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Men and health promotion in the UK: twenty years further forward?

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Abstract
Despite overall improvements in life expectancy, rates of premature male mortality, particularly for men in areas of deprivation, remain an important issue of concern in the United Kingdom (UK). Interventions to engage men and promote their health and wellbeing have developed, albeit sporadically, over recent decades in response to this health inequity. This paper provides a ten year update on the state of men’s health promotion in the UK. It begins by highlighting changes in male life expectancy, and possible explanations for these shifts, including a relative failure to address mental health promotion and male suicide, before providing detail about how practice approaches to men’s health promotion have evolved over the period 2005-2016. Such changes are not removed from the wider socio-economic context. The paper therefore then considers movements in the policy context and possible influences of this before exploring the challenges that remain in men’s health promotion in the UK. We suggest that, despite certain improvements in the practice of men’s health promotion and in men’s health outcomes, issues remain in terms of premature mortality particularly for certain groups of men. We further suggest that many of the difficulties in improving and promoting the health of men further lie with a market-driven neoliberal policy context that engenders inequality through the inequitable distribution of and access to material resources and through individualistic approaches to health promotion that serve men from economically and socially disadvantaged locations least well.

Keywords
Men’s health, health promotion, public health, gender and health, masculinity

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Introduction

Within the United Kingdom (UK), the state of men’s health, particularly men’s lower life expectancy, high rates of premature mortality in low-income groups, and male mental health (including suicide), continues to cause concern (Marmot, 2010). Difficulty in engaging men in healthy practices, and in health promotion interventions, is believed to play a particular role within this (Banks & Baker, 2013). Twenty years ago, Robertson (1995) mapped the state of men’s health promotion in the UK showing the limited number and impact of health promotion interventions available. He repeated the process with a colleague ten years later (Robertson & Williamson, 2005) highlighting the progress that had been made in developing and delivering such interventions and the promising policy shifts that had occurred but also pointing out the challenges that remained and suggesting possible ways forward. This paper continues this ten year review of men’s health promotion in the UK. It begins by mapping patterns in men’s life expectancy, reviewing where progress has been made and where there are still significant challenges. It then considers changes in men’s health promotion over the last ten years, places these changes within the wider social and policy context, and finishes by examining the challenges that remain.

Men’s life expectancy, progress and challenges

Men’s life expectancy in the UK continues to improve and is doing so at a greater rate than women’s with some epidemiological models predicting that sex-differences in life expectancy will be less than 2yrs by 2030 (Bennett et al, 2015). However, a four-year gap currently remains (ONS, 2014a) and much of this is due to higher rates of premature mortality (below 65 years) amongst men compared to women (European Commission, 2011). Importantly, there is also a significant social gradient in male mortality: in England and Wales in 2008-10, men aged 25-64 in the highest socio-economic group had a mortality rate 3.4 times lower than men in the lowest group (ONS, 2013). A further, persistent, reason for these differences in premature death relates to sex-differences in suicide: the male suicide rate in 2013 was the highest since 2001 and men now account for 78% of suicides (ONS, 2015b). In addition, there are other known health inequalities between groups of men. Men from particular ethnic backgrounds report higher rates of long-standing illness (ESRC Centre on Dynamics of Ethnicity, 2013), higher rates of mortality (Wild et al, 2007) and are disproportionally represented in aspects of the mental health service such as admissions via crisis-related routes, greater length of in-patient stay and receiving more physical interventions (including restraint and ECT) rather than counselling or psychotherapy (Robertson, Robinson, Gough & Raine, 2016). Similarly, a study by Guasp (2012) showed rates of depression, anxiety and attempted suicide were all higher in gay and bisexual men than men in general.

Many of the advances in men’s life expectancy have taken place beyond the age of 60yrs and half of these relate to improvements in the prevention and treatment of coronary heart disease (White et al, 2014). There are other possible, less positive, reasons for the narrowing of this sex difference in life expectancy. These include rising deaths from lung cancer amongst women (ONS, 2014b) - because current death rates in men and women reflect past smoking behaviour and women’s smoking rates peaked later than men’s - and shifts in drinking practices. Whilst men remain more frequent drinkers than women the rates of frequent drinking have fallen by 8% for men (to 14%) but by only 4% amongst
women (to 9%) in the last ten years (ONS, 2015a) suggesting we will likely see a gradual merging of rates of alcohol related deaths (similar to that noted for smoking and lung cancer deaths) over the coming years.

There is general recognition of men’s less frequent use of many primary care services - such as general practice, pharmacy and dental care (Banks & Baker, 2013) – and these sex differences in consultation rates in general practice are explained, in part, by women attending for sexual and reproductive health issues (Wang et al, 2013). Interestingly, there is also emerging evidence of similarities in patterns of help-seeking for several physical ill-health symptoms (e.g. Wang et al, 2013; Wang et al, 2014) but, importantly for this paper, there are clear and significant differences in help-seeking for mental health (psycho-social) concerns (e.g. Hunt et al, 1999). This difficulty in male engagement and coping around mental health or distress remains a serious concern (Wilkins & Kemple, 2011; Samaritans, 2012), particularly in light of the high rate of male suicides. In addition, it is suggested that depression in men is often under-diagnosed as the diagnostic tools used to screen for this use mainly ‘feminised’ measures; that is, the language used (e.g. ‘feeling loved’, ‘butterflies in the stomach’) and the question areas covered (e.g. loss of interest in appearance) accurately pick up how depression presents in women but mainly fail to pick up the ways it presents in men. Consequently, some have developed specific measures, such as the Gotland Scale (Martin et al 2013), for more accurately identifying depression in men as these scales consider ‘alternative symptoms’ (such as aggression, anger, substance misuse), as well as incorporating more ‘traditional symptoms’ such as feeling tired and difficulty making decisions. When using such scales, rates of male depression are shown to be higher than previously thought (Martin et al, 2013).

**Tracing changes in practice**

Robertson (1995) and Robertson & Williamson (2005) suggested that health promotion interventions for men tended to fall into three categories: medical screening; sporadic approaches (mainly one-off events or brief campaigns); and holistic approaches. We utilise the same categories here - though rename the last one ‘community-based approaches’ believing this term offers a more accurate description of such interventions.

There have been some significant developments in medical screening and ‘health-check’ programmes available to men in the last ten years. England has seen the introduction of the National Bowel Cancer Screening Programme for men (and women) aged between 60-74yrs, a National Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm (AAA) screening programme for men aged 65yrs and a general ‘Health Check’ programme for everyone between the ages of 40 and 74. Since 2007, the National Chlamydia Screening Programme in England has also actively targeted men. The other three countries of the UK offer similar bowel cancer and AAA screening programmes but differ in their approach to the general health check which is a deprivation-targeted (i.e. not universal) programme in Scotland, an online, self-assessment, programme in Wales, and does not exist as a national programme in Northern Ireland. Prior to the last ten years there were no national screening programmes that included men so these are recent and important developments.

Current figures show uptake of bowel cancer screening to be slightly lower for men than women (53% for men and 58% for women; Public Health England, 2014). The AAA programme has only recently had full national roll out across all UK countries and current uptake is relatively high at over 78% nationally (NHS Screening Programmes, 2015), though
there are important differences relating to lower uptake for men in areas of higher socio-economic deprivation (Crilly et al, 2015). The Health Check programme shows that since 2013, 33% of the population have been offered a check, approximately 50% of those offered have attended and 45% of these were men (Men’s Health Forum, 2015a). About 50% of sexually active women aged 16-24yrs and about one-third of young men had been tested for Chlamydia in the past 12 months (Sonnenberg et al, 2013).

Overall then, now that men have been included, they have engaged relatively well with both the male-only AAA programme and at only a slightly lower rate than women for Health Checks and bowel cancer screening. There is a more significant difference between male and female uptake of Chlamydia screening perhaps as a result of sex-differences in where programmes have historically been targeted. Men in areas of socio-economic deprivation generally engage less well with screening programmes and there have been problems engaging those from certain ethnic minority groups in the bowel cancer screening programme (Shankleman et al, 2014).

In terms of ‘sporadic’ approaches, there has undoubtedly been a continued increase in this type of activity - though the merging of these approaches with screening and ‘holistic’ approaches previously noted by Robertson & Williamson (2005) also continues; that is, it is less common for such activity to stand alone from screening or wider programmes of men’s health work (with the exception of ‘one off’ activities around Men’s Health Week each June).

In terms of ‘holistic’ or ‘community development’ interventions for men there has been a plethora of activity in the last ten years, many building on approaches that Robertson & Williamson (2005) had previously noted. These interventions have often focused on ‘lifestyle risk factor’ change or on specific health issues (notably mental health, cancer and obesity). There has also been work which aims to improve men’s access to primary care services.

A recent scan of work around mental health promotion for men mapped over 50 interventions that were either male-specific or heavily male-focused (Robertson et al, 2015) and there are many more that address physical health. Space does not allow us to mention all such activity but we highlight some areas of particular note. Perhaps the most significant area is the continued development of interventions through sport. ‘It’s a goal’ uses football settings and metaphor to engage men with mental health concerns; it now functions as a franchise across numerous clubs and has been well evaluated (Spandler et al 2012). Similarly, the Premier League Health programme promoted men’s health across sixteen top-flight football clubs and showed promising results in terms of lifestyle change (Zwolinsky et al 2013; Robertson et al, 2013b). Furthermore, the Football Fans in Training programme in Scotland provides the first Randomised Controlled Trial of a sporting intervention for weight loss and lifestyle change in men and again shows good results (Hunt et al, 2014). Similar work has been shown to be successful in rugby (Witty & White, 2011), golf (Carless & Douglas, 2004) and other sporting settings.

Outside sport, there has been continued development of CALM (https://www.thecalmzone.net/) which works through the provision of telephone and web chat support to reduce suicide amongst men with suggestions that their work has helped contribute to reducing the suicide rate amongst young men in Merseyside (one of its main areas of activity) by 55% (Shaw, 2010). The last five years has also seen significant development of the Men’s Shed movement across the UK, acting to help reduce social isolation and create a sense of purpose amongst older and retired men with over 150 sheds
now known to be in existence (Men’s Shed Association, 2015). Again, national evaluation suggests good success (Milligan et al, 2012).

An important element of much of this work has been a continuation of taking interventions to ‘where men are’. Recent work on what helps men’s health promotion to be successful (e.g. Robertson et al 2013a; Robertson et al, 2015) shows the importance of allowing initiatives to be developed from the ground up: that is with involvement of the men engaged being present from the outset and integral to the on-going evolution and success of the intervention. This has been important in ensuring that interventions are diverse and able to be sensitive to aspects of identity (such as ethnicity and sexuality) of the communities of men being engaged. For example, Akwaaba Ayeh is an advocacy service for those suffering from mental health problems aimed at ethnic minority groups (African, African Caribbean and South Asian) in Leicester and The Rainbow project works to promote the physical, mental and emotional health of LGBT community in Belfast and Derry: both have incorporated men-sensitive elements to their work. There has therefore been an important shift from taking services to men towards a more sustainable, community integrated, model of developing such work with different communities of men.

As well as these examples of male-specific work it is encouraging that many large existing third sector organisations have taken an interest and developed male-specific work. The Samaritans has produced a report on men and suicide (Samaritans, 2012), Mind and the Men’s Health Forum (MHF) produced a report on effective practice in male mental health for the National Mental Health Development Unit (Wilkins & Kemple, 2011) and Age UK has been very active in the UK Men’s Shed’s movement. Similarly, Time to Change, the national anti-stigma campaign for mental health, has seen the development of some interesting initiatives focused on men and has worked with MHF to produce awareness leaflets for men.

Despite this progress there remain challenges in relation to these positive shifts in practice and we return to these in the final section of this paper.

The policy context

The way that practice develops, and does or does not flourish, is very much influenced by national and local health and related policies. The Labour Government elected in 1997 committed itself to tackling health inequalities. The focus of attention was social class and, to a lesser extent, ethnicity. However, despite encouraging statements from the minister for public health, Yvette Cooper (Robertson & Williamson, 2005), men’s health and inequalities surrounding that were rarely mentioned in policy itself. The various National Service Frameworks, which were published for the NHS in England during the course of Labour’s administration to provide guidance on tackling major disease areas, did not acknowledge gender in any meaningful way, and neither did policy reports on tackling health inequalities. The Quality and Outcomes Framework (QOF) – a UK-wide reward and incentive programme for GPs introduced in 2004 – also did nothing to encourage them to take account of gender in general or men’s health and health promotion in particular.

However, there were some exceptions to this generally ‘gender-insensitive’ approach. One of the most significant of these was the Scottish Executive’s launch of the Well Man Services policy initiative in 2003. Eighteen projects, in seven health board areas, received a total of £4 million in funding from June 2004 until March 2006 with the aim of
tackling men’s health inequalities. The main focus was on enabling economically disadvantaged men to make better use of health services. The evaluation of the programme was mixed, however, and there was no further investment. In 2009, in Northern Ireland, three men’s organisations (The Men’s Project, Men’s Action Network and the Work with Young Men Unit within Youth Action NI) were asked to provide an evidence document to Gerry Kelly MLA, Junior Minister in the Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister, to help to steer the Inter-Departmental Men’s Action Plan that arose from the Gender Equality Strategy (Fowler, 2016). The Men’s Health Forum in Ireland continues to advocate for men’s health issues as the Gender Equality Strategy undergoes its current review (Fowler, 2016). In England, the Department of Health’s ‘Women’s Mental Health Strategy’ (Department of Health, 2003) highlighted the importance of gender (both men and women) in health policy and practice. There was also recognition of the need to improve men’s health in two other policy areas. The national suicide prevention policy in England focused attention on the need to tackle this problem amongst young men (Department of Health, 2002). This was the first Department of Health policy report to mention men in any significant detail. Similarly, the national suicide policy in Scotland, ‘Choose Life’ (Scottish Government, 2002), developed some emphasis on men originally and in subsequent refreshes of the strategy (most recently - Scottish Government, 2013).

Men were highlighted in the Department’s policy for the development of pharmacy services in England, published in 2005. This noted that men under-use pharmacies, and that access might be improved ‘if they are perceived to be more men friendly’ (Department of Health, 2005). The difficulties and failings associated with addressing men’s health promotion during these Labour-controlled years, and specifically the impossibility of addressing men’s poorer health practices and outcomes within an individualist neoliberal economy and political framework, have been highlighted elsewhere (Williams et al 2009).

Men’s health began to shift more into focus at the health policy level with the passage of the Equality Act 2006. This legislation effectively sought to ‘mainstream’ gender in policy and service delivery, through the creation of a duty on public bodies to promote gender equality. The Department of Health’s guidance on implementation of the Gender Equality Duty made it clear that NHS organisations in England should ‘consider the different needs of women and men when developing policies and delivering services to the public’ (Department of Health, 2007).

At the time, many in the UK men’s health arena believed the Equality Act had the potential to transform the way the NHS addressed men’s health. Indeed, Robertson and Williamson (2005) had highlighted the potential of this in relation to men’s health promotion. It was argued that the health service could no longer ignore men’s health or treat it simply as if it is an ‘interesting’ or even ‘ethical’ thing to do; it now had to be addressed because there was a clear legal requirement to do so (Ruxton, 2009).

However, national policy changes appeared to have little impact locally. An analysis by the Men’s Health Forum (MHF) examining the impact of the Gender Equality Duty in England, focusing on the Gender Equality Schemes (GESs) developed by Primary Care Trusts (PCTs), found that compliance with the new legislation was disappointingly poor. 40% of PCTs had yet to take the first step in compliance by publishing a Gender Equality Scheme, even several months after the deadline, setting out how they intended to improve health outcomes in their area. Of those that did, most failed to comply with the majority of requirements for a GES, as specified in the official code of practice. The emphasis of most
GES’s was also on internal administration and process, not on how to achieve equitable outcomes between men and women (House of Commons, 2008).

The Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) responded to these findings by conducting its own enquiry into compliance by PCTs. The EHRC found that, by early March 2008, 27 PCTs were non-compliant in that they had not published a GES; it also concurred with the MHF’s view that the vast majority of published schemes were inadequate in many key respects (Ruxton, 2009).

At a national level in England, some progress continued to be made. In 2008, the Department of Health published a research study into gender differences in access to health services – with specific focus on cardiovascular disease, overweight and obesity, mental health, alcohol misuse, cancer and sexual health (Wilkens et al, 2008). The Department of Health also established a National Cancer Equality Initiative Advisory Group whose members represented a wide range of equality issues (including men’s health) and, in April 2009, the MHF became one of a small number of third-sector Department of Health Strategic Partner organisations - a role it continues to play. The Scottish Government, by contrast, decided to stop funding Men’s Health Forum Scotland, a decision that contributed significantly to MHFS’s eventual demise.

Professor Sir Michael Marmot’s independent review, *Fair Society Healthy Lives*, (Marmot, 2010) was commissioned by the Department of Health in order to propose the most effective evidence-based strategies for reducing health inequalities in England. This significant report did not address gender or men’s health – its focus was almost entirely socio-economic inequalities – but Marmot has since linked such inequalities to gender differences and, in 2014, specifically and significantly recommended a greater policy focus on men’s health throughout the UK (Marmot, 2014).

The Coalition Government, which came to power in 2010, emphasised the need to tackle health inequalities. This was, for the first time, made a legal duty in *The Health and Social Care Act* (Department of Health, 2012). But, again, it appears that national policy has not translated into local action. MHF analysis (Men’s Health Forum, 2015b) for England found that gender generally, and men’s health specifically, is poorly addressed in the majority of Joint Strategic Needs Assessments (JSNAs), the key policy document in determining and subsequently implementing local health priorities and activities.

Remaining challenges

Whilst it is encouraging that men’s life expectancy continues to improve there are key challenges that remain in continuing to promote men’s health in the UK.

The majority of progress to date relates to improvements in physical health, which have made only a limited impact in tackling premature death; it remains to be seen how far the current policy rhetoric toward attaining parity in addressing physical and mental health concerns impacts on the health and wellbeing of men. It is important to note here the strong interconnection between physical and mental health; for example, mental health problems are approximately two to three times more common in people with chronic disease (Moussavi et al, 2007). Nevertheless, a specific focus on men’s mental health is especially important as there remains a major issue in terms of identifying the best approaches in promoting men’s mental wellbeing and especially in helping develop positive coping mechanisms to manage stressful life events. However, we do not want to suggest that approaches here should lie only in working with men at an individual level. Indeed,
another significant challenge is moving beyond individualistic approaches to health promotion for men toward ones that recognise the importance of the wider social structures and policy environment. Staying with this issue of promoting men’s mental wellbeing, building resilience is not only about working cognitively with men (through services such as psychological therapies) but is also about ensuring they have adequate access to necessary material resources. Ensuring adequate housing, employment and other such basic needs will do a great deal to promote the mental wellbeing of many men for whom these are daily issues that seriously impact on their ability to function and achieve (or maintain) physical and mental wellbeing.

This relates to another remaining challenge, that of recognising that certain groups of men, primarily (though not exclusively) those from lower socio-economic groups and areas of deprivation, and those from particular ethnic backgrounds, have benefitted far less in terms of health, wellbeing and longevity than other men. It has only been in relatively recent years that work in the men’s health arena has started to identify how neoliberal market-economic environments (including that within the UK), which often have a concomitant emphasis on individualistic approaches to health promotion, act to mitigate against successful health promotion work for those men with the greatest health needs (Williams et al, 2009; Scott-Samuel et al, (2015) in press). Such work highlights how social and economic policies underpinned by values of equity and social justice are required to not only reduce inequalities between groups of men but also to improve the health and circumstances of women and children as part of this. It seems unlikely that such approaches will be pursued under the current Conservative government within the UK, which has a significant commitment to neoliberal market-economics and a related commitment to cutting back the welfare state. Whilst the limitations of previous Labour governments in relation to promoting men’s health have been highlighted both in this current paper and elsewhere (Robertson & Williamson, 2005; Williams et al, 2009) there was at least a commitment to social justice under those governments that enabled some reasonably large scale, coherent and co-ordinated, programmes -such as the Bradford Health of Men and the Preston Men’s Health Programme - to emerge through funding such as Healthy Living Centres, Single Regeneration Budgets and Neighbourhood Renewal Funds. Such approaches are unlikely within a social welfare environment of austerity that encourages (albeit not purposefully) statutory organisations and departments to work in silos in order to protect limited resources. There have also been significant cuts recently in public health budgets, now the responsibility of local authorities rather than the NHS in England. This is likely to further stifle the development of health programmes aimed at men even though, in principle at least, local authorities are better-placed than the NHS to take such work forward. Even advances like the inclusion of men in the national screening and health check programmes can lead to ‘intervention-generated inequality’ where preventive services inadvertently act to increase inequalities by disproportionately benefiting more advantaged groups (Lorenc et al. 2013).

Finally, there exists a challenge in more fully understanding where notions of ‘masculinity’ might fit into health promotion work with men. Early work suggested that masculinity has a wholly negative impact in both generating men’s ‘risky lifestyle behaviours’ and in limiting their help-seeking (e.g. Griffiths, 1996). There is indeed evidence that aspects of adhering to traditional masculinity norms are linked to fewer health promotion behaviours (Levant et al, 2011) and higher levels of mental health stigma and reduced help-seeking (Vogel et al, 2011) amongst men. However, it is specific aspects of
masculinity norms, particularly those around restricted emotionality, which seem to be most damaging, especially in relation to mental health help-seeking and endorsing mental health stigma (Vogel et al, 2014). Other aspects of traditional masculinity practices, for example norms of ‘dominance’ and ‘primacy of work’, were related to greater preventative self-care behaviours (Levant et al, 2011). In the 1990s, health promotion practitioners in the UK began to value using aspects of identity said to align with traditional masculine interests (such as sport, cars etc), as a ‘hook’ for engaging men in activities and interventions (e.g. Davidson & Lloyd, 2001). Additionally, the importance of taking a salutogenic, approach to working with men around health issues - taking a positive view and valuing the assets men can bring to their communities - has rightly been highlighted (MacDonald, 2011; Robertson et al, 2015).

At present then there seems to be a conflict or dilemma in relation to the possible place for masculinity (or masculinities) discourses and how these act and can be utilised within health promotion. It is clearly important to recognise that gender-sensitive approaches are needed as much for men as they are for women (e.g. Hawkes & Buse, 2013). However, the possible risks of reinforcing negative aspects of masculinity, and the possible damaging effects of this, by utilising certain types of ‘male-friendly’ (masculinity-driven) approaches in health promotion have also been highlighted (Robinson & Robertson, 2010; Fleming et al, 2014; Gough, 2009). In addition, an international review of work, mainly focused on sexual health and violence prevention programmes, has identified that approaches that take a gender-transformative approach (assisting men to challenge many traditional masculinity norms), have been especially effective (Dworkin, Treves-Kagan & Lippman, 2013). Indeed, a significant piece of work reviewing 58 public health programmes with men and boys shows that those incorporating a gender-transformative approach and promoting gender-equitable relationships, were more effective in producing behaviour change among men than those that were gender-neutral or gender-sensitive (Barker et al., 2010). We have now reached a place where this issue needs far more attention within the men’s health promotion research and practice arena across the UK. Further work needs to be done on where, when and how masculinity discourses can be used in positive ways in health promotion work with men. Specifically, a greater understanding of what making services gender-sensitive for men means (and ensuring that this is not detrimental to others), and in exploring how explicitly gender-transformative approaches might benefit a range of men’s health promotion interventions in the UK, is needed.

**Conclusion**

There have been important improvements in the health of men in the UK over the last twenty years, particularly in terms of increased life expectancy and the development and evolution of a range of screening and community-based initiatives to promote the health of men. Of particular note, increasingly recognised by many working in the field, is the need to take a positive approach to working with men recognising and valuing the assets they bring rather than just seeing them as a problem to be solved: that is, gender-sensitivity is beginning to be seen as more than different ways to deliver services to men, and more about working *with* men in developing locally *and* gender-sensitive delivery. However, much of this improvement in life expectancy has come from advances in the early intervention and treatment of cardiovascular disease and improvements in men’s premature mortality have not been as forthcoming. In addition, these improvements have not been as significant
for men in areas of multiple deprivation (or for men from certain ethnic backgrounds) and have also not been as apparent for mental health (and suicide) as they have for physical health: in particular, the morbidity cost of (often hidden) mental health morbidity, including depression, remain a significant cause for concern. The current neoliberal market driven policy context within the UK, fosters both the inequitable distribution and access to material resources and individualistic approaches to health promotion that are known to be more effective for those from higher social class backgrounds - or, to put it another way, least effective for those men most in need of them, reflecting and maintaining the historically recognised ‘inverse care law’. The encouraging move towards grassroots, community-based models of intervention that are developed in true alliance with local men can easily be stifled within such a policy agenda that often looks for quick fixes (measured by short-term targets) to complex problems.
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