AN INTEGRATED READING OF THE TERRITORIES

Intellectual Output 1

CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

Over 6 million women and 2 million men without upper secondary education across the EU have never been employed. With the job market constantly increasing requirements on competencies across all sectors, the level of education has a critical effect in employment opportunities and variations in income. But the obstacles do not stop there. Despite the Treaty of Lisbon (2007) explicitly referred to 'equality between women and men' as a constitutive common principle of EU member states, in all member states the employment rates for women are lower than those for men. Thus, gender inequality is one of the biggest problems our societies have to deal with. In addition, the poverty that often hit the most vulnerable groups, leads to a greater intolerance. Learning and development processes are the key for women to defend themselves from discriminations and marginalisation, improving their social abilities, their ability to take action, to trust their professional skills, and to be aware of their rights.

The Pro-Women project (2019-1-IT02-KA204-063176), financed by the Erasmus+ Programme and involving 6 partners from 5 EU countries: Cyprus, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain, wants to promote equal opportunities and socio-labour inclusion of the low-skilled and unemployed women in their territories by providing them with education and training, and supporting the recognition of their social and labour rights transnationally.

Specific objectives are:

- To boost cultural growth, cultural heritages, social cohesion involving local communities,
- To valorise innovative methodological approaches aimed at women empowerment,
- To facilitate low-skilled and unemployed women's access to training, employment and entrepreneurship,
- To provide professionals and educators working with women with efficient tools for supporting their social and labour integration.

The partners have chosen the tourism sector because, as highlighted by UNESCO, "[t]ourism is one of the fastest growing industries" and "one of the most lucrative industries in the world"; also, its economic revenues "can facilitate the reduction of emigration through the creation of jobs and improving the local population's income". However, tourism can also cause social, cultural, natural and economic problems, which is why the project aims to operate within sustainable tourism, either 'nature-based tourism', 'ecotourism' or 'cultural tourism". In particular, the last one is linked to cultural heritage, which, as it has traditionally been identified, protected and maintained by professional heritage institutions, its management left out local communities. In contrast, an innovative approach to cultural heritage management embraces its potential to actively engage people - thereby helping to secure integration, social cohesion, and a sustainable growth.

The objectives will be achieved by carrying out a research on the most suitable territorial characteristics to be used as a basis for learning and employment plans, elaborating intervention

tools for empowering women, testing them and making them immediately usable by social workers and educators, and exchanging experiences and good practices on empowerment processes among stakeholders. Furthermore, the partners will take the target group along a participative learning path to strengthen and acquire competences relevant to increase their employability in the tourism sector.

This document is the Executive Summary of the Common Report of the aforementioned research: 'the Intellectual Output 1/Activity 2 "An integrated reading of the territories"'. It briefly presents the main aspects of the research carried out across Europe and in each partner country: on one hand, the legal and social frameworks of gender discrimination in employment, and on the other, the characteristics of the territories and the employment opportunities in sustainable tourism.

A. First Section:
Gender Discrimination Across Europe

2. INTRODUCTION TO THE FIRST SECTION: GENDER DISCRIMINATION ACROSS EUROPE

The main Social Scoreboard indicator for gender equality in the labour market is the gender employment gap, which in 2016 was of 11.5 percentage points (pps) for the EU-28[1],[2]. Employment rates are generally even lower for women aged 55 to 64. The gender gap in part-time work remains high, as it is usually the woman who reduce her working hours to carry the bulk of family responsibilities. Losses in GDP per capita attributable to gender gaps in the labour market have been estimated at up to 10% in Europe (Cuberes and Teignier-Baqué, 2016).

With the working-age population declining in most member countries due to strong ageing prospects, raising female employment rates by bringing more women into the labour supply is paramount. Continuous efforts are needed to tackle gender gaps and move towards a dual model in which both men and women can be income earners and caregivers. The EU has been at the forefront of promoting gender equality, motivating some reluctant member states along this path. The first step was taken in 1957, when the EU established the principle of equal pay through the Treaty of Rome. Despite the progress[3], **gender inequality remains a defining characteristic of European labour markets**. Women are still far from achieving full economic independence: compared to men, women's careers remain concentrated in lower-paying sectors, work an average of 6 hours more per week (paid and unpaid) while having fewer paid hours[4], take more career breaks, have fewer job opportunities, and face fewer and slower promotions.

While the presence of women has increased significantly in some higher-level employments like health, legal, and human resources, the proportion of female engineers or ICT professionals remains low[5]. This is in spite of the fact that women are increasingly well qualified, even surpassing men in terms of educational level. Within the most common occupational categories, women in the EU predominate as cleaners, clerks, personal carers, nursery and primary teachers, and secretaries[6].

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[1] The term EU-28 refers to the data of the European Union considering the 28 countries that constituted it from 2013 to 2020.

[2] Employment rates in 2016 for EU-28: 76.8% for men and 65.3% for women.

[3] Female employment, similar to that of men, continued to increase slowly but steadily, reaching 66.6% in the third quarter of 2017.

[4] https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys/european-working-conditions-surveys/sixth-european-working-conditions-survey-2015.

[5] http://data.consilium.europa.eu/doc/document/ST-12709-2017-ADD-2/en/pdf.

[6] http://www.oecd.org/publications/the-pursuit-of-gender-equality-9789264281318-en.htm.

3. WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE WORKFORCE AT EUROPEAN LEVEL

3.1. The glass ceiling

Empirical evidence suggests the presence of a glass ceiling, a limitation in women's career mobility and advancement through the management ranks. Data from the European Institute for Gender Equality shows that women accounted for just 25% of the board members in the largest publicly listed companies registered in the EU in 2017, although the situation varies significantly between EU member states. Furthermore, according to the Special Eurobarometer poll on gender equality conducted in 2017, 35% of the survey respondents said that men are more ambitious than women. In some member states, this figure rose above 50%.

The scarcity of female managers is the result of a combination of wide-ranging social and cultural factors, including cultural norms, the unequal distribution of care responsibilities and unpaid work at home, insufficient formal care infrastructures, the lack of female role models in senior positions, and the common misconception that women are unavailable for management duties.

3.2. Gender imbalances in the management tier

In 2015, while women accounted for nearly half (48%) of all workers in the EU, just 36% of managers were female. Some of the new member states led the way in terms of equal participation both in labour market and in management[7]. With regard to the gender distribution across sectors, vastly more men than women worked in construction, transport, industry, and agriculture, while women predominated in education and health. However, women were under-represented in managerial positions in relation to their overall share of the workforce in almost every sector[8], even in those with a high number of female workers. Interestingly, and counter-intuitively, the share of women working in a sector does not seem to affect the share of female managers in it.

It goes without question that managers occupy a strategic role, as they have the power to shape practices and policies in the workplace. The under-representation of women in these positions has therefore undeniable repercussions on the work sphere and the labour market. Although numbers of female managers have steadily increased over the past decade, management still remains primarily a male domain. Despite years of gender equality legislation, the limited presence of women in management positions in European workplaces illustrates the magnitude of the challenge, and, at the same time, highlights the need for a more concerted effort and comprehensive long-term strategies to drive change. Fortunately, there are signs of a greater

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[7] There were roughly 20 pps between Greece at the lower end and Lithuania at the high end.
[8] The only exception for 2015 was in transport, where women accounted for 20% of the total figure and 22% of the managers.

gender equality in management that offer some hope for dismantling the gendered boundaries that stratify labour markets and limit the progress of working women.

3.3. Part-time employment

The proportion of the EU-28 workforce in the age group 20-64 years reporting that their main job was part-time increased slowly but steadily from 14.9% in 2002 to 19% in 2015, and then fell to 18.5% in 2018. The highest proportions of part-time workers in 2018 were found in the Netherlands (46.8% of workers), Austria, Germany, Belgium, the UK, Sweden, and Denmark (over 21%); and the lowest in Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovakia, Croatia, and Poland (from 1.8% to 6.2%). The gender gap is also marked in part-time work: in 2018, 30.8% of women in employment in the EU worked on a part-time basis, while it was only 8% of the working men. The highest rates among EU member states was in the Netherlands: 73.8% of women vs 23% of men.

3.4. Temporary employment

From 2002 to 2018, the share of persons with a permanent contract slightly decreased in the EU-28, while temporary employment rates rose a little, varying among EU member states[9]. For most member states, limited-duration contracts are more common among lower-status employees, with percentages differing significantly across countries[10] which may reflect national practices, labour supply and demand, employers' growth/downturn estimates, and the ease with which these can hire and fire. The gender gap in temporary employment was not significant at EU level, with 12.6% for men and 13.8% for women in 2018.

3.5. Workers in temporary employment agencies

The percentage of persons who work for a temporary work agency is low at EU level: 2.2% of the employed men and 1.5% of the employed women aged 20-64 in 2018. This form of employment is highest in Slovenia (4.2% for men and 6.0% for women) and Spain (4.1% and 3.6%), whereas it barely exists in Hungary (0.3% each), Greece (0.2% and 0.3%), and the UK (0.6% and 0.5%). The gender gaps were lower than 2 pps in all EU member states.

3.6. Precarious employment

In 2018, 2.1% of employed aged 20-64 in the EU-28 had a precarious employment situation: a lower-than-3-month work contract. The highest proportions were in Croatia, France, Spain, Italy, and Slovenia, as well as the candidate countries Serbia, Montenegro, and North Macedonia. The gender gaps were also lower than 2 pps in all EU member states, with women rates being slightly higher in half of the countries.

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[9] In 2018, the highest temporary employment rates were recorded in Spain, Poland, and Portugal (26.4% to 21.5%); the lowest, in Romania, Lithuania, and Latvia (1.1% to 2.6%).
[10] In Poland, 39.2% of lower-status employees are in temporary employment, whereas in Romania only 2.6%.

3.7. The unbalanced sharing of family responsibilities between women and men

In 2016, more than 50% of the potential female workforce (aged 25-49) in Cyprus, Ireland, Spain, Estonia, Malta and the UK was inactive due to care of children or disabled adults. Part-time work and career breaks have a negative impact on women's hourly wages and their career prospects[11]. The impact of parenthood is reflected by the employment rate of women with children under the age of 6, which, in the EU, is on average more than 8 pps lower than the employment rate of women without children. In Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Slovakia the gap is over 30 pps, while in Estonia, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Finland it is above 15 pps. The gender gap in part-time work is also more acute for people with children, with 38.9% of mothers working part-time as compared to 5.8% of fathers. Similarly, the low employment rate of older women (aged 54-64) may reflect the fact that women are more likely than men to assume care responsibility for elderly or dependant family members with long-term care needs and are thus more likely to reduce their working hours or leave employment altogether.

3.8. Economic disincentives for women to work

Available evidence indicates that women face a significant financial disincentive to work resulting from the design of the tax and benefit systems (such as the increase in the relative marginal effective tax rate for second earners), the high costs for childcare and long-term care services, and high gender gaps in salary.

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[11] Gender Publication - Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now https://www.oecd.org/gender/closingthegap.htm

4. POLICY LEVERS TO ADDRESS ECONOMIC DISINCENTIVES FOR WOMEN TO WORK

4.1. Adjusting tax and benefit systems to reduce financial disincentives for second earners

In most EU countries, the unit of taxation is the individual. However, in some countries couples are taxed jointly (e.g. Germany, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, and Portugal) or couples may opt for joint taxation (e.g. Spain). Shifting from joint taxation systems to individual taxation systems (particularly in countries with high progressivity of taxation), eliminating transferable tax credits between partners, and remove dependant spouse allowances can help reduce work disincentives for the lower income earner.

4.2. Reducing gender pay and pension gaps

Policies should arrange for direct measures to reduce wage inequalities: enforcing antidiscrimination laws, pay transparency, and equal pay; but also facilitate women's access to higher-wage professions and sectors, and tackle gender stereotypes in education, training, and the labour market, through equal pay days, initiatives to attract women to fast-growing industries and high-paying jobs, including ICT and STEM, informing men about primary school and early childhood teachers and personal health care workers being among the top growth occupations and predominantly occupied by women.

5. EUROPEAN GUIDELINES AND PROGRAMMES TO PROMOTE EQUALITY AND SOCIAL AND LABOUR INCLUSION OF WOMEN

In 1995, the Beijing Platform for Action identified 12 critical areas for priority action to achieve equality for women worldwide. Some of these areas are still relevant today also in the EU[12], especially those relating to gender-based violence, economic equality, and opportunities for women in social participation and access to decision-making and relevant positions. According to the 2020 World Economic Forum's (WEF) report[13], the educational, economic, social, and political representation gap between men and women persists 25 years later, highlighting the gaps in STEM and in the economic and political sectors. For the EU, work towards gender equality must focus on access to the job market, salary gap, glass ceiling, work-life balance, poverty, and violence. The EU reaffirmed its strong commitment to gender equality, social justice, non-discrimination and human rights with its Gender Action Plan 2016-2020, and with the Action Plan 2017-2019 addressing gender pay gap as one of its priorities. The European Commission has stated that the difference in salary is related to the fact that women are more likely to assume care responsibilities, have higher figures in part-time jobs, occupy the least qualified jobs, and do not manage to break through the glass ceiling. Some of the most relevant data for 2019 are women's overall employment rate is 11.5 pps lower than men, a 18-pps-full-time employment rate gap (57.4% of women full-time workers vs 75.5% of men) and 22.9 pps for part-time employment (31.1% of working women vs 8.2% for men); and caring responsibilities being the reason for inactivity for almost 31% of inactive women, while only for 4.5% of men. In addition to the injustice it entails, **gender employment gap today brings about an estimated cost of 370 billion euros per year in the EU**. What's more, gender gaps contribute to a pension gap (which was 35.7% in 2017 in the EU), along with higher risk of poverty for women, particularly for women belonging to vulnerable groups, such as migrants or the Roma community.

The **Strategic Engagement for gender equality for 2016-2019**[14] identified more than thirty key actions, with timelines and indicators for monitoring. The focus was on promoting equality in access to employment, career progression, reconciliation of work and private life, equal pay for equal work, integration of migrant women in the labour market, and investment in the provision of childcare infrastructure. As well as raising awareness of rigid gender roles and stereotypes, preventing and combating violence against women, including cyberbullying (it is twice as likely to happen to girls than boys). The plan also identified equality measures in the Erasmus+ programme. Of the whole set of strategies developed for gender equality, the following should be highlighted:

- Promoting gender equality and women's rights worldwide.

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[12] https://www.unwomen.org/es/news/stories/2020/1/compilation-new-years-resolutions
[13] https://www.weforum.org/reports/gender-gap-2020-report-100-years-pay-equality
[14] https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/strategic_engagement_en.pdf

- 75% of women and men in equal employment in 2020.
- Equitable distribution of family and work: equal sharing of time spent on childcare and inclusion of dependant family members on care-related policies.
- Elimination of barriers to entering the labour market for the most vulnerable groups, such as migrant women and single parents.
- Promotion of women's participation in decision-making and in leadership positions, including non-executive directors (at least 40% representation of women), executive directors, and management positions in the Commission (reach 40%).
- Encouragement of female entrepreneurship.
- Gender equality in research.
- Reduction of inequality in wages, pensions, and overall income.
- Combat gender-based violence and improve victim protection and support systems.
- Gender mainstreaming perspective in all EU activities and policies, as well as the UN's Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development, and the Beijing Platform for Action.

Gender mainstreaming, understood as the introduction of equality in all general policies and all phases of public intervention, is key to foster equal treatment and opportunities in public procurement processes, and to avoid bias or discrimination in policies that will need to be corrected afterwards.

The Commission is continuously launching directives aiming to ensure the development of social rights in Europe, crucial for the achievement of effective equality between men and women. These include rules on employment contracts, on access to social protection, and on working time. In order to achieve equality, it is necessary to increase women's employment rate and their pay by stimulating companies to attract and keep female talent, as well as improve the conditions of working parents and caregivers, and increase fathers' involvement in family and childcare responsibilities, so that women are no longer excluded from the labour market nor forced to drop their professional career when becoming mothers. In a press release on women's working conditions and the implications for their professional and social life in 2017[15], Frans Timmermans stated that: *«Living in the 21st century means we need a 21st century attitude towards life and work […]. [I]t is high time we give all people a real choice in how they want to shape their lives, rearing their children, pursuing a career, caring for their elders, living their lives»*. In January 2019, a proposal for a new EU directive on work-life balance was made, with policy and financial measures to support member states in developing legislation against redundancy and for a better reconciliation of family and work for both genders without excessively affecting small and medium-sized enterprises. Some of the measures included:

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[15] https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/IP_17_1006

-<u>Paternity and parental leaves</u>: paternity leave increased to at least 10 working days, at least 4 months of leave per parent, two of which non-transferable, and all family-related leaves to be paid at least at the level of sickness benefit.

-<u>Carer's leave</u>: 5 working days per year for all workers in case of sickness of a direct relative.

-<u>Flexible working arrangements</u>, such as the right to request reduced, part-time or flexible working hours for all working parents with children up to 12 years of age.

The **European Institute for Gender Equality** (EIGE) is the only European Union agency focusing solely on gender equality[16]. They elaborated a **Gender Equality Index** in 2019[17], with six core domains where intervention is needed to curb inequality for women: money, power, time, knowledge, health, and violence. The first two are linked to the work sphere.

Lastly, the **EU 2020 Strategy** aims at achieving higher employment for women and improved provision of formal childcare infrastructure (the so-called Barcelona targets, already confirmed by the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020: reaching 33% attendance for children under the age of 3 and 90% for children between 3 and mandatory school age). To carry out these measures, the EU provides financial resources through the 2014-2020 ESI Funds.

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[16] https://eige.europa.eu/in-brief
[17] https://eige.europa.eu/publications/gender-equality-index-2019-brief-still-far-finish-line

6. ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL REPORTS SECTION 1 (Desk research on Gender Discrimination)

The full National Reports (21 pages) elaborated by the partners in the form of Desk Researches on Gender Discrimination in their respective country and region/s can be consulted on the project website. Below, the result of the process of reviewing the data compiled by the partners, and examining it in detail, so as to reach to a joint report presenting the situation and the capacity of the five countries in regards to gender equality. In some cases, some extra research was necessary, so as to obtain information not present in some of the national documents.

6.1. Up-to-date picture of gender inequality at the national levels

[Figures, charts, extra info and how life is for a woman in each country can be found in the Common Report]

Discrimination at work is illegal across the EU. Still, gender pay gap[18] is a reality in all 5 countries involved in this project, as it is in the rest of the EU. In 2017, women in the EU earned over 16% less per hour than men. Which means that women earn 0,84€ for every 1€ men earn; or, in other words, that women work around 2 months for free each year compared to men. The good news is that the situation is mostly improving: according to data from Eurostat[19], in 2018 the average gender pay gap decreased slightly in all partner countries except for France, and women's employment rates are rising. However, the gender pay gap is not an indicator of the overall labour gender inequalities. When female employment rates are low, pay gaps tend to be lower than average, hence masking the magnitude of the problem. A high pay gap is usually characteristic of a labour market in which women are more concentrated in part-time work or certain sectors/professions. On the contrary, the gender overall earnings gap[20] considers three type of disadvantages women face: lower hourly earnings, fewer hours in paid jobs, and lower employment rates (for example when interrupting a career to take care of children or relatives). According to data from Eurostat for 2014, the gender overall earnings gap in the EU-28 was 39.6%, while it stood at 26.9% in Cyprus, 31% in France, 35.7% in Spain, 43.7% in Italy, and at 45.2% in Germany.

According to the **Global Gender Gap Index** of 2020[21], a ranking on gender equality out of 153 countries, our 5 nations stand as follow: Spain 8th, Germany 10th, France 15th, Italy 76th, and lastly Cyprus 91st. The regional rank (W-Europe and N-America) is: Spain 6th, Germany 7th, France 9th, followed at a distance by Italy on the 19th, and Cyprus on the very last position: 22nd. In regards to the wage equality for similar work, the ranking is: Germany 68th, Cyprus 93st, Spain 115th, Italy 125th, and lastly France 127th.

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[18] Defined as the difference in average gross hourly wage between men and women across the economy.
[19] ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=sdg_05_20.
[20] Understood as the difference between the average annual earnings between women and men.
[21] http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf

The highest difference between the 5 countries can be found in 'Power' (**Gender Equality Index**, data from 2017), both for deputies and party leaders in the major political parties, and for members of the national governments. In national governments, Spain is the only that shows equal numbers for both genders, closely followed by France. Paradoxically, some of the biggest gaps between genders, with similar figures in all countries for 2019, were found on president roles in the largest listed companies.

In terms of education, girls tend to do better in school than boys and have a higher rate in tertiary education. However, professional paths still carry a big gender bias: certain academic disciplines are strongly dominated by one gender. For example, STEM subjects are overwhelmingly chosen by male students, while women often choose degrees in education, medicine and social sciences. Female success at education does not systematically translate into better professional integration either. The job market is also divided into female and male dominated vocations: while women are well integrated into employment in the service sector, they are not in the production sector. Also, once in the labour market, women often still receive significantly lower salaries than men for the same job. And the more women study, the bigger the gap can be. For example, in Italy, a male graduate earns 32.6% more than an undergraduate, while a female graduate earns only 14.3% more. Working towards the elimination of gender stereotypes that may affect the choice of studies and professions is hence crucial.

The widest gender pay differences are in the segment aged 20-49 except for Italy. Gender pay gap is generally higher in the private than it is in the public sector, with the highest unadjusted gender pay gaps in Cyprus and Germany for the private sector, and in Germany and France for public bodies. In all 5 countries there are more women than men working part-time. With Cyprus being the only of the five in which slightly more women than men part-time workers transitioned to full-time work in 2017. Italian female employment rate is among the lowest in Europe[22], and the gender gap in employment rate (18.9%) is the second worse in Europe after Malta, according to the latest ISTAT data. Contrarily, Germany's gender gap in employment rate is the best of the 5. As for the gender pay gap in 2014[23], it was highest in Spain for part-time workers, and in Germany for full-time workers, while Italian female workers had a higher average gross hourly wage than that of men. Unfortunately, the situation swop in the following years.

As for 2019, women are more often involved in informal long-term care of elderly and/or people with disabilities in 4 of the 5 countries participating in this project. Germany is the only member state with a slightly higher male figure[24]. In turn, France shows the highest percentages across the EU for both women and men (32% and 20% respectively). Among these caregivers, more women

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[22] 53% for 20- to 64-year-olds vs 73% for men, and 65% as EU average.

[23] https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs/indicator/ta_livcond_inc_earn_gpg__earn_gr_gpgr2wt/datatable. There is no data for Cyprus nor France for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

[24] https://eige.europa.eu/publications/gender-equality-index-2019-report/informal-care-older-people-people-disabilities-and-long-term-care-services

than men are also in paid employment in 3 of the 5 countries, with Spain having equal numbers and Germany having more men workers with this responsibility.

When it comes to the involvement in caring for or educating their own children/grandchildren at least several times a week, the figures for all 5 countries are closer to the EU average (56% of women and 50% of men), with Germany being the only whose figures for both are lower than the average. France and Spain have reached both Barcelona targets[25]; Germany and Italy are close to reaching them, while Cyprus is the furthest of the fifth from them.

It is worth mentioning the strong territorial disparities for the various gender gaps within each given country, for example in pension gaps between East (former GDR states) and West Germany; in tertiary education gaps between northern and central peninsular sections and southern regions in Italy; and in the four French overseas territories –Martinique, Guadeloupe, French Guiana and Reunion– compared to mainland, where 'very strong difficulties of access to employment for women, but also for men' were confirmed by a study from the **CGET Territories Observatory**[26] in 2019.

Although, legally, men and women are equal in all 5 countries, there is a cultural and social inequality of the genders in all of them, besides the disparity between territories. While women are less likely to lose their job, it is harder for them to re-enter the job market after unemployment, and are more likely to take the majority of the parental leave (lower income and negative influences on their career in the long-term) even though, parents are generally entitled to equal periods of absence. Promotion, monitoring and support for equal opportunities becomes, therefore, essential. The main issues found are: differences in pay to the detriment of women, low female participation in the labour market, gender stereotyped professions, female under-representation in politics and executive positions, and over-representation in atypical[27] and precarious jobs, family-related employment interruptions, lack of care services for children and elderly, and violence against women, especially sexual harassment.

6.2.   National policies to combat female discrimination

Some policies come from the transposition of EU directives into the national level, but in any case, the decision to make it successful lies within. For example, the European Commission marked 4 November as the EU's Equal Pay Day to raise awareness of gender pay gap. Today only 13 EU countries have an equal pay day, amid which are Germany and Spain.

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[25] The Barcelona targets aims for at least 33 % of children below the age of 3, and 90 % of children between 3 and mandatory school age in childcare.

[26] https://www.cget.gouv.fr/actualites/6-types-de-territoires-caracterisent-l-acces-a-l-emploi-des-femmes

[27] Typical employment is that which is based on a legal job contract, concluded for an indefinite period of time, which results in performing the work for one entity under its subordination, in specified working hours, specified place and full-time. Such employment should also guarantee a high level of social security. According to the above, any employment which does not meet all the aforementioned requirements should be defined as atypical.

Specific national policies by country:

CYPRUS:

Despite being the last of the 5 to enter the EU (2004), the transposition of EU directives on gender equality into Cyprus's national laws is complete and has begun to have a positive effect. Unfortunately, their effectiveness continues to be tied to political developments. National strategy focuses on gender mainstreaming although, there is no binding legislative framework for it, and consecutive **National Action Plans on Gender Equality** present specific yet non-binding actions.

FRANCE:

Policies on gender discrimination in France benefit of a high level of priority, focusing on pay gap, gap in annual pay rises, gap in promotions, pay rises after a maternity leave, and parity in salary. There is a profuse legislation covering other aspects, such as: gender balance in management (must be over 20%), parity in elections, moral and sexual harassment at home, at work and in the public transport, violence against women, parental leave, allowance for parents after separation or divorce, abortion, free breast cancer screening, 14,5% VAT reduction for feminine hygiene products, and social campaigns *#BalanceYourPig* and *#MeToo* encouraging sexually assaulted or harassed women to share their testimonies. The main policy driver is the French government, and gender mainstreaming is guaranteed through the Interministerial Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality. The CGET Territories Observatory provides an online application on women's employment: *Sofie*.

In 2018, gender equality was designated a major national cause for the five-year period. And on 8 March, culminating the ***Tour de France de l'Égalité*** equality measures were announced at work, in public transport, in sports, in schools, in media, advertising and the Internet, on everyday rights, and for an exemplary public service. An index for gender equality to measure the annual progress on the matter in companies with at least 50 employees was created, with penalties of up to 1% of the wage bill for an index under 75 points within 3 years.

GERMANY:

Gender equality was added to the German law only in 1994, and still is a work in progress. In 2011, German federal government committed to publishing an equality report every legislative period (4 years). In 2017 the goal was to reduce the gender pay gap to 10% by 2030 (in 2016 it was 21%).

Both the federal government and all 16 states have implemented a number of policies to enhance gender equality specially regarding the labour market, violence against women and health care, including: a hotline for victims of sexual harassment, rape, or human trafficking in 2013; confidential birth legalized in 2014; equal participation in leadership positions in the private and public sectors, reconciliation of family, care and work, and a minimum wage in 2015; a fixed 30% gender quota to new vacancies on supervisory boards and for the federal government, and sexual self-determination of women (non-consensual sexual acts entered criminal law) in 2016; pay

transparency in 2017. The Maternity Protection Act guarantees a minimum 14-week paid maternity leaves, protection against dismissal after birth, and parental allowance during unpaid leave.

2020 was declared '**gender equality year**', with the Digital German Women's Archive, *Girl's Day*, *Initiative Klischeefrei*, *Komm*, and *mach MINT*, targeted at reducing gendered job choices and promoting STEM among girls and young women.

ITALY:

Italy lacks an effective strategy to promote women's inclusion in the labour market that integrates different policy areas (education, taxation, etc.). The **National Code of Equal Opportunities for Women and Men** is the present legal framework on the topic. Policies and actions by the Italian government include: recognition of domestic work in 1993, sexual violence criminalised in 1996, tools to prevent and stop all forms of discrimination in 2005, stalking punishable offence in 2009, a fixed 33% gender quota to boards of directors and local governments in 2015, care and childcare services and incentives for employers hiring women.

Lazio region's strategy focuses on work-life balance, educating on a culture of respect of the differences, and fighting gender stereotypes, and gender violence. *Comuni alla Pari* is a certificate for local authorities promoting gender equality, equal opportunities, women's participation, and gender mainstreaming. It includes a point system, useful for public calls for proposals.

SPAIN:

In 2007, the Government of Spain created an **Equality Unit** in each ministerial department, and committed to approve a **Strategic Plan for Equal Opportunities** at the beginning of each legislative period (4 years) with strategies and measures to promote equality.

Spanish policies aim for an equal treatment and opportunities in employment, business, work-life balance, research, politics, education, training, culture, etc., through measures applicable to companies, public employees and freelancers, including 16-week maternity and paternity leaves; 12-month workday reduction for 'breastfeeding' for both parents, even simultaneously; work-life balance; bonus for freelance women due to birth, adoption, fostering, or risk during pregnancy or breastfeeding, and quota reduction upon return to work; protocol against sexual harassment; equal treatment and opportunities training for recruitment personnel and decision makers; gender mainstreaming; **Gender Equality Plans** in the General State Administration and its autonomous bodies, and for companies with at least 50 employees; subsidies to small and medium-sized enterprises to implement Equality Plans; and a company salary register (companies must prove non-discrimination when the average gender pay gap is 25% or higher).

6.3. Institutional players and Multilevel Governance.

The national equality bodies part of the European Network of Equality Bodies (Equinet)[28] are: *Γραφείο Επιτρόπου Διοικήσεως (Ομπουτσμαν) - Αρχική Σελίδα* (Commissioner for Administration and Human Rights (Ombudsman) in **Cyprus**, *Défenseur des Droits* (Defender of Rights) in **France**, *Antidiskriminierungsstelle* (Federal Anti-Discrimination Agency) in **Germany**, *Comitato Nazionale di Parità* (National Equality Councillor) belonging to the *Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali* in **Italy**, and *Instituto de la Mujer* (Women's and Equal Opportunities Institute) in **Spain**. Other institutional and multilevel actors working on gender policies per country are:

Main **Cypriot** national policy drivers are: National Machinery for the Advancement of Women, Parliamentary Committee on Gender Equal Opportunities, Gender Equality Committee in Employment and Vocational Training, Technical Committee on Gender Equality, Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies, and Cyprus Women's Lobby.

In **France**: Ministry of Women's Rights, High Council for Gender Equality, National Assembly's Delegation for Women's Rights, Senate's Delegation for Women's Rights, Social, Cultural and Environmental Counselling, Ministry for Home Affairs, and the Interministerial Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality.

Germany counts with: Ministry for Families, Seniors, Women, and Youth; a department dedicated to gender equality in each state; German Federations of Trade Unions (DGB) on local, national, and international levels; *Deutscher Frauenrat*; *Deutscher Akademikerinnenbund e.V.*; and *LandFrauenverband e. V.*. Federal agencies and public companies with more than 100 employees must appoint an equal opportunities commissioner. In Saxony, gender equality is responsibility of the State Ministry for Social Issues and Consumer Protection.

In **Italy**: National Equality Committee, formed by the National Equality Councillor, unions, cooperatives, women's movements and civil servants; and Equality Councillors at national, but also regional and provincial level; Department of Equal Opportunities; and a network of anti-violence centres. In the Lazio region, is the Regional Observatory on Equal Opportunities and Violence against Women. In Sicily, the *Comitato Unico di Garanzia* (CUG).

In **Spain**: Council for Women's Participation belonging to the Ministry of Equality at national and regional level; Castile-La Mancha Women's Institute at regional level; and Torrijos Women's Centre at local level.

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28   https://ec.europa.eu/info/policies/justice-and-fundamental-rights/gender-equality/who-we-work-gender-equality/national-gender-equality-bodies_en

6.4. Female entrepreneurship

Women make up over half of Europe's population, yet only 34.4% are registered as self-employed and just 30% as start-up entrepreneurs, with a big difference within sectors. The reasons for these disparities are socio-cultural, economic, but also educational. Despite the difficulty to find statistical studies that include all the countries involved in this project, the data found shows that the situation is no different in them[29]. Consistent with data from the OECD, self-employment rates for 2018 were the lowest of the five countries for Germany, for both genders, and the highest was for Italy, again for both genders. Male rates were notably superior than that of women in all territories. Good news is that female entrepreneurship is increasing in all 5 countries. While it is worth keeping an eye on European organizations and initiatives[30] such as Women Entrepreneurs project or WEgate-platform, hereunder are some at the national levels aiming at women's visibility and impact, role models, business creation and opportunities, recognition, training, or mentoring.

In **Cyprus**: Youth and Women's Entrepreneurship Support Plans; She-Experts initiative; Women's Entrepreneurship Support Scheme; Business and Professional Women Cyprus.

In **France**: Women's Entrepreneurship Promotion Network, Small Business Act, Female Ambassadors of Female Entrepreneurship (FAME) project. And support networks, such as ADIE, France Active, Initiative France and BGE.

Germany supports female entrepreneurship through peer-learning networks, access to financing, and supportive regulation.

Italy's approach focuses on facilitating access to funding: grants, loans and other incentives for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises.

In **Spain**: Business Support Program for Women-PAEM by the Spanish Chamber of Commerce; and 4 programs by the National Institute of Women and for Equal Opportunities (Female managers; *More Woman, Better Companies*; *Promotes-Talentia 360*; Women's talent and leadership network).

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[29] http://ec.europa.eu/DocsRoom/documents/7481/attachments/1/translations and https://data.oecd.org/emp/self-employment-rate.htm
[30] https://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/promoting-entrepreneurship/we-work-for/women/

7. ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION 1 INTERVIEWS' RESULTS

Along with the research work and the national reports provided by each of the partners, a series of interviews have also been carried out in each of the territories to learn directly from the stakeholders about their perceptions of different key issues addressed in the research documents. The complete 1st Section interviews by the six partners (16 pages) can be found on the project website. In this chapter, the results are presented in the form of a single analysis by considering and comparing the opinions collected in the national levels. After that, a summary of the responses.

The interviews were structured around a set of questions divided into two blocks: one addressing people's perception of the problems that exist in their societies (questions 1, 4, 5 and 9); while the other tackled issues more related to how the system is currently responding to those matters (questions 2, 3, 6, 7 and 8). Number of interviewees: Women – 34; Men – 5.

The first data to be highlighted is the people interviewed, which amounts to 39, of which 34 (87%) are women. This is in line with the info collected for the desk research with regard to professionals in the social and care field, such as the professionals interviewed (social workers, psychologists, social educators, lawyers, etc.), who are predominantly women.

Another interesting fact is that the general tendency for the first block is to have a more homogeneous response for all the countries, grouping either around the agreement or the disagreement for each item. This suggests that the challenges perceived as a society are shared within the national scales but also beyond country borders. However, when analysing the results of the second block – how the system responds to these issues –, the difference in responses gains prominence, revealing a greater heterogeneity in opinions among the countries but also inside each of them. The clusters are, this time, by country, or even region or municipality, when applicable. Accordingly, it can be said that the five partner countries –perhaps also the EU– face the same challenges when it comes to gender discrimination, but as for now, the type and pace of the institutional responses are uneven.

When addressing question by question, the most outstanding data are, in general terms, the following:

Question 1. In general, gender equality is considered an elemental principle at political and social level, although some respondents think that it is not being respected in their territories. In particular, the Cypriots, seemed to be the least optimistic as of their national situation being equal

(it's worth noting that Cyprus has one of the lowest female participation rates in politics in all EU member states, ranking 2nd to last in the political scores for 2019[31]).

Question 2. While most interviewees seem to agree with the respective national laws sufficiently guaranteeing gender equality in employment, a significant number of disagreeing responses – 3 per country – can be found in Italy - SANSAT, Spain, and also France.

Question 3. The question referring to the quality and quantity of information about women's employment opportunities is the one showing possibly the biggest differences, both inside the countries and among them. The tendency for most countries except for Spain and somewhat Italy, is that the information is enough. However, it seems important to mention the high number of 'I neither agree nor disagree' answers for this question, which most likely comes in line with the responses dragging a distortion due to either a personal lack of information or to general misinformation in that regard. Consequently, and given the differences, there seems to be a widespread feeling that information does exists, but perhaps it is not enough or still to be improved.

Question 4. There is almost a unanimous agreeing response as to the impact of family in gender equality in employment. Without regard to the striking 40% of the Spanish respondents who did not consider this a negative impact.

Question 5. Here, the interviewees shared, in varying degrees, the perception that women encounter difficulties in their career progression and in accessing management positions for reasons of gender.

Question 6. The perception of the national services supporting women's work is very divided between the agreement and the disagreement in each of the countries, and it is divided almost in half when looking at the whole set of responses. It is worth stating that Italians leaned strongly towards the 'insufficiency', while Germans were satisfied with the service they get access to.

Question 7. Related to the previous, and equally heterogeneous in replies, this question concerns the equal distribution of those services throughout the country. As mentioned, the perception is very disparate between the countries and to some extent within each of the territories. It is particularly strong in Italy (reporting a clear internal inequality) and France (describing a more homogeneous distribution).

Question 8. When asked about the gender pay gap, most interviewees pointed to the existence of this gap, aside from France, where each one of the respondents registered equal pay for equal work as a national reality.

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[31] https://eige.europa.eu/gender-equality-index/2019/compare-countries/power/1/bar

Question 9. Virtually all responses confirmed the existence of prejudices about women's abilities to work. The three most commonly cited prejudices across all stakeholders were, in decreasing order: women's hourly availability, their difficulties in travelling for medium or long periods of time, and a less common competitive attitude (the first two can be linked to the existence of greater family burdens for women than for men). Be as it may, it is important to highlight that the answers from Germany notably differed from the rest of the interviewees, as these pointed out as a barrier for women in their access to the workforce the perception that they have a low aptitude for the use of technology, along with that they are better than men in administrative and cooperation tasks.

8. POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

The following information is based on the present study and is organized around the main headlines behind the results in gender equality indexes: socio-cultural aspects, family responsibilities, wage gap, and access to decision-making and management positions. Consequently, four recommendations are provided for each of the four issues that have been identified.

8.1. Issue: Gender inequality as a result of a combination of multiple factors from social to cultural, including cultural norms.

Recommendation: To strengthen the gender approach in all training and educational offers in our systems, from early childhood, through primary, secondary, vocational training or university, and other types of complementary education.

Analysis: All the information examined throughout the research work, both from an academic and from a statistical point of view, including the national reports and the interviews, reflect that women in our societies experience a situation of inequality, particularly in regards to their access to the labour market, as it is mostly women who still carry the social and family responsibilities, derived from unresolved socio-cultural patterns. Despite the legislative and regulatory efforts in the last decades – both from European institutions, and from national bodies –, all quantitative and qualitative data show the obstacles that women face. This means that there is an underlying socio-cultural problem that gets reflected in the way women are treated in the labour market. We therefore believe that it is necessary to strengthen the gender focus in all educational policies in order to generate societies where integration into the workforce, and professional development take place in completely egalitarian societies.

8.2. Issue: Inequality in the distribution of family and care responsibilities.

Recommendation: To develop a European legislative framework which allows for the same leave of absence for both mother and father (maternity and paternity leaves), along with greater flexibility in the distribution of working hours, including its reduction, in the case of caring for family members or other dependant persons.

Analysis: Men's share in family and household responsibilities has progressively increased over the last two decades. However, it is still a reality that, in the event of incompatibility between the working realities of a man and a woman within the same family, is the latter's professional performance the one that gets disrupted. This may be due to a physiological reason, such as pregnancy, as well as to other family burdens. Considering this situation, it is necessary to develop a legislative framework that guarantees equal rights and obligations for men and women within the family setting, so that women: are not pushed to abandon their professional careers,

encounter facilities on their reincorporation to labour market after a break, and do not suffer from employers finding disincentives when hiring them because they have a different burden.

8.3. Issue: Existence of a gender pay gap.

Recommendation: Promote the celebration of an Equal Pay Day.

Analysis: European Union has been working constantly in the last decade to end with the existing gender pay gap. The European Commission made equal pay for equal work and work of equal value one of the five key areas for action in its Strategic Engagement for Gender Equality 2016-2019, including a commitment to assess Directive 2006/54/EC in 2016-2017[32]. But together with laws and directives, one of the most powerful tools for achieving the objectives regarding gender equality is visibility, which sparks public debate. Although there is a notion in European society of the absence of equal pay for equal work for men and women, there is still not a clear awareness, and it is not an issue that strongly mobilises citizens. The establishment and celebration of an Equal Pay Day would mean the acknowledgement by European institutions and national bodies of this form of gender discrimination. And it would place it at the forefront of political agendas, and consequently, give space for didactic initiatives to be carried out, increasing societal awareness. Without visibility, without citizen participation, and without political commitment, gender equality will not be an attainable goal in the short term.

8.4. Issue: Women's careers remain concentrated in a limited number of positions, and in specific economic sectors.

Recommendation: To introduce or encourage regulatory measures to ensure the presence of women in boards of directors and other management levels, both in the public and private sectors.

Analysis: Although women's access to the labour market has been increasing over the last decades, female employment rates we have not yet reached those of men. However, this access is limited: women have a strong presence in certain sectors such as health, education, administration, care, or retail, but it is much less numerous in sectors stereotypically associated to men: construction, transport, industry, and agriculture. That problem regarding women's presence can also be observed in scientific, technical, engineering, and mathematical (STEM) occupations which are strongholds of gender segregation. Likewise, women's participation in decision-making positions is scarce. Hence the need to articulate public policies that stimulate the presence of women in sectors that are traditionally male. An encouragement that should have effect in the training stage as much as when later entering the labour market. Similarly, it is necessary a

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[32] https://ec.europa.eu/info/policies/justice-and-fundamental-rights/gender-equality/equal-pay_en

commitment from the competent bodies so as to legislate in the establishment of quotas that set minimum numbers or else reward the presence of women in management and leadership positions, as this is an effective way to guarantee the achievement of an equality scenario in the medium and long term.

B. SECOND SECTION: Enhancement of Cultural Heritage and Proposal of Touristic Itineraries to be developed in the identified territories

9. Introduction to the Second Section: BRIEF APPROACH TO HERITAGE AND ITS DIMENSIONS

9.1. Heritage, territory and landscape

Heritage is no longer reduced to monuments, but rather it includes tangible and intangible elements as the legacy of a certain social group; **territory** is now seen not only as a support for human activity and life, but also as a finite and fragile resource; and **landscape** is identified as a part of the territory in accordance to how it is perceived by its population. Progressive legislation at different administrative levels promote the preservation of heritage, territory and landscape, and the enhancement in their value.

Since the 19th century, the appreciation of heritage and cultural assets has risen thanks to the recognition of their own and/or acquired values, which should be considered when generating a value proposal in a territory.

Use value (market value): capacity of the cultural asset to meet a given need, whether tangible (a concrete use) or intangible (transmission of information).

Material value: Related to its form and composition (technical quality, materials…).

Symbolic value: capacity to evoke and represent the local history and culture.

Historical value: capacity to contribute to historical knowledge.

Emotional value: capacity to transmit emotions. It depends on the particular individual's education and sensitivity, as well as the circumstances when approaching the asset.

Territory is the container of social practices adapted to the needs of the community, and loaded with symbolic meanings in the individual and collective memory. In recent decades, its understanding as an inherited element with an historical basis and as a cultural and economic resource has risen.

Landscape is the evolving visual appearance of the land as a result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors. With marked aesthetic and cultural values that are constantly evolving, it contributes to the formation of natural and cultural heritage, and consolidates the territorial identity.

9.2. Roots, identities, and community: the sense of place

The term *sense of place* denotes certain spiritual worth of an inhabited place, which is given by the set of meanings that its inhabitants give to it. As it is linked to heritage, landscape and territory, the *sense of place* of a given location becomes an element of attraction for tourists: a tourism resource.

10. ANALYSIS OF HERITAGE SITES

10.1. Types of heritage

Tangible heritage is the most visible and therefore the easiest to identify. It comprises landscapes, real estate, domestic, religious or festive transferable goods, as well as those products resulting from the adaptation to local conditions and traditions. It is a manifestation of the daily and shared life of the social groups that inhabited a territory and illustrates architectural style/s.

Intangible heritage is the values, meanings, and practices associated to the physical or non-physical elements of a territory. Comprises the oral traditions and expressions, including language and music; beliefs, celebrations and performing arts; ways of social organization; knowledge and practices concerning nature; construction, manufacturing and craft techniques; as well as gastronomy and culinary culture. Its transmission from generation to generation give a sense of identity to the local community.

UNESCO[33] defined **Intangible Cultural Heritage** as "the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge and know-how, transmitted from generation to generation within communities, created and transformed continuously by them, depending on the environment and their interaction with nature and history". It is considered living heritage as it is an ever-evolving result of interactions.

Cultural heritage, according to the *Faro Convention* (2005), is "a group of resources inherited from the past which people identify, independently of ownership, as a reflection and expression of their constantly evolving values, beliefs, knowledge and traditions. It includes all aspects of the environment resulting from the interaction between people and places through time".

Architectural heritage is the set of built assets of any nature to which each society attributes a cultural value. Today, the term includes every construction that is representative of a certain cultural identity, from a traditional house to historical gardens.

Archaeological heritage is "all remains and objects and any other traces of mankind from past epochs; the preservation and study of which help to retrace the history of mankind and its relation with the natural environment; for which excavations or discoveries and other methods of research into mankind and the related environment are the main sources of information" (CoE[34]). The management of this type of heritage should focus on planning and prevention, and has to consider that any action on archaeological heritage, whether declared or not, requires administrative authorisation; and that all archaeological assets, discovered or not, are of public domain.

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[33] UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003).
[34] The European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage of the Council of Europe (1992).

Industrial heritage is defined by the *Nizhny Tagil Charter* (2003) as the remains of industrial culture which are of historical, technological, social, architectural or scientific value. Consisting of buildings and machinery, as well as places used for social activities related to industry such as housing, religious worship or education.

Documentary heritage are those documents: generated by any public body; over 40 years old generated by political, union, religious, or private cultural and educational entities; over 100 years old generated by private individuals; and also, contemporary documents whose preservation is considered imperative.

Bibliographic heritage is formed by publicly owned libraries and collections; literary, historical, scientific or artistic works, whether handwritten or printed, and copies of cinematographic film editions, records, photographs, audiovisual and similar for which public services do not hold at least 3 copies, or 1 for films.

Agricultural heritage are the natural and cultural elements, tangible and intangible, generated or used by the agricultural activity throughout history, such as utensils or tools, farmhouses, irrigation systems, livestock trails, local varieties and breeds, seeds, etc. Their recognition as heritage should safeguard their cultural value.

10.2. The look of landscape

Cultural landscapes illustrate the evolution of human society and its settlements over time and under the influence of the physical constraints and/or opportunities presented by their natural environment and of successive external and internal social, economic and cultural forces (World Heritage Committee). CoE first linked cultural landscapes' the spatial heritage with leisure in 1987 with *Santiago de Compostela Pilgrim Routes*. We can give our regions a touristic value by treating them as cultural landscapes and designing cultural routes to explore them.

Territory and landscape can become the foundation for tourism activities: translating its resources into products would incorporate them into the collective perception as tourism resources, similar to hotel infrastructures. For example, rural tourism *sells* unspoiled cultural and natural landscapes.

10.3. Merging and converging of cultures across borders

Relationships generated in space and time between societies form the basis on which the different cultures have left their mark, forming, over time, a common identity, and continuously enriching culture and heritage with art or agricultural techniques, utensils, festivals, recipes, and so on. If the cultural integration is unsuccessful it might trigger hostile behaviours towards the visitors.

11. THE INVOLVEMENT OF HERITAGE IN TOURISM

Tourism is "a social, cultural and economic phenomenon related to the movement of people to places outside their usual place of residence for personal or business/professional reasons" (UNWTO, 2013). It originated in the *Grand Tour* years (17th century) as a consequence of the commodification of culture. Benefiting from the European peace of 1871 to 1914, travel changed its educational purpose for that of pleasure, and got **seasonality** as a novel factor. **Mass tourism** emerged in the 1950s with the welfare state. In the mid-20th century, cultural heritage got a touristic value: an irreplaceable spiritual, cultural, social and economic capital, acting as an important focus for tourist attraction. Once tourism got linked to leisure and recreation, seeking to move away from the everyday or productive spaces towards *places of escape*, operators started to offer destinations with *must-see attractions*. At the end of 20th century, **alternative tourism** appeared, characterised by the search for *unique products* as opposed to mass destinations. Regulation of tourism in order to protect heritage started appearing. The renewed *Cultural Tourism Charter* of 1999 suggested for heritage management to use the economic benefits from tourism to preservation, educating the host community and visitors, and influencing related policies. With time, tourism consumption patterns have changed drastically. Today, tourism is among the main generators of employment and export earnings in the world, so the ability to search for new market niches and the adoption of environmental, economic and social sustainability criteria are mandatory.

Tourism unfolds via its **actors** (tour operators, travel agencies, companies, information offices, public bodies, tourists, and local community), **activities** (organization, transport, provision of goods and services), and **products** ('packed for easy consumption' either by tour operators/travel agencies or by the tourists themselves). On a large scale, 3 niche markets can be identified:

- **Independent travellers** go alone or in small groups, attracted by a more unique experience. The information is found personally.

- **Specialised tourism** focuses on a specific product/activity, such as photography, history, wildlife watching, or sports. This market is highly dependent on business activity.

- **General tourism package market** aims at cultural attractions such as historical sites or buildings, or leisure activities or events. For standard travellers who want easiness.

Since heritage became a commodity that is exhibited and sold to the tourist as customer, **cultural tourism** turned very successful. It divides into four typologies: **educated tourism** (solely driven by specific cultural motivations), **monumental tourism** (after a specific cultural landmark or event), **heritage tourism** (focused on what is acknowledged as 'cultural heritage'), and **tourism of cultures** (seeking to know other ways of life; a "live" product. Closely linked to Intangible Cultural Heritage).

The consumption of cultural tourism generates a series of **impacts**. The benefits are for the **tourist** (educational), the **destination** (extra care of public spaces and services) and the **locals** (direct or indirect employment). But an extreme tourism growth stimulates a **trivialisation** of cultural heritage (Dysneyfication; leading to a superficial discovery of heritage), an **uncritical view of the past** by which controversial issues (racism, slavery, etc.) are eliminated in order not to produce discomfort, **over-exploitation**, and frictions between destinations and visitors.

Tourism must respect the natural, cultural and human factors of the destinations, and its development shall be ecologically bearable in the long term, economically viable, and ethically and socially equitable for local communities.[35] Management of tourism should aim, through the cooperation of all stakeholders, to boost natural and cultural heritage to make them a source of income, while considering the **carrying capacity**[36] and the **resilience** of the destination, as well as the preservation of tangible and intangible heritage, identity, natural resources, biodiversity and capacity for assimilating impacts and residues, etc.

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[35] Sustainable Tourism Charter, 1995.
[36] According to UNWTO, "the maximum number of people that may visit a tourist destination at the same time, without causing destruction of the physical, economic, socio-cultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of visitors' satisfaction".

12. DEVELOP YOUR PROJECT: TAKE ACTION IN THE FIELD OF HERITAGE

A project aimed at valuing and developing territory, landscape, and cultural heritage, should start by identifying potential tourism resources. These would be any natural, cultural or leisure-related assets that can trigger the movement of people to see them in their original context. Some examples are beaches, rivers, forests, mountains, monuments, museums, crafts, festivals, folklore, theme parks, water parks, golf courses, and spas. These elements of attraction will determine the choice of the destination by a tourist. Yet, their economic exploitation comes through the creation of different products in order to satisfy the needs of potential visitors for unique experiences above the competitors. These products can take the form of:

- **Tourist routes**: cultural and/or natural resources with a common denominator compiled in one single itinerary. The territory must own the means and the infrastructure required for the routes (communication, transport, accommodation, hotel and catering business, guides).

- **Thematic trips**: a more complex version of the routes for a specialised audience, based on a particular taste or hobby. This type requires a greater organization.

- **Tourist circuits**: routes organised by a specialised company include a perfectly defined itinerary, plus all accommodation and food, for a stipulated price.

- **City breaks**: short trips in cities. Here, the motivations are certain destinations, proximity to other cities and the economic flexibility of this model.

- **Day trips**: movement of visitors en masse from major tourist attractions to the surroundings.

Any project must be designed in accordance with existing policies, stakeholders and resources, together with having a clear idea of what is wished to be done, with whom and why, in the search for the greatest possible impact that will lead to the social acceptance of the project.

Then, a workflow should be established according to the activities and tasks to be developed, and the time frame and the person in charge of each of them.

Table 1: Example of elements to consider in the design of a project

IDENTIFICATION OF RESOURCES	MOTIVATION	WHO	SWOT	IMPACT
- Tangible heritage - Intangible cultural heritage - Architectural heritage - Archaeological heritage - Industrial heritage - Documentary heritage - Bibliographic heritage - Agricultural heritage - Cultural landscape	- Social: job placement for people at risk of social exclusion. - Patrimonial: valorisation of local heritage resources from a tourism perspective.	- Students: women at risk of social exclusion - Teachers-experts: staff involved in the project - Institutions: museums, libraries, town councils, education centres, local businesses, etc. - Population (awareness and transmission of local heritage values)	- Strengths: revitalization of cultural spaces; economic boost - Weaknesses: poorly conserved cultural assets; rootlessness among local people and heritage - Opportunities: dissemination and conservation of heritage; strengthen sense of place - Threats: scarcity of funds; competition from nearby destinations	- Dissemination in press and social media for visibility. - Advertising campaigns offering the tourist resources generated. - Workshops and tools to educate society in heritage, and values. - 'Open for renovation': an activity that allows the population to discover in situ the evolution of a rehabilitative, restorative process.

Source: The authors

12.1. Basic working guidelines

The description of the territories in which the actions are to be developed and in which the trained women (the beneficiaries of the project) will work should include: basic characteristics of the country, region or local area (extension, population, language/s, religion/s, etc.), collected in an "identity card"; historical hints with a focus on the merging of cultures; short description of the environment, natural and cultural resources, local traditions, under-developed/enhanced sites (unknown places, monuments, museums, archaeological sites, houses of historical figures); and existing and required tourist infrastructures. In addition, a description of the identified itineraries with existing maps.

The needed infrastructures, both the already present in the territory, and those that do not exist but are considered necessary for the development of the itinerary include: access, communication network (car, train, plane, ship, parking…), water and energy supply and disposal, accommodation, restaurants, etc., together with businesses and organizations involved in the provision of the tourism product, such as signposts on the route.

In the Pro-WOMEN project, the proposal justification behind the creation of tourist itineraries by the partners is to help women at risk of social exclusion to find a job. For that purpose, they will get trained in the dissemination and maintenance of those itineraries.

It is essential to identify the needs of restoration or rehabilitation of certain elements that may constitute a touristic resource, but whose tourist exploitation will need, for instance, adaptation measures or to tackle the risk of disappearance of some remains that build on the community identity.

Finally, it will be necessary to develop a series of measures for the project implementation and dissemination. For example, the advertising (brochures, souvenirs, web sites…) and visitor dissemination (tour guide).

The exchange of work experiences with other stakeholders will be essential, as well as the dissemination of the development of our own project through social media, blog/web, fairs/events, publications, etc.

13. ANALYSIS OF THE SECTION 2 INTERVIEWS' RESULTS

In this chapter, a short version of the Identity cards and itineraries are presented. The long version of the documents elaborated by the partners –one Identity card[37] of the region, and 4 itineraries per country – can be consulted on the project website.

This chapter presents the analysis performed by considering and comparing the results of all the interviews collected by the partners in their respective countries. After it, a summary of the responses. The complete grids for collecting answers regarding the interviews for the 2nd Section can be found on the project website.

The interviews are structured around a set of questions divided into two topics: one connected with portraying tourism in each region (the first 9 questions); the other, to addressing gender issues in the tourism sector (the remaining 5 questions). Number of interviewees: Women – 37; Men – 17.

At first, the aim is to identify the role that tourism plays in each territory. Most of the partners' results – Cyprus, France, Italy and Spain – show that the tourism activity is developing favourably in their area; however, in Germany they differ: tourism is not believed to be sufficiently developed in Leipzig due to the significant foreign population in the area and the prejudices about insecurity related to them, as well as to the lack of professionals who could handle this situation. For Italy, the respondents from Rome, considering the wide tourist offer of the city, focused attention on the elements of sustainability and accessibility of the sites for vulnerable people.

As for the presence of a recognisable tourism brand/image, all partners agree on its presence in their territories, being essential for attracting visitors. However, the respondents from Rome, highlighted the absence of a brand that takes into account the aspect of accessibility.

Next, the focus is on establishing the type of tourism present in each of the territories, along with the resources that exist for satisfying current demands. Both issues are related, so depending on the resources present, one or another type of tourism would take place. In this regard, partners' results match almost completely, as both cultural and natural tourism are mentioned as the main types, with Cyprus showing a greater variety that includes relax, mass and business tourism. Generally speaking, with regard to the resources in the territories, gastronomy, monuments, and folklore are more or less the most significant ones in all of them. Museums, and landscapes would follow in terms of relevance.

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[37] The partner Obiettivo Famiglia – Federcasalinghe alone elaborated 4 identity cards; the rest of the partners elaborated one each.

In general, associations and public institutions stand out as the main potential tourism partners, followed by cultural heritage.

The first set of questions concludes around the presumable positive impact that the development of tourism could have on local infrastructure and/or services, with the results noticeably differing between the partner countries. Nonetheless, we could say that for all countries both 'transport' and 'nature and leisure' appear as plausibly being positively impacted.

It is in the second part – the one referring to gender issues in the field of tourism (employability, pay gap, etc) – where the greatest dispersion of results takes place. In Cyprus and France these issues seem to not be considered relevant. Whilst in Germany, the opinions are rather heterogeneous, arguing, in general, that gender issues should be addressed from a broader social point of view, and not focusing exclusively on their impact in the tourism sector. Additionally, the results from Spain reveal that tourism, in the partner's regional context, presents a significant over-representation of women and that inequality rates, such as the pay gap, are lower than in other sectors.

The disparity in results fades in the last questions, where tourism is considered to have positive impacts on workers in terms of developing skills and abilities to achieve a social improvement and better employability. With regard to the required competences, the respondents from Rome highlighted the importance of communication skills also towards disable people or children.

Finally, and due to the general similarities in opinion in the whole assemblage of surveys, despite the obvious territorial and/or social differences, we can conclude that a common work line can be established that will be extrapolatable to each region. Naturally, it will be then left to the partners to adapt that work to their particular interests and idiosyncrasy.

Each partner selected some areas in their countries, outlining 4 itineraries and identifying for each one the specific characteristics the from the cultural, monumental/archaeological, artistic, naturalistic and gastronomic perspectives.

The itineraries can be consulted on the project website.