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REPORT

from :	Presidency
to:	Permanent Representatives Committee/Council (Employment and Social Policy)
Subject :	Review of the implementation by the Member States of the European Union and the European institutions of the Beijing Platform for Action: relationship between family life and working life

Delegations will find attached a report from the Presidency on the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action.

FOLLOW-UP TO THE BEIJING PLATFORM FOR ACTION

on the relationship between family life and working life

PRESIDENCY REPORT [1]

– ANALYSIS OF MEMBER STATES' RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE –

[1] Study carried out for the Department of Women's Rights and Equality by RACHEL SILVERA with the collaboration of SEVERINE LEMIERE (ISERES and MATISSE-SET- University of PARIS I – September 2000).

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INTRODUCTION

Following the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995) where governments adopted a 12-point Platform for Action, the Council of Ministers of the European Union decided that every year, during the second of the two Presidencies, a specific review would be made of one of the points in the Platform for Action.

In 1998 the Austrian Presidency proposed a strategy of indicators and benchmarking for one Beijing Platform theme each year, suggesting that "women and decision-making" be the subject of the first such exercise.

In 1999 the Finnish Presidency accordingly produced a very full report on the topic of women and decision-making, on the basis of replies from the Member States and the European institutions to a Presidency questionnaire. On 22 October 1999 the Council (Labour and Social Affairs) took note of that report, which contains nine indicators for regular measurement of progress in this area. In addition, the Council adopted a set of conclusions in which it agreed that the Council would subsequently deal with "violence against women" and "women and the economy", with particular reference to the relationship between family life and working life.

France chose to address the theme of the relationship between family life and working life. The fact is that the demands made on the time of men and women differ to the point where women are taking ever more of the strain, to the detriment of their professional careers. Long considered central to the understanding of family and social roles, the issue of the relationship between family life and working life now takes on wider ramifications, as a result of changes in society affecting both working relationships and family models.

Women's work generates wealth and is a powerful factor for growth, in that it both stimulates and fulfils needs, activities and jobs. It is increasingly an irreversible phenomenon: in all European countries, albeit to differing degrees, more and more women are going out to work as well as raising families. But reconciling family life with working life in most cases remains solely the woman's responsibility. In addition to traditional stereotypes, women who go out to work still have to contend with obstacles such as lesser recognition of their professional qualifications, rigid vertical and horizontal job segregation, less job security, over-representation in the unemployment figures, a rise in part-time work (not always from choice) and consistently lower pay. These inequalities can be compounded by certain family, social and even employment measures, or conversely by the absence of measures to help women, and in particular mothers, find and hold on to jobs. The situation differs widely from one European country to another, and these differences need to be analysed.

Action by the Member States, particularly via the Luxembourg process and the gender equality guidelines, has helped to improve the situation. But there is still some way to go before every possible measure is taken, in every country, to foster good conditions for women to join the labour market and to encourage men to take part in family life.

This report sets out to present the full results of France's study of this topic. The objective is twofold:

– the first is to provide gender-specific data on the situation of women and men in relation to work and the family. This involves Eurostat data (Part I) and an analysis of Member States' responses to the questionnaires (Part II). This proved a difficult exercise, so incomplete, non-standardised, or even non-existent are the data, depending on the country;

– secondly, the report tries to build a set of indicators most pertinent to establishing the needs of reconciling family life and working life. We regard devising these indicators, where that is necessary, and following them up in subsequent years as a vital part of improving policies in support of the family life/working life relationship and gender equality. Ultimately such an approach will be to the benefit of European society as a whole.

The report is divided into two parts: part one sets out socio-economic data gleaned from Eurostat's labour force surveys and demographic statistics. It gives a general picture of employment and the family as regards both men and women. Part two contains data of a more qualitative nature, based on an analysis of replies to the questionnaire; it describes certain arrangements for fostering the relationship between family life and working life and sets out the indicators selected.

INDICATORS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY LIFE AND WORKING LIFE

PART ONE: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

I – SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

FERTILITY

For over 20 years every fertility indicator has been falling, except in certain countries where there has been little change (Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Finland). *"Rapid erosion in countries which previously had a high fertility rate (principally the southern Catholic countries) contrasts with more moderate fluctuations in the northern countries"* (Pitrou, 2000). It is a significant and well-known fact that Spain (1,15) and Italy (1,19) are now the countries with the lowest fertility rates in Europe. Sweden is also a special case: its fertility rate rose sharply at the beginning of the nineties (over 2) and has now stabilised at around 1,50.
The commonest family model in Europe is therefore that of a family with 1 or 2 children (except in Ireland, where there are still many larger families).

Fertility indicators for selected years

	EU 15	**EU 11**	**B**	**DK**	**D**	**EL**	**E**	**F**	**IRL**	**I**	**L**	**NL**	**A**	**P**	**FIN**	**S**	**UK**
1960	2,59	2,62	2,56	2,57	2,37	2,28	2,86	2,73	3,76	2,41	2,28	3,12	2,69	3,10	2,72	2,2	2,72
1980	1,82	1,79	1.68	1,55	1,56	2,21	2,2	1,95	3,23	1,64	1,49	1,60	1,65	2,18	1,63	1,68	1,90
1985	1,60	1,55	1,51	1,45	1,37	1,67	1,64	1,81	2,47	1,42	1,38	1,51	1,47	1,72	1,65	1,74	1,79
1990	1,57	1,51	1,62	1,67	1,45	1,39	1,36	1,78	2,11	1,33	1,61	1,62	1,45	1,57	1,78	2,13	1,83
1995	*1,42*	*1,36*	*1,55*	1,80	1,25	1,32	1,18	1,70	1,84	1,18	1,69	1,53	1,40	1,40	1,81	1,73	1,71
1998	*1,45*	*1,40*	*1,53*	*1,72*	*1,34*	*1,30*	*1,15*	*1,75*	*1,94*	*1,19*	1,68	*1,62*	*1,34*	*1,46*	1,70	1,51	*1,72*

Source : Eurostat (specific processing and demographic statistics)

The figures in italics are provisional or Eurostat estimates.

Average childbearing age

The average childbearing age is increasing everywhere: this ties in with the first indicator, and the trend is similar for all European countries. In 1983 the average age was 27, 4; in the Netherlands, Spain and Ireland it is now over 29, or even 30.

Average childbearing age

	EU 15	**EU 11**	**B**	**DK**	**D**	**EL**	**E**	**F**	**IRL**	**I**	**L**	**NL**	**A**	**P**	**FIN**	**S**	**UK**
1960	*28,2*	*28,4*	28	26,9	27,5			27,6		29,2		29,8	27,6		28,3	27,5	
1983	27,4	27,3	26,9	27,3	26,7	26,1	28,4	27,1	29,7	27,9	27,7	28,1	26,5	27,1	28,1	28,1	27,2
1988	27,9	27,9	27,6	28,2	27,5	26,8	28,6	28	29,9	28,6	28,3	29	27	27,2	28,7	28,5	27,5
1993	28,6	28,6	28,2	28,9	28,1	27,9	29,5	28,7	30	29,3	28,6	29,8	27,3	27,7	29	29	27,9
1997				*29,4*	28,5	28,6	30,4	29,2	*30,4*		29,2	30,2	27,9	28,3	29,4	29,5	28,3
1998					28,6	28,7		29,3	30,4		29,3	30,3	28	28,5	29,5	29,7	28,3

Source : Eurostat (specific processing and demographic statistics)

TOTAL POPULATION

Population by age band in 1998 (see tables in Annex 1)

The obvious consequence of the decline in fertility, together with other well-known facts such as the increase in life expectancy, particularly for women, is a general ageing of the population in Europe. Children under 15 represent 17,2% of the total (compared with 24,4% in 1960 and 23,8 % in 1975, for example), while the over-65s represent a total of 15,9 % of the population in 1998 (as compared with 10,6% in 1960 and 13% in 1975). Four European countries have even seen a reversal of the situation: in Germany, Greece, Spain and Italy the proportion of elderly people now exceeds that of young people. Elsewhere the gap is narrowing more and more visibly, except in Ireland (22,5% of under-15s and only 11,4% of over-65s).

HOUSEHOLD TRENDS

The proportion of adults living alone rises over the period, being the case of almost a third of households, except in the southern countries and Ireland. Still more striking is the number of single parent families, which has more than doubled since the eighties, with 14% of households with dependent children comprising one parent. The trend is not the same in all the countries: in southern Europe and Ireland the rate remains low and "extended families" are common. According to Lefaucheur (2000), adults living in single parent families in the south are older than the average and often widowed. In the north of Europe, however, and particularly the United Kingdom, there are large numbers of single parent families, much younger than in the south, and divorce is more common than widowhood. Between the two extremes lie the "intermediate" countries (France, Benelux and Germany) where single parent families are fewer but the profile is that of the north.

An essential point to be noted is that the majority of single parent families are women bringing up children alone, whatever the country. In most cases this carries a risk of greater poverty, in view of their occupational situation.

Single parent families as a percentage of all families with dependent children

Country	1996	Trend 1983-1996
EU 13	14%	58%
B	15%	75%
D	13%	
EL	7%	33%
E	8%	
F	15%	48%
IR	13%	100%
I	11%	32%
L	11%	58%
NL	11%	5%
A	14%	
P	12%	
UK	23%	94%

Source : P. WHITTEN in INSEE Premières, 1998

Progression of the percentage of women in the total of single parent families (children under 15)

	All	**B**	**DK**	**D**	**EL**	**E**	**F**	**IRL**	**I**	**L**	**NL**	**A**	**P**	**FIN**	**S**	**UK**
1983(EU 10)	88,7	83,4			88,9		93	88,8	74,5	*83,5*	91					91,5
1988(EU 12)	89,5	88,3		90,8	86,9	88,7	91,7	91,8	81,6	94,3	90,4		91			89,6
1993(EU 12)	90,7	88,1		92,7	87,7	92,1	89,4	92,5	79,6	82,8	94,5		85			92,1
1998		86,9		89,9	86,3	93,7	89,6		84	87,4	86,7	92,7	94,1			90,8

Source : Eurostat, our calculations

II – ACTIVITY, EMPLOYMENT, UNEMPLOYMENT

SUMMARY EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT INDICATORS FOR 1999

	EU-15	DK	FIN	S	D	A	B	F	L	NL	UK	IRL	E	EL*	I	P
Employment rate, women (age 15-64)*	52,6	71,6	64,6	68,9	57,1	59,7	50,2	53,5	48,5	61,3	63,7	51,4	37,3	40,3	38,1	59,6
Employment rate, men (age 15-64)	71,6	81,2	70,2	72,1	72,4	76,6	67,5	67,5	74,4	80,3	76,9	73,6	67,8	71,6	67,1	75,7
Activity rate, women (age 15-64)**	59,2	76,1	73,9	74	62,9	62,7	56	62,2	50,2	64,4	67,3	54,4	48,5	48,5	45,6	63
Activity rate, men (age 15-64)	78,1	85	78,9	78,8	79,3	80,5	73	75,5	75,8	82,6	82,8	78,3	76,2	77,2	73,7	79,1
Unemployment rate, women	11	5,9	12,4	6,9	9,2	4,8	10,2	14	3,3	4,9	5,2	5,5	23	16,5	16,3	5,2
Unemployment rate, men	8,2	4,5	11	8,3	8,6	4,7	7,5	10,5	1,8	2,7	6,9	5,9	10,9	7	8,8	4,1
Part-time employment rate, women	33,4	33,9	17	40	37,2	32,5	33,3	31,7	24,6	68,6	44,4	30,6	17,6	10,5	15,7	16,7
Part-time employment rate, men	6,1	9,6	7,9	9,4	4,9	4,4	3,5	5,6	1,8	17,9	8,9	7,4	3	3,3	3,4	6,3

* employment rate, women: the number of women aged 15 – 64 in employment out of the total female population aged 15 – 64.

** activity rate, women: total of women employed and registered unemployed out of the total female population aged 15–64.

Employment rate

The above table first of all gives employment rate data. The rate of female employment Europe-wide is rising, but is still only 52,6 %. The gaps between men and women are still wide, at close on 20 points. True, the gap varies from country to country: in the Nordic countries it almost disappears (3,2 points in Sweden) but it is very large in Spain, Greece and Italy, at almost 30 points. Note, however, that in terms of trends it is the countries where the gap is the widest that have seen the fastest employment growth and a reduction in the gap (Spain, in particular, and Ireland).

Activity rate

In the sixties women represented less than 30 % of the active population in the European Community; now the average is 59,2 %. A vital feature is that the fall in employment Europe-wide in 1991-1992 did not check their entry to the labour market. The part played by service jobs, which were relatively unaffected by the crisis and are largely filled by women, certainly explains this to some extent. The second important feature is that the greatest increase in activity rate, in every country, was for women aged 25 to 49. It may even be said that Europe-wide the growth in the total active population is due principally to the increase in the activity rate of adult women, while at both extremes of active life there is a decline in activity, for both men and women: a decline in the activity of young people as a result of longer periods spent in education and early cessation of activity by older workers, particularly men (overall male activity rates are down, with the average now at 78,1%). But the 25-49 age bracket is clearly the category most concerned by the arrival of children and the question of reconciling family life and working life. Here we see that the influence of family responsibilities on women's activity has declined overall. It is a cultural, social and economic trend: women are tending more and more towards the male activity model, with it becoming the norm in many European countries to be 35, married with two children and going out to work.

There are variations in this general trend: for example, the activity rates of women in the south, excluding Portugal and including Luxembourg, remain substantially lower than those for the Scandinavian countries. Eight of the 15 countries now have rates substantially above the average (with a slight dip, however, for Denmark, although it still has the highest female activity rate at 76,1% (see Annex 2 for details).

Gender-specific and age-specific activity rates

The activity curves in Annex 3 (for 1983, where available, and 1998) confirm what has already been said: although the upward trend in activity is on the whole common to all countries, three different types of situation can be observed:

– countries in which female activity is continuous, irrespective of age and family situation: in the Nordic countries, France, to a lesser extent Germany (as a result of unification), and Austria, the male activity model tends to be the norm. This is also increasingly the case in Portugal (i.e. in seven countries in all);

– countries where, on the contrary, the inactivity model was dominant. Here we find Spain, Italy, Greece, Luxembourg, Ireland, and to a lesser extent Belgium (six countries in all). Although it has made significant progress, female activity in these countries still peaks with young, childless women and then progressively declines. Family situation is still a determining factor in these countries;

– in a third group of countries the activity curb is "bimodal", i.e. discontinuous, as a result of an interruption (not definitive cessation) of activity in the first years of motherhood. It is important to note that this was the most common situation in northern and central Europe but is now becoming rare, surviving virtually nowhere but the United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

The first victims of unemployment

Another type of inequality common to all (or almost all) women in Europe is that female unemployment rates are systematically higher than those for men, except in the United Kingdom and Sweden (and now very slightly in Ireland and Finland, see the summary indicators above). In 1999 the – falling – European unemployment rate is 8,2% for men compared with 11% for women. This female over-representation applies to all age groups: female unemployment is not just recurrent and extremely widespread among young women, particularly in the south, it is also long-term (the percentage of women unemployed for more than a year is higher than that of men in most European countries).

Wide disparities are also visible in the payment of unemployment benefit: half of unemployed men receive benefit, but only a third of unemployed women. This inequality is heightened by the family situation: while unemployed married men are much more likely to be in receipt of benefit than single men, the difference is slight or non-existent between unemployed married women and unemployed single women. This is certainly due to the status of unemployed married women. In the statistical and economic norms of most of these countries, the link between unemployment and inactivity remains specific to women: *"an unemployed man, even if he has given up hope of finding work, remains registered as unemployed – and therefore active. An unemployed woman who has given up hope of work moves more easily to the inactive category "* (Maruani, 1993).

Concentration in certain sectors and certain occupations

There should be no illusions about the arrival of women on the labour market and their ability to stay there. Their integration into the labour market continues to be on quite specific terms related to clearly gender-specific attitudes to labour management.

Occupational segregation of women – both horizontal (concentration in certain sectors of activity) and vertical (i.e. concentration in certain occupations and difficulty of acceding to more qualified posts) – remains very widespread: while women have sometimes found their way into "male" jobs, it is above all in service and office jobs, low paid and requiring little in the way of qualifications, that their numbers have increased.

The following data show that women continue to be under-represented in the industrial sector (16% women, compared to 39% men in 1998); they are over-represented in the service sector (80% women, compared to 55% men). There is a high concentration of women in four sectors which together account for more than half the women employed in European countries: health, teaching, distribution and catering (with the exception of Greece and Portugal, where the concentration of female jobs in these sectors remains high but where agriculture plays a still more important role: 20% of Greek women are employed in agriculture, compared with only 3,7% of European women as a whole).

In occupational terms vertical segregation is still very much a reality, despite more tangible changes: the higher level of female education has produced a real increase in women's qualifications, a trend which deserves to be stressed. In the countries which have made the most progress in this area, around a third of senior management posts are held by women. Nonetheless, the positive impact of this process of improvement in qualifications is limited by various factors. Firstly, access to more qualified posts is concentrated in the public sector, e.g. teaching, where recognition of women's qualifications and abilities seems less problematic. In the competitive sector, the famous "glass ceiling" is well and truly in place: there are often very few women in top management posts in large undertakings (between 6 and 10 %). In addition, occupational segregation is even worse in the Nordic countries. In Denmark, Sweden and Finland only 3 or 4% of women are to be found in senior management posts.
What is more, the improvement is often associated with a process of "polarisation" of qualifications: very many women are trapped in jobs requiring very little in the way of qualifications and offering few career prospects (see tables in Annex 4).

Wage discrimination

Overall, wage gaps between men and women in the Community stand at between 20 and 30%, all factors taken into account. Differences between countries can, however, be identified.

The inequalities in part reflect occupational segregation, inasmuch as around half of the wage gap is due to sectoral and structural factors (level of qualifications determines the spread).
These wage gaps are explained above all by the method of setting wages: the role of the State (whether there is a minimum wage or not); whether negotiations are centralised or decentralised; the part played by trade unionism; the part wage inequality plays in union demands and of course the place of women in the trade union system; and lastly the wage policies of undertakings (degree of individualisation) and the criteria for job classification and assessment (how is the rule "equal pay for work of equal value" applied?).

All these factors play a part in the method of wage fixing and the analysis of women's wages, in ways which differ from country to country. For example, in the United Kingdom the absence of a minimum wage, decentralised wage fixing and the dismantling of the trade unions have helped to increase wage gaps, and explain why the United Kingdom is the most discriminatory country in this respect (a gap of almost 40%). The reinstatement of a minimum wage and wage councils should make a difference. Conversely, in the Scandinavian countries wage gaps persist but are among the smallest (less than 20%), particularly because of the important role played by collective agreements, the fact that trade union strategy has been to seek solidarity in wages policy and the public authorities' determination to apply wage equity, in the seventies at least. The wage restraint policies applied since the eighties explain why the reduction in wage inequalities has now ceased.

Women's wages in industry compared to those of men – 1996

	Female manual workers (hourly)	Female non-manual workers (monthly)
Austria	65,5	64,8
Germany (former FRG)	74,8	69,4
Germany (former DDR)	79,1	74,5
Belgium (1995)	75,6	65,2
Denmark	84,5	
Spain	71,6	63,4
Finland (1995)		78,8
France	82,1	71,1
Greece (1995)	77	69,5
Ireland	72,6	
Luxembourg	70,2	64
Netherlands (1994)	77,9	68,4
Portugal	70,4	70,5
Sweden		76,1
United Kingdom	69,2	60,3

Source : Standardised wage statistics - Eurostat

III - EMPLOYMENT, NATURE OF JOBS AND FAMILY CIRCUMSTANCES

Studying the link between family and professional life means comparing previous data on employment and unemployment with family circumstances (number and age of children).

Unfortunately, the data contained in Annex 5 are incomplete (there are no data for Denmark, Ireland, Finland or Sweden) and not homogeneous (we have not obtained equivalent data for men from Eurostat). Furthermore, the age groups are different (0-2 years, 3-5 years and 6-14 years for women; 0-2 years, 0-5 years and over 6 years for men). Consequently, a male/female comparison can be made only in respect of very young children aged up to 2 years.

Despite these shortcomings, various trends can be confirmed:

1 - for all countries, having children has opposite effects on men as against women: childless men all have a lower rate of employment than fathers of 1, 2 or (to a lesser extent) 3 children. Conversely, childless women have a much higher rate of employment than mothers (in many cases, more than 80% higher). The rates for females all decrease as the number of children increases, sometimes by as much as half in the case of women with 0 to 3 children, particularly in Spain, Italy and Greece, but also in Germany and Luxembourg. Consequently, having children – in particular, a third child – leads to a low female rate of employment.

2 - The presence of young children below the age of 2 is another important factor: in France, Germany and the United Kingdom, the reduction in the rate of employment becomes even more apparent in the case of mothers of very young children. In France, for example, having a child has little effect on female employment unless the child is below the age of 2 and *a fortiori* if there is another child. This phenomenon is due in particular to the introduction of the parental educational allowance (APE), which applies to parents of two children where one of the children is below the age of 3 (see part 2). However, it should be noted that the situation for French men is the reverse: fathers of young children have a rate of employment of 98,2% compared to 90,2% for childless men.

3 - In the particular case of Portugal, and to a lesser extent Austria, children's ages have little bearing on female employment: in those countries, the mothers of young children remain more economically active than elsewhere, and only the presence of the third child has a deterrent effect.

4 - On the other hand, family circumstances have little effect on female unemployment rates. In other words, family circumstances have more bearing on employment than unemployment. However, in some cases (e.g. in Germany and the Netherlands) unemployment is lower among mothers of young children (the unemployment rate is halved), indicating that these young mothers are withdrawing from the labour market. In five of the eleven countries presented here, the effect seems to be reversed (an increase in the unemployment rate). Conversely, the link between family circumstances and unemployment is more marked in the case of men: with a few rare exceptions, the presence of a child leads to a reduction in male unemployment rates.

All this confirms the importance of a traditional family model in which fathers are the breadwinners and have to bring in a wage wherever children are involved (an increase in employment and decrease in unemployment for fathers, unlike mothers).

All these comments would no doubt have to be qualified if data on the Nordic countries were available (unfortunately, this is not the case).

Employment and unemployment of single-parent families in 1997 according to number of children (below the age of 15)

The data contained in Annex 6 provide partial information on the vocational status of single-parent families (only those including children below the age of 15). Interesting results come to light if the employment rates for mothers as a whole are compared with those for single mothers. The data in question are available for only 11 countries. In most (7 out of 11) cases, single mothers are more active than mothers as a whole. This is particularly evident in Spain, Italy and Luxembourg, countries in which female employment is least widespread. In all these cases, the presence of a third child (a rare phenomenon) does not lead to such a significant withdrawal from the labour market as is the case for mothers living with a partner. Conversely, in the United Kingdom – which has the highest number of single-parent families - and to a lesser extent in the Netherlands, the employment rates for single mothers are very low (29% in the case of three children) in view of the public allowances available to single parents [2], while the unemployment rate is particularly high among such families (in some cases exceeding 40%, and often more than 20%). In all cases, this rate increases for both men and women as the number of children increases. Apart from two countries (the Netherlands and Portugal), unemployment among single-parent families is higher for women – even in the United Kingdom, where the reverse applies to households as a whole.

[2] In the United Kingdom, the introduction of the "New Deal" for single persons, which aims to bring such persons (back) into the labour market, should curtail this phenomenon in the future.

Working time and employment status

Another feature common to all European women is that they are the prime vehicle of the special types of employment which have developed: while women hold two out of every five jobs in Europe at present, they account for no fewer than eight out of ten part-time workers, seven out of ten home helps and half of temporary jobs.

Whatever the status accorded to temporary work in the functioning of national labour markets, women are over-represented in these particular types of employment, with a female/male ratio of 2:1 in five Member States of the European Union (Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom). Furthermore, temporary jobs are heavily concentrated in certain sectors of the economy which incorporate more "feminine" professions. However, a distinction should be drawn between temporary work and part-time work:

– **Temporary work** is much more widespread in countries in southern Europe, and in particular in Spain where it recently accounted for around 30% of jobs. In countries in northern Europe, the use of external flexibility (and hence temporary employment) is much less marked as regulations and the interplay of social relations have restricted such use. Here, the Scandinavian model has contributed towards the search for other forms of negotiated internal flexibility which also favour women.

– **Part-time work** illustrates the enduring nature of national characteristics relating to female employment. While it is on the increase in all countries and remains a largely female preserve, it is impossible to ignore the considerable disparities which exist between the countries of Europe. Part-time work is still undertaken predominantly by women in northern Europe as a response to differing situations: means of access to work for women in the Netherlands, often linked to inadequate child care facilities in the United Kingdom, etc. In France, the public authorities have encouraged its development with a view to combating unemployment while satisfying companies' flexibility requirements, and this has helped to develop reduced and restricted forms of work (the creation of part-time jobs concentrated in certain areas of activity for relatively unskilled positions with awkward working hours). Finally, other factors based more on the wants of workers, both male and female, are in operation particularly in Finland, Sweden and Denmark, but also to some extent in France.

Be it said, these comments do not take account of the developments currently in progress as a result of the new European employment strategies. Hence Spain is undergoing a sea-change, with a substantial reduction the unemployment rate and the proportion of temporary work. Similarly, government incentives for part-time work will be abolished in France in 2001 (in accordance with Law Aubry II No 2000-37 of 19 January 2000).

Working hours

The table below shows the average working hours of employees according to sex and status (full-time or part-time) in 1998. It may be noted in the first place that substantial differences in working hours exist between men and women: for jobs as a whole, this difference exceeds eight hours per week and amounts to nearly 14 hours in the United Kingdom (12 hours in the Netherlands). However, this is due primarily to part-time employment: a comparison of full-time working hours reveals only three hours' difference between the sexes. Five countries are characterised by very long full-time working hours for men: the countries of southern Europe (especially Greece and Portugal, and to a lesser extent Spain), and the "island" nations (Ireland, and in particular the United Kingdom (46,5 hours)). Conversely, working hours are shorter in the Nordic countries (between 41 and 42 hours). The longer the working hours, the greater the gap between men and women (as much as six hours' difference in Ireland). In other words, full-time working hours for women (at around 40 hours) are more consistent throughout Europe than those for men.

With regard to part-time work, the data show that there is little difference in part-time working hours for men and women, and that it is linked to a structural effect (the proportion of female part-time jobs). Indeed, in four countries (Sweden, Denmark, Finland and Germany) the reverse is true: there, the average working hours for men in part-time employment are shorter than those for women.

Taken as a whole, the data on working hours form the core of our analysis of the link between professional and family life: regardless of the country or social model, men spend more time working. This over-investment results in either differences in full-time working hours (Ireland, Italy), part-time work with convergence in full-time work (Sweden, the Netherlands, Denmark) or both (the United Kingdom).

Average number of hours normally worked each week

	EU 15	**B**	**DK**	**D**	**EL**	**E**	**F**	**IRL**	**I**	**L**	**NL**	**A**	**P**	**FIN**	**S**	**UK**
MEN in work	**41,6**	**41,2**	**38,2**	**41,1**	**45**	**42,3**	**40,9**	**43,1**	**41,4**	**41,2**	**37,3**	**41,1**	**42,7**	**41**	**39,3**	**44**
Full-time	43,1	41,9	41,1	42,4	45,8	43	42	45	41,9	41,5	41,4	42	44,1	42,3	41,7	46,5
Part-time	19,1	21,2	14	15,5	22,4	18,9	23,3	19,5	27,9	23,5	18,5	22,8	20,7	17,4	18,6	17,2
WOMEN in work	**33,3**	**33,6**	**32,1**	**32,3**	**39,9**	**36,9**	**34,3**	**33,1**	**35,7**	**33,8**	**25,2**	**35,5**	**37,9**	**36,4**	**33,9**	**30,8**
Full-time	40,1	39,8	38,3	40,3	42,1	40,9	39,6	39	37,9	37,9	39,4	41,4	41,7	39,2	40,6	41,2
Part-time	19,6	21,7	21	18,4	20,8	17,6	22,8	18,8	22,4	18,4	18,4	22	19,4	20,9	25,1	18

Part-time work

The data contained in Annex 7 show trends in part-time working rates according to sex. Although part-time work accounts for over 17% of all employment in Europe, it represents more than one-third of female employment. The data reveal the extent to which part-time work has become a female preserve, in particular in Sweden, Denmark and the Netherlands (where it accounts for more than 68% of female employment) and the United Kingdom (where it accounts for almost 45% of female employment). Part-time male employment is also noticeably higher in those countries (18% of male employment in the Netherlands, almost 10% in Denmark and Sweden). In general, part-time work has increased in all countries since 1983. However, a new trend is now emerging: in Sweden and Denmark, the level of part-time work has been falling since the late 1990s.

Part-time work by working hours in 1997

The graphs set out in Annex 8 contain data on part-time working hours. Long part-time working hours amounting to more than 25 hours (or even more than 31 hours) clearly have nothing to do with short part-time working hours of less than 20 hours (or – worse still – less than 10 hours) in terms of vocational integration, financial autonomy or even social security cover. Contrary to what one might think, men do not always benefit from long part-time working hours, except in the Netherlands, France and Austria (although levels of male part-time employment are low in those countries). With regard to women, short part-time working hours (less than 20 hours) prevail in the United Kingdom and in countries where such employment is less developed (Ireland, Spain, Portugal). At the opposite extreme, female part-time working hours are long in Sweden and Denmark. In that connection, the Netherlands are characterised by a polarisation between short (60%) and long part-time working hours (almost 20% of part-time work takes up more than 31 hours).

Structure of part-time jobs

The tables contained in Annex 9 enable a comparison to be drawn between the structure of part-time jobs and that of jobs as a whole, as described previously. For men too, the structure of part-time jobs does not correspond entirely to that of full-time jobs: part-time jobs relate more to service and sales staff and unskilled workers and employees, while - conversely - fewer managers and executive staff are employed on a part-time basis. There is one important difference between men and women: men in the non-manual and managerial professions ("professionals") are more likely to be working on a part-time basis than women.

Part-time work and family circumstances

An examination of the distribution of part-time work on the basis of family circumstances (cf. Annex 10) reveals that an individual reduction in working hours and family circumstances is not automatically linked to family circumstances. Like women, men from childless couples are more likely to work on a part-time basis (accounting for over one third of part-time workers). The presence of children undoubtedly has a greater effect on women, who are more likely to work on a part-time basis if they have a partner and one or two children. Although it concerns only a very small number of people, part-time work among single parents involves only women, not men. Finally, more single men (13%) than women (6%) are engaged in part-time work.

Voluntary and involuntary part-time work: a delicate distinction

According to Eurostat's figures, there are two main grounds for undertaking part-time work ("didn't find or didn't want a full-time job"). Other reasons include attending a training course or illness (see Annex 11 for details). While these two indicators are interesting from the point of view of their development and distribution by country and by sex, we do not consider that they provide an adequate reflection of involuntary and "chosen" part-time work. The question boils down to a single working hours model: that of full-time work. Certain individuals do not wish to work full-time (with in some cases mandatory overtime), nor are they happy to work part-time. Similarly, not wishing to work full-time does not imply a desire to work part-time: for example, "choosing" part-time work may be the only option in the absence of adequate, high-quality and affordable child-care facilities.

Setting that aside, let us analyse the only data available at European level. In terms of development, it is logical to conclude that there is a link between trends in unemployment in the various countries and part-time work "in the absence of full-time work", particularly in the case of men: in most countries, this has increasingly been cited as a reason for accepting part-time work since 1983, with a peak in 1993 and a drop in 1998. Of course, it is mainly women who refuse to accept full-time employment: this is the reason given for part-time work in more than 70% of cases in the United Kingdom and Germany, and in more than 80% of cases in the Netherlands some years. **It is interesting to link this result to the dominant family models in these countries (less developed child-care facilities, or prevalence of a tradition of partial retirement for mothers** (see Part II). Hence in Sweden, Denmark and Finland, these results differ because of higher rates of female employment, also with a high incidence of part-time working: refusal to work full-time is widespread, but amounts to only 55%. Attendance of a training course is more common in Denmark and Finland than elsewhere (these are countries with a low proportion of part-time employment, however).

Atypical working hours

Atypical working hours (work on Saturdays, Sundays, evenings and nights, plus shift work) constitute the final aspect of the way in which working hours can affect the link between family and professional life. It would seem important to take account of the existence of such working hours in the context of free time management. It is becoming increasingly common for employees to work such hours on either a habitual or occasional basis. We have decided to amalgamate these two situations (habitual or occasional) in order to make it easier to read the already large quantity of data. Furthermore, we considered it important to take account of the occasional working of atypical hours as such a situation presents particular problems in terms of family time management. The detailed data are set out in the Annex.

The two tables below show the proportion of employees working such atypical hours in 1993 and 1997. The first point to note is that such types of working hours seem to be becoming increasingly widespread in most countries and less and less unusual. Saturday working is becoming increasingly commonplace: in eight countries, more than 40% of employees are affected. Sunday working remains less typical but still often involves 20% of employees. While night work seldom affects more than 20% of employees and remains a male preserve, evening work frequently affects one third of male employees and around 20% of female employees in all countries. The United Kingdom is ahead of all the other countries, with 68% of men working on Saturdays, 47% on Sundays and 59% in the evenings. Conversely, Portugal is the only country in Europe where such forms of employment remain unusual, unlike other countries in southern Europe and in particular Greece, where Saturday and evening work is very common among both men and women.

Bearing in mind the differences observed in working hours according to the type of work, it may be surprising to note that women too are increasingly affected by such working hours, although to a lesser extent. To give extreme examples, such atypical working hours are less common in the Netherlands than in the other countries (little night work and shift work), but affect as many women as men, with evening work affecting more women than men. At the opposite extreme, there are significant differences between men and women in the United Kingdom, where such forms of working hours are very common (between 15 and 19 points difference, except in the case of shift work).

Proportion of persons habitually or occasionally working atypical hours in relation to employees as a whole

Source: Eurostat, calculated by us
(in %, several replies possible and a variable proportion of non-replies depending on the countries involved)

1993	A		B		D		E		F		EL		IRL		I		L		NL		P		UK	
%	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
Saturday	...	...	31	31	33	31	34	36	49	45	46	35	56	44	57	55	34	38	35	35	26	21	66	47
Sunday	...	...	20	18	18	15	15	13	25	19	26	17	29	23	20	13	19	15	20	20	14	9	45	29
Evening	...	...	31	24	28	19	...	...	14*	8*	44	40	35	23	29	18	24	21	22	23	1	1	58	40
Night	...	...	17	7	16	7	11	5	20	7	20	10	20	13	16	7	16	6	12	9	1	0	30	14
Shift Work	...	...	22	15	14	9	9	5	10	6	19	14	17	15	25	18	21	13	10	7	11	6	20	14

* NB: Significant number of non-replies

1997	A		B		E		S		R		EL		IRL		I		L		NL		P		UK	
%	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
Saturday	42	41	31	31	38	34	35	35	50	46	48	38	58	44	57	52	39	38	38	37	29	24	68	49
Sunday	24	19	21	19	21	17	17	15	27	22	28	17	29	26	21	15	21	17	21	22	15	11	47	33
Evening	32	20	32	23	32	24	...	...	38	22	47	43	33	22	31	19	24	21	22	26	1	1	59	43
Night	21	11	17	7	15	7	13	7	21	7	21	10	19	13	17	8	15	7	12	10	1	0	29	14
Shift work	23	19	22	15	15	10	10	6	11	7	20	14	18	14	25	18	15	7	10	8	10	7	21	15

ATYPICAL WORKING HOURS AND FAMILY CIRCUMSTANCES

The tables contained in Annex 12 describe the family circumstances for men and women for each form of working hours. For all atypical working hours and all countries, the predominant family situation for both men and women is that of employees living together as a couple without children (this accounts for around one third of the employees concerned). The second most common type of situation is that of couples with one dependent child (around 20%, depending on type of working hours, country and sex). This last statistic is important insofar as such types of working hours are therefore more common among families with one child than among single persons, whose family circumstances seem more compatible with such working hours. Similarly, there is a noticeable similarity in the family structures of men and women working atypical hours: although it might be thought that women would find the presence of a child to be less compatible with such working hours, this is not the case. These results are significant as they show that problems relating to child care are no longer merely a matter of "normal" daily working hours and a 4 or 5-day week. While such child care is mostly arranged by sharing out tasks within the family, this clearly does not solve every problem; as we shall see in Part 2, the sharing out of domestic tasks is far from egalitarian – also with regard to bringing up children. While the support provided by the extended family (grandparents) undoubtedly helps, collective child care requirements still pose a problem for such families, where the partners are sometimes both affected by such working hours. A final, noteworthy footnote: regardless of the type of working hours and country, 2% of female employees working atypical hours are bringing up a child on their own.

INDICATORS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY LIFE AND WORKING LIFE

PART TWO: ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA [3]

This part of the report covers the use of the national questionnaires provided by Member States, supplemented by European data. It shows the resources available to parents in terms of:

- time available (maternity and paternity leave, parental leave, leave for sick children, etc.);
- childcare according to children's age;
- care of dependent elderly people;
- social protection expenditure;
- availability of opening-hours of (public and commercial) services; and lastly
- the breakdown of work in the family in terms of a (paid and domestic work) time budget.

The data given here are far from being harmonised and comprehensive. Our aim is really to propose, on the basis of the shortcomings detected, that about twenty harmonised indicators be followed up at European level, to improve knowledge of the resources offered to families whose parents are working and, ultimately, to favour a better relationship between working life and family life both for women and for men.

[3] Study by Rachel SILVERA with input from Séverine LEMIERE.

I - FORMS OF LEAVE

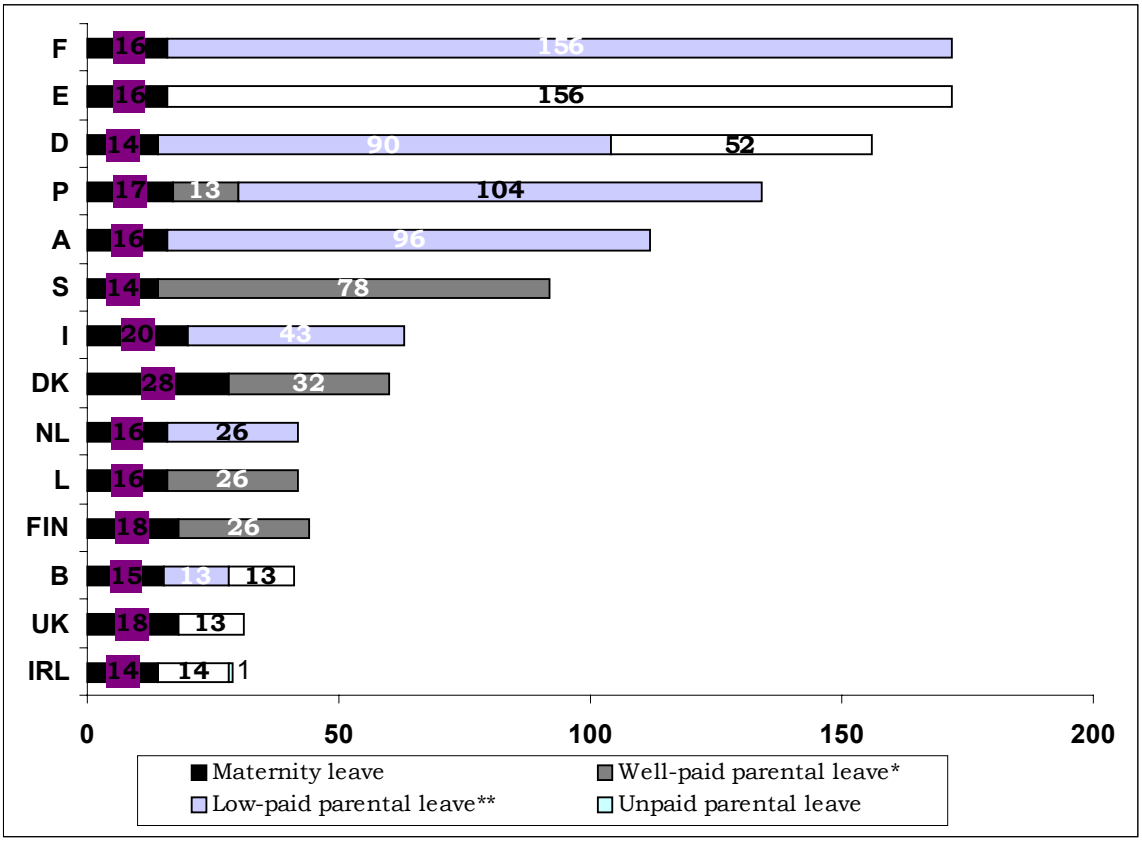
Given the diversity of the forms of leave and various cases existing within Europe, in this report we cover only the most usual forms: maternity leave (see Annex 13), paternity leave (see Annex 14), parental leave (see Annex 15) and leave for family reasons (sick children, dependent persons, etc.). The recent data gathered from Member States, compared and supplemented by various European studies, show an important step forward at European level in recognition of rights to leave: all European countries have now introduced a right to parental leave, in accordance with the European Directive. We also note from the tables in the Annex that maternity leave varies from 14 to 20 weeks depending on the country, and that it is always paid (between 60% and 100% of previous wage). Conversely, paternity leave is not universal: in 5 countries, it does not exist at all, while in Finland it is three weeks (or even a month in Sweden, in the case of the "father's month").

While parental leave now exists in all European legal systems, it does not always have the same scope in terms of duration and whether or not it is paid. Thus, it varies from 13 weeks in the United Kingdom (14 in Ireland) to around 3 years (Germany, Spain, France and Portugal). But there is another difference, concerning pay for this type of leave: it is unpaid in the United Kingdom, Ireland and Spain; paid at a low level (as a fixed-level payment subject to certain conditions such as the number of children) in Germany, Austria, Belgium and France; in contrast, it is higher in Luxembourg and in all the Nordic countries, where it is usually a proportion of previous wages. However, regardless of the formula adopted and the degree to which it is taken up, this system is largely oriented towards women. Some countries have therefore introduced arrangements to encourage fathers to take leave: in Austria, and as of very recently in Italy, the total length of the leave is extended if the father takes a part of it. In Sweden, Belgium and Greece, each parent has a distinct right to leave and this right is lost if not taken ("the father's month" in Sweden). Finally, we would cite the new Spanish legislation laying down that a part of *maternity* leave may be taken by the father (up to 10 weeks out of the 16). While this measure has the advantage of genuinely involving fathers, it can also be seen as calling maternity leave into question (since this can be as little as six weeks). The right to maternity leave, following a birth, should in our view be kept clearly separate from parental leave, since it could otherwise lead to women returning to work too early and thus endanger mothers of young children. **Despite all these efforts, in many cases around 90% of this category of leave is taken up by women, except in the Netherlands where the rate of take-up by women is given, subject to error, as 57%, and Finland, where it is given as 68%.**

Finally, most countries provide days of leave for sick children (Annex 17). Here, too, there are wide variations in length, from 2 days' paid leave in Luxembourg to 120 days in Sweden. In most countries, there is no specific legislation on care for dependent persons but, on the other hand, leave for sick children can often be extended to other members of the household or even outside the household (Austria). It should be borne in mind generally that the information obtained on this type of leave is still partial: while it can be followed up with precision in legislative terms, **few quantified data on take-up of these systems were provided** (see Annex 16).

Summary of lengths of maternity and parental leave (in weeks)
Source: Bettio and others, corrected by us

* as percentage of wage
** in the form of a fixed premium



II - CHILDCARE

Our second theme concerns forms of care for children from 0 to 6 or 7 years old. It must be admitted that this is a perilous enterprise: it seems impossible to obtain reliable harmonised data, for various reasons. In the first place, depending on the country, the relevant age groups are not the same. Our proposal to divide into age groups of 0 to 3 years and then from 3 to 6 or 7 years (compulsory school age) is not always pertinent or even functional. For instance, in Portugal, the data provided concerned children under 6 years old; in the United Kingdom, they covered all children under 8; in Sweden the cut-off is 0 to 2 years. In addition, the forms of care differ from one country to another and it is impossible to record, as we had hoped to, the full breakdown of forms of childcare for all children, according to whether they are in local authority organisations, looked after by a childminder away from the child's home, by a person at the child's home, by one of the parents or by other means (family mutual assistance, an unofficial childminder, etc.). Only half of the countries provided full data, which are in any case fairly flimsy (e.g. the United Kingdom data are for places available). It is thus best to restrict ourselves, as most comparative studies do, to indicators on local authority childcare. But another difficulty appears at this point: there are significant divergences between the data our questionnaire provide and those available elsewhere (particularly those in Deven and others, 1997). We decided we should present these differences without, however, taking any stance.

Despite all these reservations, some remarks may be made: overall, major progress has been made in childcare, but the efforts involved are mainly focussed on 3 to 6-year-olds, with little done for early childhood (0 to 3 years): thus, in only 4 to 5 countries (France, Portugal, Denmark, Finland and Sweden) are more than one-third of children aged from 0 to 3 given local authority childcare (the data given for Portugal (34%) are for children under 6. According to Deven, in 1993 only 12% of under-threes receive local authority childcare.). This is a fundamental point, with considerable impact on the activity models of young mothers: **in many countries, parental leave is aimed at that period of childhood and thus gives rise to no need for local authority childcare. Very few countries offer both possibilities (except for the Nordic countries and to some extent France).**

As for 3 to 6-year-olds, in contrast, local authority care is by a long way the major form: in 9 countries, more than 80% of the children in this age group have state childcare. We would draw attention for instance to the existence of pre-primary schools in Belgium and France (with an ever-earlier starting age, as from 2 and a half). Furthermore, Italy stands out very clearly with one of the highest rates of childcare, a rate (97,7%) that is still rising, which is the more remarkable since only 6% of 0 to 3-year-olds are provided with childcare in Italy.

The third important piece of information concerns the extent of the timetables for all forms of care (Annex 18). While compulsory school hours (see Annex 19) are relatively short (around 4 to 5 hours per day), some countries organise care outside school hours, using state or private systems. Some countries have also experimented with new timetables for crèches, better suited to the needs of parents (in 5 to 6 countries including Denmark, Sweden, Finland, France and the Netherlands). But this is still a marginal phenomenon and covers no more than 15% of crèches (in Denmark). In total, only 4 or 5 countries offer school hours covering more than 30 hours per week. Elsewhere, the number of hours in school organisations is not compatible with full-time work for both parents, unless childcare solutions, whether informal (family mutual assistance) or private (charging) are found. Now, it seems to us essential that this dimension be taken into account in terms of the relationship between family life and working life: given the increasing number of employees with atypical working hours (with Saturday working becoming normal and irregular hours frequent for both men and women), it seems to us vital that childcare timetables should be better able to meet the needs of families.

II. 1 - Breakdown of types of childcare for children aged 0 to 3 in 1998. (regular and main forms of care)

	D	A	B	DK	EL	E	FIN	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P**	UK	S**
Local authority care (crèche, parental crèche, employer crèche, nursery school, etc.)	6,3%*	3,8%	17,8%	55%	*3 % (0-2,5 years)*	*8,7% (2 years)*	33,6%	41%	ND	*6%*	11%	12,3% (0-4 years)	34,2% (-6 years)	4,4% (places 0-8 years)	33,5% (0-2 years)
Ditto, Data Deven and others	2,2% (West) 41,3% (East) (1996)	3% (1994)	30% (1993)	48% (1994)	3% (1993)	2% (1993)	21% (1994)	23% (1993)	2% (1993)	6% (1991)	ND	8% (1993)	12% (1993)	2% (1993)	33% (1994)
Babysitters, childminders (day-care mother)	NA	NA	23,7%	NA *(28%)*		NA	2,4	15%	NA	NA	2%	NA	10.4 (-6 years)	7,4% (places 0-8 years)	6,5% (0-2 years)
At home by one of the 2 parents	NA	NA	38,4%	23%		NA	66%	50%	majority	NA	NA	NA	57,3% (-6 years)	ND	55,1% (0-2 years)
At home by a paid third party	NA	NA	20,2%	1%		NA	NA	2%	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,2% (-6 years)	ND	ND
Family mutual assistance	NA	NA		21%		NA	NA	25%	NA	NA	NA	NA	13,9% (-6 years)	ND	1,9% (0-2 years)
Other													4,2% (-6 years)	7,6% (play-group places)	

* : 1994 data for former FRG : 2,2%, new Länder : 41,3%.
** : 1999 data *Italics : Care in Europe report*

II. 2 - Breakdown of types of childcare for children aged from 3 to compulsory school starting age in 1998 (regular and main)

	D	A	B	DK	EL	E	FIN	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P**	UK	S**
Local authority care (kindergarten, nursery school etc.)	77%*	78,5%	90%	91%	*7O % (2,5-5,5 years)*	ND	78%	100%	*3%*	97,7%	44,9%	ND ***	34,2% (-6 yrs)	4,4% (places 0-8 yrs)	68% (6 yrs ****)
Ditto, Data Deven and others	85,2% (West) 116,8% (East) (1996)	75% (1994)	95% (1993)	82% (1994)	70% (1993)	84% (1993)	53% (1994)	99% (1993)	55% **** (1993)	91% (1991)	ND	71% (1993)	48% (1993)	60% (1993)	72 (1994)
Babysitters, childminders	NA	NA	NA	NA		NA	4,5%	21%	NA	NA	2%	ND	10,4% (-6 yrs)	7,4% (places 0-8 yrs)	4.4 (6 yrs ****)
At home by one of the 2 parents	NA	NA	NA	1%		NA	17,5%	50%	majority	NA	ND	ND	57.3% (-6 yrs)	ND	Rem-ainder (6 yrs *****)
At home by a paid third party	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	8%	NA	NA	ND	ND	1.2% (-6 yrs)	ND	ND
Family mutual assistance	NA	NA	NA	8%	NA	NA	NA	10%	NA	NA	ND	ND	13.9% (-6 yrs)	ND	Little (6 yrs *****)
Other													4.2% (-6 yrs)	7,6% (play-group places)	

- : 1994 data. New Länder: 96%, Former FRG: 73%. Since 1999, all children between 3 and school starting age have the right to a kindergarten place. This right is guaranteed, so on average the percentage in childcare is around 90%. **: 1999 data. *** No data for 4 to 5 year-olds (compulsory school age). ****: This data item could mislead since, in the absence of state pre-school, Irish children go to school from the age of 4. *****: Outside school. *Italics: Care in Europe report.*

III. DEPENDENT OLDER PEOPLE

While the preceding data on the care of children are far from complete and consistent, the data on dependence are even more problematic: the data are scarce and and do not always correspond to the classification, but what is more, there is a crucial lack of European provision for the care of older people requiring constant aid, either at home or in institutions. However, demographic projections and the data supplied in Annex 20 reveal considerable needs in this area: according to Bettio and others, by 2010 older people will represent more than 45% of the dependent population (as against 35% in 1995).

"*Until recently, there was a tendency not to pay too much attention to the issue of caring for older people, treating them as more or less self-sufficient and to see institutionalisation as the best solution"* (European Commission, 1998). A parallel may be drawn here with young children: **in a large number of European countries, at both ends of the age spectrum when needs in terms of dependence are at their greatest, local authorities overall take the least responsibility for care, which is most often left to the family.** However, everyone knows that overall it is women who, first as mothers, then as daughters or daughters-in-law, shoulder almost all the burden of this type of care. The rise in women's employment is making this situation increasingly difficult for them.

Recently changes have been taking place: some countries have extended help at home to enable elderly people to retain some independence and some, such as France, Austria and Finland, have introduced payments for elderly people. However, as the following data show, these efforts are still insignificant: only four countries offer around 15% of dependent people home help (the Nordic countries and the United Kingdom).

	Proportion of people aged 65+ in an institution	**Proportion of people aged 65+ with help at home**	**Proportion of people aged 65+ living with their children**	**Proportion of dependent people living with their children**
Germany	3,7% (5%**)	NA (3%**)	NA	NA
Austria	NA (4,7%)*	NA (3%*)	NA	NA
Belgium	NA (4%*)	NA (6%*)	NA	NA
Denmark	1999: 12% of those aged 67+ (5,7%*)	1999: 24% of those aged 67+ (17%*)	Around 30% of those aged 67+	NA
Spain	NA (2,8%*)	NA (1%)	NA	NA

	Proportion of people aged 65+ in an institution	**Proportion of people aged 65+ with help at home**	**Proportion of people aged 65+ living with their children**	**Proportion of dependent people living with their children**
Finland	1998: 8% of those aged 75+ (hospice or hospital) (7,2%*)	11% have domestic help,, 14% receive "support services" (24%)	NA	NA
France	1998:4,8% (3%**)	8% (7%**)	1995: 87% of those aged 75+ lived at home or with a member of their family	1995: 64% of dependent people lived at home or with a member of their family
Greece	(0,5%)			
Ireland	(5%**)	(3%**)	NA	NA
Italy	NA (2%**)	1999: 2,8% help provided by the State; 12,9% private help (1,3%**)	1999: 4,5%	1999: 6,2%
Luxembourg	NA	NA	NA	NA
Netherlands	NA (10%)	NA (8%)	NA	NA
Portugal	NA (5%**)	8,2%****(1,5%**)	NA	NA
United Kingdom	1991: 5,4%*** (5,1%*)	1998-9: 13% (9% received private help; 4% State help); 2% received meals; 5% nursing care (13%*)	5% live with sons or daughters (2% of men and 7% of women)	NA
Sweden	1999: 7,5% (5,4%*)	1999: 9,1% (13%*)	1990: 2,1% of people aged 65+ lived with persons other than their spouse	

* OECD (1996) data from 1986 to 1994
** EEC (Care in Europe), data from 1985 to 1994
*** Our estimate on the basis of data from the UK questionnaire
**** proportion of those receiving an allowance for the assistance of a third person out of old-age pensioners

IV - EXPENDITURE ON SOCIAL PROTECTION

The questionnaire did not produce any consistent data on financial assistance to families, apart from the services mentioned above. One section of the questionnaire was in fact devoted to the funding of help for families (ways of financing forms of care, proportion of GDP earmarked for such expenditure, etc.), but very few Member States gave full answers. This aspect is particularly difficult to address because the systems for redistributing social protection are so complex, depending on whether they are based on taxation or social security contributions, in the form either of benefits in kind or tax reductions (dependents' allowance). The following data give us only a rough idea of the differences between countries without going into detail. Overall, Denmark pays EUR 8 200 per head of the population and thus has the highest level of social security expenditure. It is in Portugal, (EUR 2 000), Greece (EUR 2 000), Ireland (EUR 2 400) and Italy (EUR 3 800) that levels are lowest. The other countries spend large amounts on social security (more than EUR 6 000). In the case of family allowances, in Sweden, Finland and Denmark, benefits frequently exceed 4% of GDP, while they are often lower than 1% in Greece and Spain. On the other hand, as regards retirement, the countries of the South, in particular Spain and Portugal, provide the highest occupational pensions (based on the social security contributions of employers and employees), but very low basic old-age pensions. In generic terms, these types of retirement pensions therefore favour those who have been in work , to the detriment of those who have not worked, in particular women who are dependent on their husbands for a retirement pension.

	Per capita expenditure on social protection 1996 (in euro)*	**Proportion of family allowances in 1995 GDP (approximately)****	**Level of retirement pension: contribution-based pension (basic old-age pension) as a percentage of average income*****
Germany	6 400	2%	77% *(40%)*
Austria	6 300	3,1%	
Belgium		1,9%	73% *(48%)*
Denmark	8 200	4,2%	60% (50%)
Spain	2 200	0,4%	97% *(30%)*
Finland	6 100	4,3%	
France	6 100	2,1%	88% *(47%)*
Greece	1 900	0,2%	107% *(8%)*
Ireland	2 400	2,2%	42% *(38%)*
Italy	3 800	1,1%	89% *(CAPut!'%)*
Luxembourg		3,2%	78% *(47%)*
Netherlands	6 100	1,2%	49% *(49%)*
Portugal	1 800	1%	94% *(29%)*
United Kingdom	4 000	2,5%	44% *(36%)*
Sweden	6 600	4%	

* Eurostat (taken from Fouquet and others, 1999)
** Eurostat (taken from Rakatomalala, 2000)
*** Care in Europe, 1998

V – MUNICIPAL OPENING HOURS

Another dimension of the relationship between family and working life, which is rarely mentioned, relates to time management on the part of public services and businesses. In the same way as an effort is made (still rarely) to achieve flexible childcare timetables, it is important to organise municipal opening hours to enable couples, both of whom are working and have children, to cope with administrative business and household shopping at times compatible with their working hours.
On the whole, the data supplied in Annex 21 show that the opening hours of public offices (town hall, post office, etc.) are still rigid: they close at lunch time or early in the afternoon; there are no services on Saturday. Only postal services offer a little more flexibility: Saturday opening (morning only) is becoming increasingly frequent in Europe. Business opening hours are more flexible and have been able to take into account the needs of families more rapidly in terms of spread of hours. Experiments with Sunday opening are also becoming more and more frequent. And improvements on an experimental basis (see Annex 22) are being introduced (particularly in Italy with "time offices", which are specifically intended to help match the hours of public offices, childcare facilities, business and transport, etc. more closely with working hours). **These experiments were based precisely on a desire to encourage equality between men and women by means of the crucial issue of time management.** In the meantime, some experiments have been tried in other countries (Germany and very recently France) but, although these issues are fundamental, they are not yet being universally addressed.

VI – TIME BUDGETING

The final aspect of this study is the use of time in households and the link between working and home time. Unfortunately, the information gathered in this area is amongst the most incomplete and least reliable. It seems absolutely indispensable to harmonise this type of survey at European level.
However, from the few replies which are usable, we can glean some points:

– in the first place, we confirm that time at work and time at home are not shared equally between the sexes, and that is true whatever the country involved. Excluding the information supplied by Denmark, men spend more time at work. Among the seven countries which were able to complete the first table in Annex 23 (on the total duration of daily working hours), four report a difference of at least one hour;

– in the second place (cf. Annex 24), only nine countries supplied reasonably exact data on time spent at home. Irrespective of the country, we can confirm that, unlike time at work, it is women who devote the most time to these household tasks. However, here the gap between women and men is considerably wider than in the case of time at work: it usually exceeds two hours, except in the Netherlands and Sweden. In addition, this "domestic" time varies more from one country to another: thus, in Italy working mothers with three children and more (who are few in number) spend more than four and a half hours per day on household tasks, whereas the corresponding time in Sweden and the Netherlands is no more than two and a half hours (here the data correspond to the age of the children and not to their number). These differences between sexes and countries are considerably reduced if we look only at the time devoted to others (upbringing and care of children and care of other adults), except in the Netherlands and Sweden where parents devote the most time (especially to children under six).

Overall, the following table shows how far equal division of household tasks is from being achieved in all the countries where we have obtained data. **Women perform between 70 and 80% of all household and family tasks. The percentage varies according to the age and number of children: the greater the burden (small children and/or large family), the less it is shared.** The Netherlands and Sweden are more egalitarian since, where children are over six, women perform "only" 57 to 59% of household tasks. There is a certain balancing up here if we compare men's over-investment in their work with women's over-investment in household tasks in these countries. In contrast, it is in Italy that there is least division of household tasks: 90% of these are performed by women when they have three children.

In view of the difficulty of harmonising data at European level, we have selected only two types of household activities: basic household tasks, including cooking, housework, laundry (and ironing) and shopping. The second important indicator relates to responsibility for children and other adults (upbringing and care). We have deliberately excluded other household occupations such as gardening and do-it-yourself, in view of their more ambivalent nature, somewhere between household tasks (sometimes necessary) and leisure, so that they are often classified as "semi-leisure activities."

Proportion of basic household and upbringing-related tasks performed by mothers

Number of children		1	2	3 or more
Germany	1991-92	70,3%	72,1%	73,7%
Austria	1988*	81,8%		
Belgium	1997	children up to 5 88%	children 6-14 88%	
Denmark	1995: no detailed data			
Spain	1998*	84,6%		
Finland	Survey in progress NA	1992: Children up to 7 83,3% (approx.) including 74% of childcare	1992: Children over 7 82,4% (approx.) including 61% of childcare	
France	1998-99	78%	78,5%	81,1%
Greece				
Ireland				
Italy	NA	84,6%	87,9%	**90,1%**
Luxembourg	NA			
Netherlands	1997	Children up to 6 68,5%	**Children 6-12** **57,2%**	Children 12-18 61,4%
Portugal	NA			
United Kingdom	1995*	74,1%		
Sweden**	1990-91	Children up to 6 72,9%	**Children 7-17** **59,1%**	

Constructing indicators for monitoring the relationship between family life and working life

At the close of this study, we have worked out eight of the simplest indicators to ensure regular monitoring of progress of the available measures for all the European countries. These indicators could be supplied and updated every two years.

PROPOSED INDICATORS:

Leave:

1. Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) as a proportion of all employed parents.
2. Allocation of parental leave between men and women as a proportion of all parental leave.

Childcare

3. Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group:
   - before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day);
   - in the pre-school system (outside pre-school hours);
   - in compulsory primary education (outside school hours).

Dependent elderly people

4. Persons over 75 years living in an institution or having help at home as a proportion of all persons over 75 years.

Opening hours of services

5. Normal opening hours of public services, on weekdays and Saturdays.
6. Normal shop opening hours, on weekdays and at the weekend.

Timetable

7. Total "tied" time per day for each **employed parent living with a partner**, having one or more children under 12 years old:
   - travelling time,
   - basic time spent on domestic work,
   - other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults).
8. Total "tied" time per day for each **employed parent living alone**, having one or more children under 12 years old:
   - travelling time,
   - basic time spent on domestic work,
   - other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults)."

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