview of the use of health services by men and women in the United Kingdom. In 1998-99, use of NHS GP, in-patient and out-patient services all rose with age, while the use of accident and emergency departments fell. In both the 16 to 24 and 25 to 34 age groups, the proportion of men consulting a NHS GP in the previous two weeks was half the proportion for women. This may be partly due to the fact that many women consult GPs for reasons associated with family planning and pregnancy. More women than men had consulted a NHS GP in the 35 to 44 and 45 to 54 age groups as well. Among older

people, men were slightly more likely than women to use in-patient services. Other than these differences, the proportions of men and women of various ages using the different services were similar.

This broad gender comparison masks some interesting differences in health service use between different types of men. Table 5.5 on page 58 showed that separated, widowed and divorced men were far less likely than married men to report a good state of general health, and that single men were more likely than those who were married to report good health. In line with this, Table 5.21 shows that single men in Great Britain were less likely than other men to consult a GP (either NHS or private) in 1998-99. While around a fifth of men who had been separated, widowed or divorced had consulted a GP in the two weeks before interview, a lower proportion of married and cohabiting men had done so, and only a tenth of single men had consulted a GP. Even allowing for the effects of age (as a higher proportion of single men than those of other marital statuses are in the younger age categories, where good health is more likely), this trend persists. After age-standardising, 118 per 1,000 single men had consulted a GP in the last two weeks, compared with 128 per 1,000 married and cohabiting men and 156 per 1,000 separated, widowed and divorced men. There does seem to be some relationship between men's marital status and the state of their health. Irrespective of their (generally younger) age, single men seem to be healthier than men who have been married at some point; and of those who do get married, there is some evidence that those who remain married are healthier than those who, for whatever reason, do not.

5.20

Use of health services: by gender and age, 1998-99

United Kingdom	Percentages							
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	All aged 75 and over	16 and over
Men								
Outpatient visit ¹	12	14	13	15	20	25	29	17
Consultation with GP ²	7	9	10	12	16	17	21	12
In-patient	4	5	5	7	11	15	21	8
Casualty visit ^{1,3}	7	7	5	4	3	3	3	5
Women								
Outpatient visit ¹	13	13	12	17	19	21	26	17
Consultation with GP ²	15	18	16	19	17	19	21	18
In-patient	11	15	8	8	10	10	15	11
Casualty visit ^{1,3}	6	4	3	3	3	3	3	4

1 In the last three months before interview; includes visits to casualty in Great Britain only.

2 Consultations with an NHS GP in the two weeks before interview.

3 The question was only asked of those who had an outpatient visit.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Continuous Household Survey, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

5.21

There are also differences in GP consultation rates between minority ethnic groups. In 1999, 22 per cent of Bangladeshi men, 17 per cent of Indian men and 16 per cent of Black Caribbean men had consulted a GP in the two weeks prior to interview in the Health Survey for England. Men in the Chinese and Irish minority ethnic groups had consultation rates similar to the figure for all men of 12 per cent.

It is not just health service institutions (public or private) which provide health-related services. In 1998-99 the GHS in Great Britain and the Continuous Household Survey in Northern Ireland collected information about the extent to which people aged 65 and over were able to manage their day-to-day lives unaided. Elderly men living in private households in the United Kingdom were generally much more able to manage on their own than women. For example, one in ten men were unable to manage at least one mobility-related task, compared with one in five women (Table 5.22).

The likelihood of experiencing difficulties increased considerably with age. For example, 7 per cent of men aged between 65 and 69 were unable to manage at least one mobility task (getting out of doors and walking down the road, getting up and down stairs/steps, getting around the house, getting to the toilet, or getting in and out of bed), while more than three times this proportion among those aged 85 and over had difficulties. Examination of the age breakdown reveals how men's and women's relative needs for assistance diverge as they get older. While the proportion of 65 to 69 year old women who were unable to manage at least one mobility task was only slightly higher than that for men, at 9 per

cent, by the time they reached the 85 and over category, 52 per cent of women reported difficulty – more than twice the proportion for men.

Men and women also receive care and derive well being – both physical and emotional – from their own personal social networks. In order to measure how much social support people received, the 1999 Health Survey for England asked a series of questions about the emotional and physical support that people felt they received from family and friends. This is more difficult to quantify than other measures of people's health, but it is nonetheless an important contributory factor to well being. Sixteen per cent of men were found to have a severe lack of social support, compared with 11 per cent of women. But there were social factors other than gender that had a greater effect on how much social support people received. While 13 per cent of men with 'high' household

GP consultations¹ by men: by age and marital status, 1998-99

Great Britain	Percentages		
	Single	Married/ cohabiting	Separated/ widowed/ divorced
16-24	8	7	..
25-34	8	11	..
35-44	11	10	16
45-54	10	13	18
55-64	6	18	18
65-74	18	18	22
75 and over	..	21	25
All men aged 16 and over	9	14	20

¹ Percentage of men who had consulted a doctor (excluding at a hospital) in the two weeks before interview.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

5.22

Elderly people who are unable to manage certain tasks without help¹: by gender and age, 1998-99

United Kingdom	Percentages					
	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85 and over	All aged 65 and over
Men						
Domestic tasks	17	17	28	46	56	25
Self-care	13	16	28	47	51	23
Mobility	7	5	11	22	24	10
Women						
Domestic tasks	26	35	45	58	80	42
Self-care	24	33	40	54	67	38
Mobility	9	15	21	28	52	20

¹ Percentage who were unable to manage at least one mobility/self-care/domestic task on their own.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Continuous Household Survey, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

5.23

Men's perceived severe lack of social support: by ethnic group and household income, 1999

England	Percentages		
	Income		
	Low ¹	Middle ²	High ³
Chinese	59	36	23
Pakistani	36	36	20
Bangladeshi	34	31	..
Irish	34	16	7
Indian	32	43	26
Black Caribbean	25	22	12
General population	25	19	13

1 Annual income below £6,075.

2 Annual income from £6,075, but below £13,365.

3 Annual income of £13,365 and over.

Source: Health Survey for England, Department of Health

income (£13,365 or more a year) perceived that they had a severe lack of social support, 25 per cent of men in the 'lowest' household income group (less than £6,075 a year) perceived that they had such a lack (Table 5.23). In addition, membership of some minority ethnic groups seemed to increase the likelihood of a man in the lowest income group perceiving that he severely lacked social support. Among Chinese men, three-fifths in the low household income group perceived that they had a severe lack of social support. However, so too did almost a quarter of those in the highest income group. In nearly all of the Asian minority ethnic groups, higher proportions of men perceived that they had a severe lack of social support than those in the general population for all three household income levels.



Men and lifestyles

Leisure plays an important part in men's lives. The amount of leisure time that they have is influenced by the amount of time spent sleeping, working and on various household tasks. Lifestyles and leisure activities are also influenced by the availability of, and access to, technological consumer durables. Although only a minority of men participate in criminal activity, men are more likely than women to be a victim of most crimes.

How men use their time

The amount of time men spend on different activities gives a valuable insight into their lives. In May 1999 the National Statistics Omnibus Survey asked people aged 16 and over in Great Britain

about the time they spent on certain activities. It is important to note that only one 'main' activity could be reported at one time, so a person watching television and looking after their children could only record one of those activities and had to decide which they considered to be their main activity. Apart from the time spent asleep and in paid work, for men of all ages, the greatest proportion of time was spent watching television or listening to the radio: an average of three hours a day (see [Table 6.1](#) overleaf). Owing to the small sample sizes the results should be interpreted with caution.

The roles of men and women in society have changed in many ways over the past 40 years or so. Women have been steadily making up a larger

6.1

Time use¹: by gender, May 1999

Great Britain	Hours and minutes per day	
	Men	Women
Sleep	8:17	8:40
TV and radio	2:59	2:37
Eating at home	0:59	1:03
Gardening and DIY ²	0:58	0:28
Cooking, routine housework	0:45	2:18
Personal care	0:41	0:49
Care of own children and play	0:13	0:36
Other home activities ³	1:06	0:52
Paid work ⁴	3:13	1:50
Travel	1:20	1:09
Socialising ⁵	1:01	1:14
Eating or drinking out	0:37	0:21
Shopping	0:26	0:40
Other out-of-home activities ⁶	0:56	0:51
Miscellaneous ⁷	0:30	0:31

¹ Respondents were asked to fill in a diary of their time use on a specified day. All days of the week were covered and an average time use established over a week. Components do not add to 24 hours due to rounding.

² Includes pet care.

³ Includes study at home, reading, hobbies, games, computing, music and caring for adults.

⁴ Includes paid work at home.

⁵ Includes telephone conversations and visiting friends.

⁶ Includes education, voluntary work, sports participation and other leisure activities.

⁷ Includes breaks and meals at work or study, doing nothing and other not elsewhere specified.

Source: Omnibus Survey, Office for National Statistics

without children. Looking at people living in households with children under the age of 16, however, men reported spending around three-quarters of an hour a day caring for and playing with their children – just under half the amount reported by women. This may partly be because men on average spend more time than women at work and because it is possible that men are less likely than women to record care of their own children as the ‘main’ activity. In general, in all households, men still spend more time than women on traditionally ‘male-orientated’ activities such as gardening and DIY while women still do the bulk of the domestic chores.

Men and their leisure

As Table 6.1 shows, listening to the radio and watching television are extremely popular with men. In the United Kingdom the television programmes with the highest number of male viewers in 2000 included *Euro 2000*, *Coronation Street* and *EastEnders* (Table 6.2). The most popular types of programmes overall were drama – watched by one in five men – and light entertainment, documentaries and factual – viewed by around one in six men. There was little difference between age groups except for the news, which increased slightly in popularity with age.

Reading is also a common pastime for many men: three in five men said they had read a book in the four weeks prior to being interviewed in 1996-97 for the General Household Survey. Reading is an even more common activity for women, with seven in ten women saying that they had read a book in the past four weeks.

6.2

Top five television programmes¹ watched by men, 2000

United Kingdom	Percentages
	2000
Euro 2000	35
Coronation Street	31
EastEnders	30
Who Wants to be a Millionaire?	28
Heartbeat	26

¹ Highest individual programme audience.

Source: Broadcasters’ Audience Research Board; British Broadcasting Corporation; RSMB Ltd; Nelson Sofres Ltd

part of the workforce and married or cohabiting men are now not necessarily the primary breadwinner within a household (see Chart 3.18 on page 43 in the Men and work chapter). In the home, traditional roles may still exist. In May 1999, men reported spending a quarter of an hour a day caring for and playing with their children, compared with over half an hour a day reported by women. As well as focusing on childcare only as a ‘main’ activity, this also does not take into account the fact that some people live in households

6.3

Whereas men are less likely than women to read a book, they are more likely to read a newspaper. In 2000, almost three in five men aged 15 and over in Great Britain read a national daily newspaper. *The Sun* was the most popular, particularly among young men aged 15 to 24: almost a third of men in Great Britain in this age group read *The Sun*. Newspaper readership was highest among men aged 55 and over.

In 2000, two in five men read a monthly magazine while almost three in five read a weekly magazine. In recent years new 'lifestyle' magazines have evolved aimed particularly at young men, for example, *FHM* and *Loaded*. These magazines include, among other items, articles on fashion, cars, games and women. In 2000 the five most popular monthly magazines read by men included two of these types of lifestyle magazines and three television guides, while in both 1980 and 1990, two out of the top five magazines were about cars (Table 6.3).

As Table 6.1 shows, men reported spending around two and a half hours a day is spent in leisure activities outside the home, including socialising, eating and drinking. Table 6.4 details some of these activities. In 1998 eating, drinking and visiting friends accounted for two-fifths of all the day trips taken by those aged 15 to 34, but over a quarter of the trips taken by those aged 65 and over. In contrast walking, hill-walking and rambling accounted for over one in four of the trips taken by those aged 65 and over, but only about one in 14 of the trips taken by 15 to 24 year olds.

There are some gender differences in the types of trips that people make. Men made a higher proportion of visits than women for the purpose of

Most popular monthly magazines read by men¹

Great Britain		Percentages			
		1980	1990		2000
Reader's Digest	20	Reader's Digest	14	FHM	13
Custom Car	9	What Car?	7	Sky Customer Magazine	9
Do-It-Yourself	6	Classic Cars	5	Cable Guide	8
Mayfair	6	National Geographic	5	Loaded	7
Hot Car	6	Golf Monthly	4	Skyview TV Guide	7

¹ Men aged 15 and over.

Source: National Readership Surveys Limited

6.4

Day visits made from home by men: by age and main activity¹, 1998

Great Britain		Percentages					
		15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	All men 65 and aged 15 over and over
Eat/drink	22	26	20	21	20	14	21
Walk/hill-walk/ramble	7	13	15	22	25	27	16
Visit friends	17	14	15	13	13	13	14
Shop	8	9	8	11	8	8	9
Outdoor sport	12	7	9	4	10	7	8
Indoor sport	9	9	7	5	2	5	7
Entertainment	8	3	4	3	4	5	5
Hobby/special interest	5	2	3	4	4	8	4
Drive/sightsee	2	2	3	4	3	5	3
Cycling/mountain biking	3	5	3	1	1	1	3
Swimming	2	2	4	2	2	2	2
Leisure attraction	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Watching sport	2	3	3	4	2	1	2
Informal sport/games	1	2	2	2	1	1	2
Other	1	1	2	4	2	2	2
All visits	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ Activities undertaken in the two weeks before interview.

Source: UK Day Visits Survey, National Centre for Social Research

6.5

Top ten destinations abroad¹ visited by men: by gender, 1999

United Kingdom	Percentages	
	Men	Women
France	25.3	20.7
Spain	20.7	23.2
Irish Republic	7.3	7.9
USA	6.9	7.6
Greece	5.0	5.5
Italy	3.5	4.0
Portugal	3.0	2.9
Netherlands	2.9	2.4
Belgium	2.5	2.0
Germany	2.3	2.4
Other countries	20.6	21.3
All leisure visits abroad (=100%)(millions)	23.6	22.1

¹ Leisure visits.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

eating and drinking (21 per cent compared with 15 per cent). Conversely, women made a greater proportion of visits to friends than men (19 per cent and 14 per cent respectively).

There are also gender differences in the destinations that people visit abroad. In 1999 the most popular country abroad for men from the United Kingdom to visit for leisure was France, while for women it was Spain (Table 6.5). With regard to holidays alone, in 1999 men took around 16 million holidays abroad – an increase of over

50 per cent since 1993. Men aged 45 to 54 took the most holidays: 922 holidays for every 1,000 men, which was double the amount taken by men aged 16 to 24 and those aged 65 and over.

Attending the cinema is another common social activity. This increased by almost a third between 1987 and 2000 for both men and women (Chart 6.6). In 2000, 84 per cent men aged 15 and over in Great Britain said that they 'ever go to the cinema', compared with 65 per cent in 1987. The previous peak in 1998 was due to the phenomenal success of *Titanic*. While similar proportions of men and women said that they attended the cinema, men reported going slightly more frequently: 11 per cent of men said that they went to the cinema twice a month or more in 2000 compared with 8 per cent of women.

Participation in sport and fitness can be a social activity, as well as a way of getting fit, relieving stress and enjoying competition. The most popular activity is walking: almost half of all men in the United Kingdom had walked two miles or more in the four weeks prior to interview in 1996-97 (Chart 6.7). Other popular activities include cue sports (19 per cent) cycling (15 per cent) and swimming (13 per cent). The most popular team sport is football: 10 per cent of all men in the United Kingdom had played football in the four weeks prior to interview.

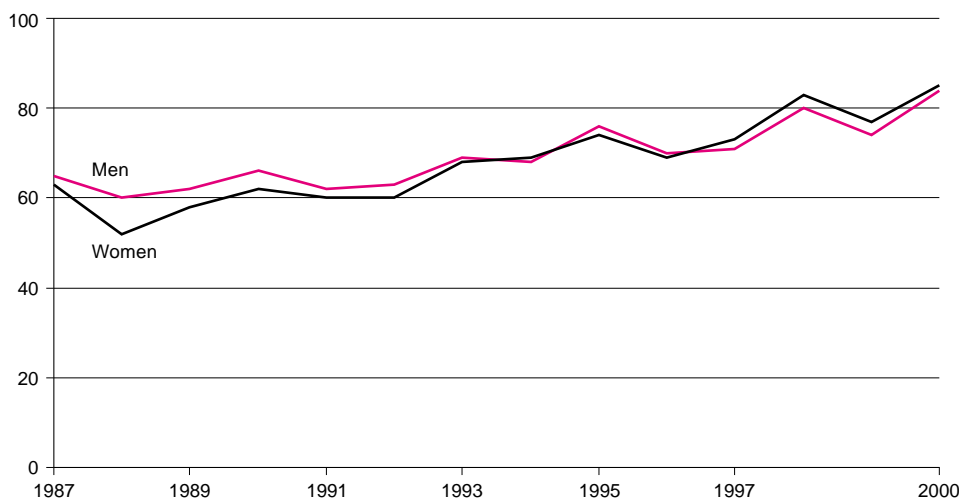
Participation in sport and fitness is one area where there are gender differences. In general, the proportion of men participating in at least one game or physical activity in Great Britain is higher than for women: over seven in ten men compared with under three in five women in 1996-97. There are some large contrasts in certain activities.

6.6

Cinema attendance¹: by gender

Great Britain

Percentages



¹ People aged 15 and over who reported that they 'Ever go to the cinema'.

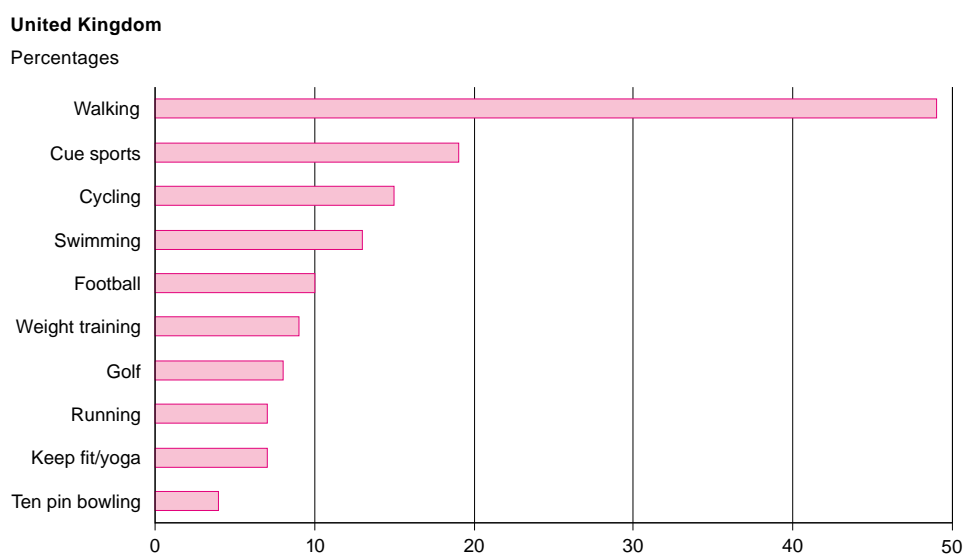
Source: Cinema Advertising Association

6.7

Twenty per cent of men played a cue sport in the four weeks prior to interview compared with just 4 per cent of women; 10 per cent of men had played football and 3 per cent had been fishing, while hardly any women said that they had. Conversely, keep fit and yoga is more popular with women than men: 17 per cent of women participated in yoga or keep fit in the four weeks prior to interview compared with 7 per cent of men. Information on the level of physical activity undertaken by men and women is given in Table 5.17 on page 64 in the Men and health chapter.

Gambling is also a popular activity for many men. According to a study carried out by the National Centre for Social Research, in 1999 around three in four men had gambled in the past year (Table 6.8). By far the most common form of gambling was the National Lottery Draw, although this is generally accepted as 'soft gambling', given that a very large proportion of the population have at some time taken part. Scratchcards, fruit machines, horse races and private bets were the next most common forms of gambling for men, with around a fifth of men having participated in each. Men at the younger and older ends of the age scale were the least likely to gamble. In general, levels of participation tended to increase along with household income, at least until around the level of £36,000, after which participation levels steadied and even declined slightly.

Apart from the National Lottery Draw, scratchcards, bingo and 'another lottery', gambling is a male dominated activity. For example, around two and a half times more men than women participated in the football pools in 1999 or played fruit machines and twice as many men as women bet on horse races. Men also participated in a

Men's participation¹ in the top sports, games and physical activities, 1996-97

¹ In the four weeks prior to interview.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Continuous Household Survey, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

6.8

Participation¹ in gambling activities: by gender, 1999

Great Britain	Percentages	
	Men	Women
National Lottery Draw	68	62
Scratchcards	22	22
Fruit machines	20	8
Horse races	18	9
Private bets	17	6
Football pools	13	5
Another lottery	9	8
Dog races	6	2
Bingo	5	10
Betting with a bookmaker ²	5	1
Table games	4	1
Any gambling	76	68

¹ Respondents aged 16 and over who said that they had participated in gambling in the past year.

² Other than on horses or dog races.

Source: British Gambling Prevalence Survey, National Centre for Social Research

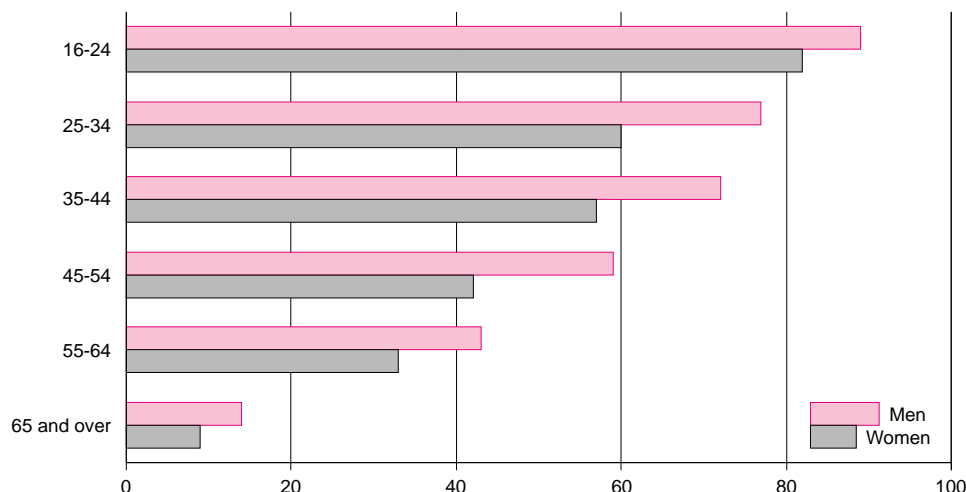
greater number of gambling activities – 1.9 per year compared with 1.3 per year for women. Men are also more likely than women to have a gambling problem. According to the study conducted by the National Centre for Social Research using the South Oaks Gambling Screen estimate (SOGS), 1.7 per cent of men who had gambled in the previous 12 months in 1999 were 'problem gamblers' compared with 0.7 per cent of women. Despite having the lowest participation in gambling of all ages, problem gambling was most prevalent among those 16 to 24 year olds who gambled in the previous 12 months: 3.4 per cent of those young men.

6.9

Use¹ of the Internet: by age and gender, January 2001

Great Britain

Percentages



¹ Men and women who had ever accessed the Internet at home or elsewhere.

Source: Omnibus Survey, Office for National Statistics

Men and technology

Internet use is more common among men than women. In January 2001, almost three-fifths of men in Great Britain had accessed the Internet at some time compared with just under half of women (Chart 6.9). For most people the Internet was mostly or exclusively accessed from home – by nearly seven in ten of both men and women – but work was the main or only location for nearly double the proportion of men than women. Young men are the most likely to have used the Internet: 89 per cent of young men aged 16 to 24 compared with just 14 per cent of those aged 65 and over.

Individuals take part in a wide range of on-line activities. A third of men said that they used the Internet mostly or exclusively for using e-mail and a fifth said they mostly or exclusively used it for finding information about goods and services. Twenty-eight per cent of men had accessed the Internet every day for private use with a further 32 per cent accessing the Internet several times a week. Only 15 per cent of women had accessed the Internet for private use every day and a further 20 per cent had accessed the Internet several times a week.

6.10

Household ownership of selected technological items: by type of household, 1999-00

United Kingdom

	One person ¹		All households headed by men
	Man	Woman	
Video recorder	81	77	91
CD player	71	67	78
Mobile phone	39	39	50
Computer	34	25	44
Satellite receiver	29	17	36
Internet connection	19	10	24

¹ Households headed by a single non-retired person aged 16 and over with no children.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

Men also tend to be more likely than women to have access to technological items. Among one person non-retired households in the United Kingdom, eight in ten one man households owned a video recorder and seven in ten men owned a CD player in 1999-00 (Table 6.10). Male households are more likely than female households to have a video recorder, CD player, satellite receiver and Internet connection. Around a third of single non-retired male households had a computer at home compared with a quarter of single non-retired female households. With regard to a satellite connection three in ten of such male

6.11

households had a satellite connection compared with a sixth of such female households.

Ownership of mobile phones was the same for both sexes.

Men in the community

Men have traditionally dominated politics and the decision-making sphere, although women are gradually becoming more involved in the political system: in the 2001 General Election 18 per cent of seats were won by women.

Men still report far higher levels of interest in politics than women do. In 1999 a third of men surveyed in the British Social Attitudes Survey said that they were interested in politics 'a great deal' or 'quite a lot', compared with under a quarter of women (Table 6.11). However, according to the 1997 British Election Study, as far as 'claimed' voting is concerned, women were as likely, if not more so, to have voted than men, despite their lower reported levels of interest in politics. Figures for the 2001 General Election on voting by gender are not yet available.

Trends over time need to be interpreted with care, but in general there is some evidence of a slight decline in political interest between 1996 and 1999. Younger men are the least interested in politics of all ages and it is within the youngest age group (aged 18 to 24) that interest in politics has declined the sharpest: by half between 1986 and 1999. In 1997 almost three-fifths of all men aged 18 to 24 who were on the electoral roll turned out to vote in Great Britain compared with around 90 per cent of those aged 55 and over.

Participation in the community comes in many forms, for example voluntary work. Some widely differing estimates of voluntary work exist,

depending on the source used. Estimates of the number of adults who have been involved in voluntary activity in the past year range from 10.8 million (General Household Survey, 1992-93) to 21.8 million (1997 National Survey of Volunteering). These differences are attributable to different survey methodologies and populations. The definition of formal voluntary work used in the 1997 National Survey of Volunteering was any activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups) other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment through a group or organisation. This survey reported that around half of all men in the United Kingdom did some form of voluntary work (Table 6.12).

There are certain fields in which men in particular volunteer. For example, in 1997 men were more than twice as likely as women to be involved in voluntary work connected with sport and exercise and were also more likely to be involved with hobbies, recreation, the arts, citizen groups and politics. Conversely, women were almost three times as likely as men to be involved in voluntary work connected with children's education or school and were also more likely to be involved with health and social welfare, elderly people and religion. The roles that men perform can also be quite different. Male volunteers were more likely than female volunteers to: sit on committees; provide transport; give advice, information and counselling; and represent others, but less likely to raise or handle money and deliver other direct services.

Being a member of a club or society can be one way people get involved in voluntary and community work and can also be a means of socialising or participating in a hobby. In 1999 almost three-fifths of men were a member of a

Men's interest in politics¹: by age

Great Britain	Percentages			
	1986	1990	1996	1999
18-24	28	30	20	13
25-34	30	37	35	29
35-44	42	39	40	34
45-54	39	38	39	41
55-64	39	34	44	39
65 and over	37	47	49	34
All men aged 18 and over	36	38	38	33

¹ Respondents who replied 'a great deal' or 'quite a lot' when asked 'how interested would you say you personally are in politics?'

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey, National Centre for Social Research

6.12

Types of voluntary work: by field of interest and gender, 1997

United Kingdom	Percentages	
	Men	Women
Sports/exercise	36	17
Hobbies, recreation, arts	21	15
Religion	21	23
Health and social welfare	17	21
Youth, children	15	13
Local community groups	13	15
Citizen groups	13	6
With children's education or school	12	32
Safety, first aid	8	9
Environment	6	4
Politics	6	3
Adult education	5	3
Elderly people	4	8
Justice and human rights	4	2
Groups connected with paid work	4	2
Work extra to job	4	2
Animals	2	5
Any volunteering	48	48

Source: National Survey of Volunteering, Institute for Volunteering Research

6.13

Membership of selected organisations: by gender, 1999

Great Britain	Percentages	
	Men	Women
Sports club	23	12
Trade union	18	12
Social club	17	6
Religious group	9	14
Tenants'/residents' group ¹	8	9
Political party	4	3
Environmental group	3	3
Voluntary services group	3	5
Parents'/ school association	2	4
Other organisations ²	20	21
At least one organisation	58	50

¹ Includes membership of Neighbourhood Watch.

² Includes professional organisations, scout/guide organisations and pensioner organisations.

Source: British Household Panel Survey, Institute for Social and Economic Research

club or society (Table 6.13). Sports club membership was the most common: 23 per cent of men said that they were a member of a sports club which was almost double the proportion for women. On the other hand, men were less likely than women to belong to a religious group: 9 per cent compared with 14 per cent respectively.

Although only a small proportion of men say they are a member of a religious group, in 1999 around half of all men aged 18 and over in Great Britain regarded themselves as belonging to a religion (Table 6.14). This increased with age, from less than a third of men aged 18 to 24 up to seven in ten men aged 65 and over. However, over half of men who said they belonged to a religion or were brought up in a religion said that they either never or practically never attended a religious service. Three-fifths of women said that they belonged to a religion, although over two-fifths of women who said they belonged to a religion or were brought up in a religion said that they either never or practically never attended religious services. Over the past two decades the decline in the proportion of people belonging to a religion has been similar for both genders.

car driver compared with 39 per cent of journeys made by women. This is partly related to the fact that more men than women have driving licences: 82 per cent of men compared with 59 per cent of women held a licence in 1997-1999. In households with only one car, men are often the main car driver: four-fifths of male licence holders were the main drivers of a household car, compared with two-thirds of female licence holders in 1995-1997. The differences between men and women in distance travelled and mode of transport may diminish in the future because driving licence holding among women is increasing: between 1985-86 and 1997-1999, licence holding among women increased by two-fifths compared with a tenth for men.

Other modes of travel used, such as bus and rail at 5 per cent, make up a very small proportion of men's journeys. The proportion of female journeys made by bus and rail is slightly higher at 8 per cent. However, men are more likely than women to make a trip by motorcycle (Chart 6.16). Over the period 1992 to 1999, men aged 25 to 34 made an average of 14 journeys a year by motorbike, compared with an average of just one journey a year by women.

6.14

Men belonging to a religion¹: by age

Great Britain	Percentages		
	1983	1990	1999
18-24	40	36	31
25-34	46	41	37
35-44	59	44	40
45-54	69	61	46
55-64	69	69	62
65 and over	80	72	71
All men aged 18 and over	61	54	49

¹ Respondents were asked 'do you regard yourself as belonging to any particular religion?'

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey, National Centre for Social Research

Men and travel

Over the period 1997 to 1999 men in Great Britain travelled on average 9,185 miles per person per year and made an average of 1,104 journeys each year (Table 6.15). Women made a similar number of journeys (1,065) but travelled far less distance (6,156 miles per person per year). The difference in distance travelled is, in part, related to the types of journeys that men and women make and their mode of travel.

Travel to work tends to account for a high proportion of men's journeys, while shorter journeys such as shopping and escort education trips account for a higher proportion of women's trips. Men make 59 per cent of their journeys as a

Driving style is thought to be affected by the particular beliefs and attitudes a person holds about driving. In a survey carried out by the Transport Research Institute in Scotland and Staffordshire University in England in 2000, male drivers were more likely than women to report higher preferred driving speeds. Age is also a predictor of speed, with men aged between 17 and 20 reporting the highest normal driving speed. After this age, speed then declines (particularly after the age of 30). Male and female speeds converge at around age 50.

In 1999, 154 thousand men were casualties in a road accident in Great Britain. Of those, 16 per cent were killed or seriously injured. For all male casualties aged 16 and over this is a decline of

6.15

around a half since the 1981-1985 average.

Overall, there are fewer female casualties: in 1999, there were 117 thousand female casualties aged 16 and over, 10 per cent of whom were killed or seriously injured. Since the 1981-1985 average, female casualties have risen by a fifth.

At present, women make fewer journeys and travel shorter distances than men as a car driver. But since 41 per cent of all road casualties are car drivers it is not surprising that the overall number of female casualties is lower than male casualties. However, the number of females holding full driving licences is increasing, as are the distances that they travel by car, and it is partly for these reasons that overall female casualties have increased over time.

Looking specifically at car drivers, there were 73 thousand male car driver casualties in 1999, 12 per cent of whom were killed or seriously injured. This compares with 58 thousand female car driver casualties, 8 per cent of whom were killed or seriously injured. The higher proportion of male car drivers being killed or seriously injured can to some extent be explained by the fact that men travel a higher annual average distance thus increasing exposure to an accident. For car drivers there has been an overall rise in casualties since the baseline 1981-1985 average: male casualties in the 22 to 39 and 40 to 59 age groups increased by 41 per cent and 49 per cent respectively by 1999 and female casualties in these age groups more than doubled, again linked to the growth in female driving licence holders.

Between 1979 and 1999 the overall death rate from road accidents for men and women halved (see Chart 6.17 overleaf). Between 1979 and 1993 the death rate for men declined more quickly than those for women, after which the rate for men remained relatively stable. The initial decline can be partly explained by improvements in medical assistance, car safety technology and road safety improvements.

Journeys per man per year: by age and main mode of transport, 1997-1999

Great Britain	Percentages						
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	All men aged 16 and over
Car driver ¹	33	60	65	68	64	49	59
Walk	26	18	19	18	22	33	22
Car passenger	19	10	7	6	6	7	8
Bus	10	3	3	3	3	7	4
Bicycle	4	3	2	2	2	1	2
Rail	2	2	2	1	1	-	1
Other ²	5	4	3	2	2	2	3
All journeys (=100%) (per man per year)	1,024	1,124	1,194	1,229	1,129	910	1,104

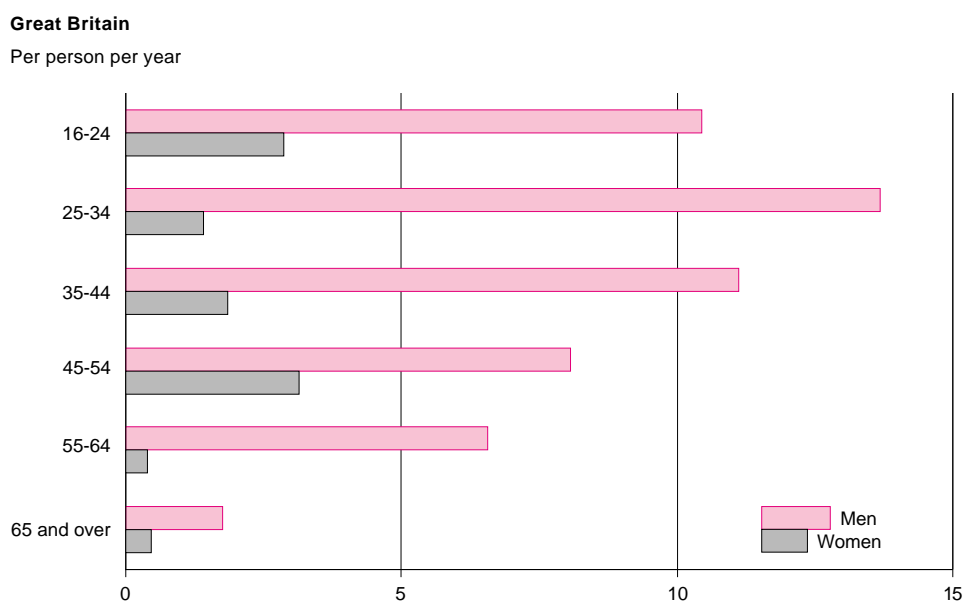
¹ Aged 17 and over.

² Including private and public transport.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

6.16

Trips made by motorbike: by age and gender, 1992-1999



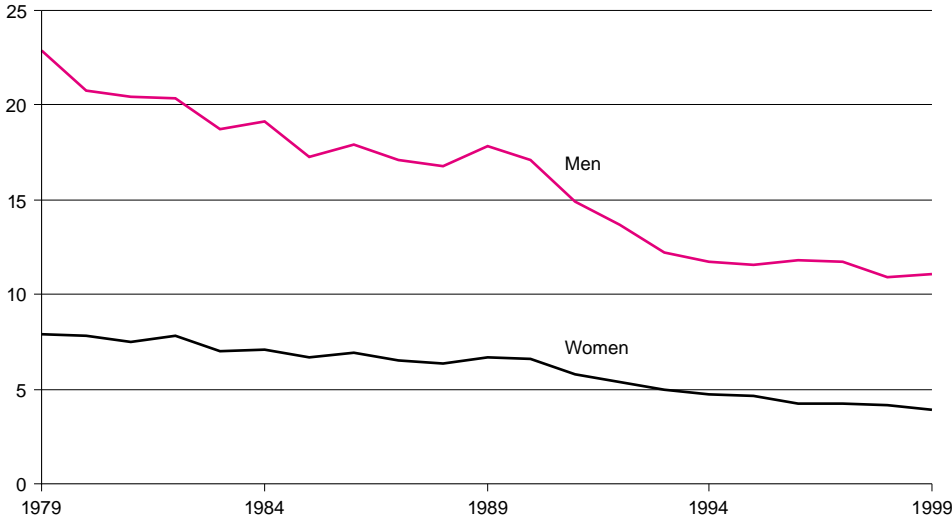
Source: National Travel Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

6.17

Death rates from road accidents: by gender

Great Britain

Rates per 100,000 population



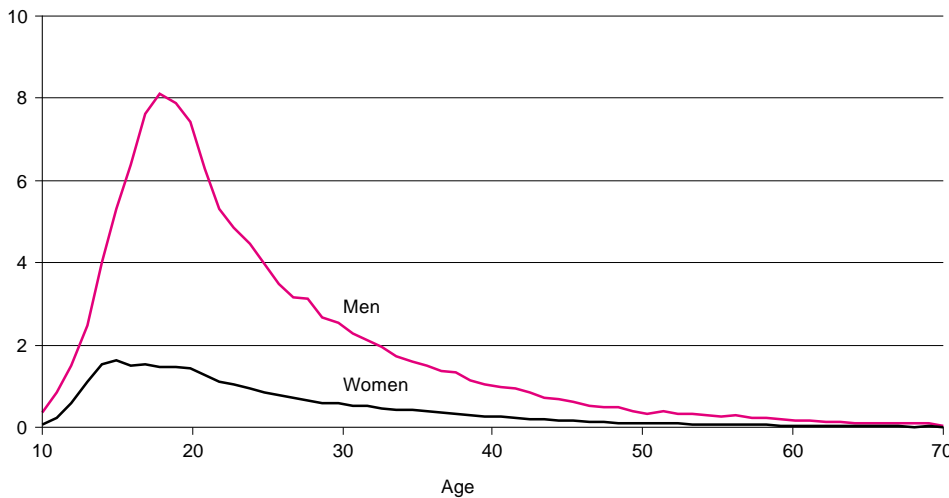
Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

6.18

Offenders' as a percentage of the population: by gender and age, 1999

England & Wales

Percentages



1 People found guilty or cautioned for indictable offences in 1999.

Source: Home Office

Men as offenders

Criminal activity has traditionally been, and in many instances still is, a male preserve. Male offenders in 1999 made up over four-fifths of the total number of offenders in England and Wales. The numbers of male offenders expressed as a proportion of the total population peaks sharply in early adulthood, and then decreases with age (Chart 6.18). The pattern for female offenders is similar, but a lower proportion of females than males are offenders. At their peak age of offending (18 years old) 8 per cent of men were found guilty or cautioned for an indictable offence compared with less than 2 per cent for women at their peak age of offending (15 years old). As they get older, the differences between offending rates for men and women are less pronounced.

Over a third of all male offenders in England and Wales were cautioned or found guilty of theft and handling stolen goods offences in 1999. Drug-related offences are the second most common category, with around one in five male offenders found guilty of this kind of offence. Men aged 16 to 24 had the highest offending rates in every offence category, and an overall offending rate of 648 per 10,000 population, over twice that of the 25 to 34 age group (Table 6.19). Male offenders commit a wider range of offences than female offenders – the vast majority of women are convicted for theft and handling stolen goods. Crimes of violence are almost exclusively committed by males; but the total number of these crimes committed is still relatively small, a ninth of all indictable offences.

The main source of information on the criminal histories of offenders in England and Wales comes from the Home Office Offenders Index

6.19

which holds over six million criminal histories. Research recently carried out on men born in 1953 revealed that one in three had a conviction before they were 46 years old. The same research shows that of the male offenders born in 1953, around half of them had been convicted on only one occasion. Similar proportions of male offenders born in that year had a criminal career of less than a year in length and were first convicted for theft-related offences. Alongside those whose involvement in criminal activity is comparatively brief, is a smaller core of multiple offenders, with 18 per cent of male offenders of all ages in 1998 having ten or more previous convictions (Table 6.20). Reconviction rates for men are higher than they are for women.

The English and Welsh prison population in 2000 was 65.5 thousand and was predominantly male (including those on remand) with 17 men for every woman serving a custodial sentence. The average length of sentence served for men received into prison during 2000 was 14 months. Around half of the male prison population are serving sentences of less than four years – the proportion serving life sentences is comparatively small, at around 7 per cent of the total male prison population.

Adults are generally assessed as needing remedial help if their educational attainment falls below GCSE level or equivalent. Around a half of the male prison population were assessed as needing remedial help with their writing skills and around a third of the male prison population needed remedial help with their reading skills in the basic skills tests carried out on the prison population of England and Wales in 1999-00. The same tests showed a third of the female prison population fell below GCSE standard in writing skills; and a fifth needed remedial help with reading.

Male offenders found guilty of, or cautioned for, indictable offences: by type of offence and age, 1999

England & Wales	Rates per 10,000 men						
	10-15	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over
Theft and handling stolen goods	125	223	91	38	16	8	3
Drug offences	14	159	63	23	7	2	0
Violence against the person	29	69	31	17	7	3	1
Burglary	36	61	18	5	1	-	-
Criminal damage	13	18	7	3	1	-	-
Robbery	5	11	3	1	-	-	0
Sexual offences	3	4	3	3	2	2	1
Other indictable offences	12	102	57	26	11	6	1
All indictable offences	237	648	271	117	45	21	6

Source: Home Office

6.20

Men convicted: by age and number of previous convictions¹, 1998

England & Wales	Percentages					
	Number of previous convictions					All
	0	1	2	3-9	10 or more	
16-24	39	15	9	28	9	100
25-34	29	10	7	28	27	100
35-44	31	10	7	23	29	100
45-54	42	12	8	20	18	100
55-64	55	11	5	16	13	100
65 and over	69	10	6	8	7	100
All men aged 16 and over	35	12	8	26	18	100

¹ Based on a sample of men convicted in the first 15 days of March and November 1998 for standard list offences only.

Source: Home Office

6.21

Men who were victims of violence¹: by age, 1999

England & Wales	Percentages				
	Domestic	Aquaintance ²	Stranger	Mugging	All violence
16-24	1.8	8.2	8.3	4.3	20.1
25-34	1.0	2.4	3.7	0.5	7.2
35-44	0.3	1.5	1.4	0.5	3.6
45-54	0.2	1.0	1.4	0.4	3.0
55-64	0.2	0.9	0.6	0.1	1.8
65 and over	-	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.7
All men aged 16 and over	0.5	2.0	2.3	0.8	5.3

¹ Percentage victimised once or more.

² Assaults in which the victim knew one or more of the offenders at least by sight.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

Men as victims of crime

Men are also more likely than women to be victims of crime. Young men aged 16 to 24 are the most likely to be the victim of violent crime, possibly as a result of being in places where violence can occur, such as pubs, or in groups late at night (Table 6.21). According to the latest British Crime Survey estimates, in 1999, men of all ages in England and Wales were three times more likely than women to suffer 'stranger violence', that is, at the hands of an unknown assailant. Most victims of domestic violence are women, although it is recognised that this does happen to men, as does stalking.

The risk of being a victim of crime can be affected by many factors other than gender. Generally households located in council estates and having a low-income are the most likely to be victims of burglary and violent crime, while those living in affluent and suburban areas are least likely.

The quality of men's lives can be affected not only by being a victim of crime but also by being worried about crime. Men and women fear different crimes. For example, men fear crimes related to their car while women fear crime against their person. Fear does vary across the ages; for example men's concern about theft tends to be highest in the younger age groups and lowest in the older age groups (Table 6.22). A quarter of young male car owners aged 16 to 24 worried about the theft of their car in 2000; this compares with a sixth of owners aged 65 and over.

6.22

Men's fear of crime¹: by type of crime and age, 2000

England & Wales	Percentages						
	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	All men aged 16 and over
Theft of car ²	25	18	19	18	20	17	19
Theft from car ²	20	17	16	16	17	14	16
Burglary	16	18	15	10	11	12	16
Mugging	14	9	10	10	11	12	11
Physical attack	11	9	7	8	8	8	9
Rape	14	10	6	7	5	4	7

¹ Percentage of men who were 'very worried' about each type of crime.

² Percentage of male car owners.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

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Contact points

General information about *Social Focus on Men* can be obtained from the editorial team at the Office for National Statistics: tel 020 7533 5778. Other contacts are listed below.

Office for National Statistics

Adult Dental Health Survey	020 7533 5303
Cancer statistics	020 7533 5230
Family Expenditure Survey	020 7533 5756
General Household Survey	020 7533 5444
General Practice Research Database	020 7533 5244
Income, expenditure and wealth	020 7533 5770
Internal migration	01329 813872
International migration	01329 813255
International Passenger Survey	020 7533 5765
Internet access	020 7533 5878
Labour Force Survey	020 7533 5614
Labour Market Enquiry helpline	020 7533 6094
Life expectancy	020 7533 5186
Marriages and divorces	01329 813772
Mental health	020 7533 5305
Mortality statistics	01329 813758
National accounts	020 7533 6003
New Earnings Survey	01633 81902
Population estimates general enquiries	01329 813318
Regional accounts	020 7533 5790

Department for Culture, Media and Sport 020 7211 6409

Department for Education and Employment 01325 392658

Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

Household Projections and Survey of English Housing	020 7944 3303
English House Condition Survey	020 7944 3526
National Travel Survey	020 7944 3097
Transport statistics	020 7944 4847

Department of Health

Dental health	020 7972 5393
Health Survey for England	020 7972 5660
Mental illness/handicap	020 7972 5546
Smoking, misuse of alcohol and drugs	020 7972 5551

Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety, Northern Ireland 028 9052 2800

Department of Social Security

Family Resources Survey	020 7962 8991
Households below average income	020 7962 8232
Individual income	020 7712 2258
Pensioners' incomes	020 7962 8975
Social security statistics	0191 225 7373

Department of Trade and Industry

General enquiries	020 7215 6160
Work and parents	020 7215 5999

Employment Service	
New deal	020 7549 9571
General Register Office for Northern Ireland	028 9025 2031
General Register Office for Scotland	0131 314 4254
Government Actuary's Department	
Population projections	020 7211 2622
Life expectancy	020 7211 2667
Home Office Family Policy Unit	020 7217 8545
Home Office	
Cautions & court proceedings	020 8760 8271
Drug use	020 7273 2257
Prison statistics	020 7217 5567
Research, Development and Statistics Directorate	
Information Publications Group	020 7273 2084
Inland Revenue	020 7438 7370
Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food	020 7270 8547
National Assembly for Wales	
Health	029 2082 5080
Population enquiries	029 2082 5085
Further and higher education	029 2082 5043
Schools and teachers	029 2082 5059
National Health Service in Scotland	0131 551 8899
Northern Ireland Department of Education	028 9127 9391
Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency	028 9034 8200
Continuous Household Survey	028 9034 8246
Population enquiries	028 9034 8132
Scottish Centre for Infection and Environmental Health	0141 300 1100
Scottish Executive	
Education statistics	0131 244 7927
Sport England	020 7273 1700
Book Marketing Ltd.	020 7580 7282
British Broadcasting Corporation	020 8743 8000
Cinema Advertising Association	020 7534 6363
Driving Standards Agency	0115 901 2500
Institute for Fiscal Studies	020 7291 4800
Institute for Social and Economic Research	01206 872957
Institute for Volunteering Research	020 7520 8901
London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine	020 7299 4614
National Centre for Social Research	
British Social Attitudes Survey	020 7549 8520
National Readership Surveys Limited	020 7632 2915
National Centre for Social Research	020 7549 8520
Policy Studies Institute	020 7468 2231
Public Health Laboratory Service	020 8200 6868

Useful websites

National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Cabinet Office	www.cabinet-office.gov.uk
Department for Culture, Media and Sport	www.culture.gov.uk
Department for Education and Employment	www.dfee.gov.uk
Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions	www.detr.gov.uk
Housing and Housing Policy	www.housing.detr.gov.uk
National Travel Survey	www.transtat.detr.gov.uk/personal/index.htm
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Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety, Northern Ireland	www.dhsspsni.gov.uk
Department of Social Security	www.dss.gov.uk
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Employment Service	www.employmentservice.gov.uk
General Register Office for Scotland	www.gro-scotland.gov.uk
Government Actuary's Department	www.gad.gov.uk
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Family Policy Unit	www.homeoffice.gov.uk/cpg/fpu2.htm
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Inland Revenue	www.inlandrevenue.gov.uk
Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food	www.maff.gov.uk
National Assembly for Wales	www.wales.gov.uk
NHS in Scotland	www.show.scot.nhs.uk
Northern Ireland Statistics Research Agency	www.nisra.gov.uk
Scottish Executive	www.scotland.gov.uk
Social Exclusion Unit	www.cabinet-office.gov.uk/seu
Sport England	www.english.sports.gov.uk
Women's Unit	www.womens-unit.gov.uk
Individual Income Series	www.womens-unit.gov.uk/publications.htm
BBC	www.bbc.co.uk
Driving Standards Agency	www.driving-tests.co.uk
Institute for Fiscal Studies	www.ifs.org.uk
Institute for Social and Economic Research	www.iser.essex.ac.uk
Institute for Volunteering Research	www.ivr.org.uk
Joseph Rowntree Foundation	www.jrf.org.uk
National Centre for Social Research	www.natcen.ac.uk
National Foundation for Educational Research	www.nfer.ac.uk
National Readership Survey	www.nrs.co.uk
Policy Studies Institute	www.psi.org.uk
Public Health Laboratory Service	www.phls.co.uk

Appendix: data sources

Major Surveys used in *Social Focus on Men*

	Frequency	Sampling frame	Type of respondent	Coverage	Effective sample size ¹ (most recent survey included in <i>Social Focus</i>)	Response rate (percentages)
Adult Dental Health Survey	Decennial	Postcode Address File in GB, Rating and Valuation lists in NI	All adults in household	UK	4,984 households	74
British Crime Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	Adult in household	EW	26,291 addresses	74
British Household Panel Survey	Annual	Postal Addresses in 1991, members of initial wave households followed in subsequent waves	All adults in households	GB	5,160 households	97 ²
British Social Attitudes Survey	Annual	Postcode Address File	One adult per household	GB	5,402 addresses	58
Census of Population	Decennial	Detailed local	Adult in household	UK	Full count	98
Continuous Household Survey	Continuous	Valuation and Lands Agency Property	All adults in household	NI	4,147 addresses	70
English House Condition Survey	Quinquennial	Postcode Address File	Any one householder	E	27,200 addresses	49 ³
Family Expenditure Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File in GB, Rating and Valuation lists in NI	Household	UK	11,424 addresses ⁴	63 ⁵
Family Resources Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	All adults in household	GB	37,870 households	66
General Household Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	All adults in household	GB	11,831 households	72
Health Survey for England	Continuous	Postcode Address File	Adults, children over 2	E	12,250 addresses	74 ⁶
International Passenger Survey	Continuous	International passengers	Individual traveller	UK	261,000 individuals	82
Labour Force Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	All adults in household	UK	59,000 addresses	76 ⁷
National Readership Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	Adults aged 15 and over	GB	54,074 individuals	60
National Travel Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	All household members	GB	5,040 households per year	67 ⁸
New Earnings Survey	Annual	Inland Revenue PAYE records	Employee	GB	⁹	⁹
Omnibus Survey	Continuous	Postcode Address File	One adult per household	GB	1,800 individuals ¹⁰	65 ¹⁰
Survey of English Housing	Continuous	Postcode Address File	Household	E	26,277 households	71
Work-Life Balance 2000						
Employees Survey	Ad-hoc	Random-digit dialling	Employees	GB	7,500	58
Employers Survey	Ad-hoc	Employer addresses	Employers	GB	2,500	48
Youth Cohort Study	Biennial	School records	Young people (Aged 16 to 19)	EW	25,000 individuals	55

¹ Effective sample size includes non-respondents but excludes ineligible households.

² Wave on wave response rate at wave eight. Around 76 per cent of eligible wave one sample members were respondent in wave eight.

³ The 1996 EHCS response combines successful outcomes from two linked surveys where information is separately gathered about the household and the dwelling for each address.

⁴ Basic sample only.

⁵ Response rate refers to Great Britain.

⁶ Response rate for fully and partially responding households.

⁷ Response rate to first wave interviews quoted. Response rate to second to fifth wave interviews 91 per cent of those previously accepting.

⁸ Response rate for the period January 1997 to January 1999.

⁹ In the New Earnings Survey employers supply data on a 1 per cent sample of employees who are members of PAYE schemes. For the 2000 sample approximately 233 thousand were selected and there was an 87.4 per cent response, but some 53 thousand returned questionnaires were not taken onto the results file for various reasons.

¹⁰ The Omnibus Survey changes from month to month.

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