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- Women and the Economy: Reconciliation of work and family life as a
precondition for equal participation in the labour market
= Draft Council Conclusions

Delegations will find attached the report produced by the European Institute for Gender Equality on the Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action regarding "Women and the Economy: Reconciliation of Work and Family Life as a Condition of Equal Participation in the Labour Market."



**Review of the Implementation of the Beijing
Platform for Action in
the area F: Women and the Economy.
Reconciliation of Work and Family Life as
a Condition of Equal Participation in
the Labour Market**

REPORT

September 2011

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COUNTRY ABBREVIATIONS

AT	Austria	IT	Italy
BE	Belgium	LT	Lithuania
BG	Bulgaria	LU	Luxembourg
CY	Cyprus	LV	Latvia
CZ	Czech Republic	MT	Malta
DE	Germany	NL	Netherlands
DK	Denmark	PL	Poland
EE	Estonia	PT	Portugal
EL	Greece	RO	Romania
ES	Spain	SE	Sweden
FI	Finland	SI	Slovenia
FR	France	SK	Slovakia
HU	Hungary	UK	United Kingdom
IE	Ireland	EU27	27 EU Member States

ABBREVIATIONS

BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
EC	European Commission
EES	European Employment Strategy
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EGGE	EU Expert Group on Gender and Employment
EGGSI	Expert Group on Gender Equality and Social Inclusion, Health and Long Term Care
EU	European Union
MS	Member States

INTRODUCTION

The Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, officially adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action for Equality, Development and Peace (BPfA). The BPfA is an agenda for women's empowerment that reaffirms the fundamental principle whereby the human rights of women and the girl child are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights. As an agenda for action, the platform seeks to promote and protect the full enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by women throughout their lives.

In December 1995, the Council of the European Union acknowledged the European Community's commitment to the Beijing Declaration and decided that the BPfA would be monitored annually¹. In 1998, the Council agreed that the annual assessment of the implementation of the BPfA would include a proposal on a simple set of quantitative and qualitative indicators and benchmarks. Since 1999, indicators have been developed in 9 out of the 12 critical areas of concern of the BPfA by successive Council Presidencies.

In 2010, the European Commission assigned the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) the task of supporting the Presidency countries in the follow-up of the BPfA and in the development of necessary indicators and benchmarking information. In line with the Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015² and EIGE's Annual and Mid-Term Work Programmes, and in close cooperation with the Member States holding the Presidency, the High-Level Group on Gender Mainstreaming and the Commission, EIGE's role is to draw up a report in support of the work of the Presidency in the selected critical areas of concern of the BPfA.

¹ Presidency Conclusions of the European Council, Madrid, 15 and 16 December 1995, available at:

http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/00400-C.EN5.htm.

² The European Commission's Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015 (Doc. COM/2010/0491 final)

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52010DC0491:EN:NOT>.

The current report has been prepared to support the Polish Government as holders of the Presidency of the Council between July and December 2011. Focused on area F: Women and the Economy of the BPfA, with emphasis on the reconciliation of work, family and private life, the report presents a review of the available, most recently updated information and data on gender gaps in labour market outcomes and reconciliation of work, private and family life among women and men in the EU Member States. The findings of two previous reviews on the state of implementation of the BPfA in this area: the French Presidency Report of 2008³ and the review of developments in all 12 critical areas of concern presented by the Swedish Presidency in 2009, *Beijing 15+: The Platform for Action and the European Union*⁴ served as departure point for the report.

The report is made up of four chapters, Chapter 1 presents a short literature review on the links between reconciliation policies and women's participation in the labour market and discusses the most recent updates in the EU policies. Chapter 2 presents the methodology used for the review of the literature. Chapter 3 offers an overview of gender gaps in labour markets at EU and Member States level. Finally, Chapter 4 reviews the current situation in the light of the indicators established with respect to the BPfA area on Women and the Economy. The analysis presented in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 is complemented by graphs and tables set out in Appendices 1, 2 and 3. The main sources of data used are described in Appendix 4.

The current report is based on a study commissioned by EIGE and carried out by Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini. The findings were processed by the research team of EIGE, with valuable contribution from the members of EIGE's Working Group on Beijing indicators. The Institute is very grateful for all feed-back and suggestions provided for the final version of the report.

³ *Review of the implementation by the Member States and the EU institutions of the Beijing Platform for Action. Report by the French Presidency on the indicators concerning reconciliation of work and family life* (16595/08 ADD 1 + COR 1) available at: <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/08/st16/st16595-ad01.en08.pdf>. The Report was taken note of in the Council Conclusions on "Women and the Economy: Reconciliation of Work and Family Life" (17474/08, available at: <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/08/st17/st17474.en08.pdf>)

⁴ Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=4336&langId=en>

1. BACKGROUND ANALYSIS

1.1. Reconciliation of work, family and private life and women's participation in the labour market

Links between women's employment and their private and family life and the role of reconciliation measures to promote women's participation in the labour market can be analysed using different perspectives within the relevant social science disciplines. This section looks at that topic from an institutional and economic point of view, including micro and macro perspectives.

Reconciliation policies have been developed primarily with the aim of facilitating women's employment. They are traditionally defined as policies that directly support the combination of professional, private and family life or, most commonly, as policies to assist in maintaining a work-life balance. As such, they can be divided into those affecting labour relations and working time arrangements, and those more directly involving public intervention, such as the provision of childcare services, leave facilities, and child benefits (Ibáñez, 2010).

From a macroeconomic perspective, it is widely recognised at both academic and policy levels that assuring the participation of women in the labour market is a key to maintaining economic growth and ensuring the financial sustainability of social security systems in the context of population ageing (EC 2009c). In this regard, policy-makers face a twofold challenge: encouraging women's participation in the labour force yet not reducing fertility rates below replacement rates as a consequence of the economic cost of childbearing and of the burden of the associated responsibilities. Indeed, the evidence in the recent empirical literature suggests that an increase in the level of women's labour force participation does not necessarily come at the cost of a reduction of fertility (Ahn and Mira, 2002; Jaumotte 2003).⁵ For this reason, researchers can reasonably argue that policies which help parents to reconcile work, private and family life may actually stimulate both women's participation in the labour market and fertility, providing an additional channel to

⁵ At the European level, the populations of the Nordic countries are characterised by relatively high fertility rates despite high female participation rates, while Southern European countries have both low female participation rates and low fertility (Jaumotte, 2003).

reduce the burden of financing a growing number of older people imposed on future generations (Sleeboš, 2003). More recently, Eurostat announced that after falling sharply between 1980 and the early 2000s, the fertility rate in the EU27 started to increase again in 2003, when it stood at 1.47 children per woman, reaching a level of 1.60 in 2008 (EC, 2011b).

Increasing women's labour force participation and fertility rates, and more recently the challenges of an ageing population resulted in family arrangements that have moved away from the traditional "male breadwinner/female carer" model, in which men took primary responsibility for paid work and women performed unpaid care work, towards more equal roles. When the analysis is carried out at the micro level, it is clear that the greatest incompatibility between motherhood and women's paid work basically prevails due to the fact that childcare is still mainly deemed to be the mother's responsibility. As a matter of fact, mothers spend more hours in unpaid work when they have young children, while fathers sometimes increase their working hours following a rise in the number of children (Fagan, 2009). Another topic which is gaining increasing attention is the effect of the care needs of elderly dependants on women's employment decisions. Indeed, although men are more likely to contribute to care of the elderly than to childcare (Bettio and Verashchagina, 2009b, Del Bono et al., 2009, Fagan, 2010, Glendinning et al., 2009), women are still the main providers of elderly care, just as they are still largely overrepresented among carers, whether paid or unpaid (Bettio and Verashchagina, 2011). More working women than working men currently reduce their hours of work, quit employment or simply curtail leisure activities in order to care for relatives or friends on an informal basis⁶.

Given the need to combine these different aspects of people's lives, reconciliation policies are of particular relevance to the advancement in equal sharing of family responsibilities between women and men. Within this context, the main findings of the empirical analysis show that to boost women's labour force participation, policy interventions should focus on increasing the availability of quality part-time work opportunities, on providing affordable childcare and on facilitating paid parental leave. In addition, more neutral tax treatment of second earners in a household has been shown to be particularly effective (Jaumotte, 2003).

⁶ These findings are discussed in Bolin et al. (2008) and Bonsang (2009) by reference to the first wave of the Survey on Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE) conducted in 2004.

In particular, several empirical studies have found that women's participation in the labour market has become less strongly correlated to the presence of children due to the increase in the availability and affordability of childcare since 1990 (Plantenga and Remery, 2009). Theoretically the impact of childcare subsidies on labour force participation is straightforward: the availability of childcare services reduces the relative price of childcare and therefore increases relative returns from the work market (Jaumotte, 2003). Studies have also focused on the impact of situations where affordable childcare is lacking, suggesting that the lack of childcare facilities prevents a considerable group of inactive women from participating in the labour market. In addition, insufficient childcare facilities seem to reduce average working hours of female employees (Plantenga and Remery, 2009). Nevertheless, the effectiveness of childcare support policies in terms of raising women's participation in the labour market is not always easy to assess. When childcare subsidies are considered, it is important to remember that they may give rise to a simple replacement effect (Jaumotte, 2003). Full subsidies for formal childcare arrangements, for example, might encourage working parents to switch from unpaid and informal arrangements to paid and formal childcare without necessarily raising parental involvement in the labour market⁷.

It is also important to acknowledge the possibility that implicit gender bias may be embedded in measures supporting family carers or work practices.⁸ Maternity and paternity leave for childcare are important examples in this context. Lengthy and well-paid maternity leave, together with the right to return to work guaranteed by law, may promote fertility. However, non-compulsory paternity leave may cause gender discrimination in the labour market, because employers may prefer men to women since men do not take leave (or just take shorter leave) when they have children. The data also suggest that the penalties suffered by women are disproportionate compared with the productivity loss associated with leave-taking (Selmi, 2000). Such data and knowledge of the benefits associated to reconciliation policies in companies, like motivation, productivity, company's social cohesion, avoidance of women's knowledge and talent drain, might be a useful source of information for employers.

⁷ While the effect in terms of labour market participation may be essentially straightforward, the effect on working hours is ambiguous, as the increase in wages would create an income effect and a substitution effect that work in an opposite direction to the desired hours of work. Finally, the issue of causality has to be taken into account. In some countries there is strong evidence of causality between childcare support and female participation. In other countries, however, in particular the Nordic ones, the order of events seems to be reversed, with an increase in female labour participation preceding the extension of childcare facilities (Plantenga and Remery, 2009).

⁸ See Bettio and Verashchagina (2009a) for a gender evaluation on tax system incentives.

For similar reasons, there is an ongoing discussion about whether employment policies should promote greater flexibility in working hours and part-time work (Plantenga and Remery, 2010). One economic argument in favour of promoting greater flexibility is the assumption that more individualised working hours will help employees reconcile their work obligations with their personal life. It is thus likely that countries with more individualised working hours and higher part-time work rates will also have a higher female participation rate (Jaumotte, 2003). Greater flexibility, however, may also have adverse effects on gender equality and work-life balance. Arguments against flexible working time are based on three main possible consequences: reduced career development possibilities resulting from fewer training and promotion opportunities; lower social security contributions, which may result in lower income during retirement, and less bargaining power in the woman's relationship with her partner (EC 2011a; Ibáñez 2010). The higher concentration of women in part-time jobs may thus undermine gender equality in terms of income, responsibilities and power. In addition, flexibility might come alongside an obligation to work long hours, particularly when workloads are heavy and variable (Fagan, 2009a).

Finally, when addressing the family and labour market policies in helping parents to combine work, private and family life, it is important to consider the challenges that one of the deepest and severest economic crises of the past fifty years may present to policy-makers. As highlighted by several gender experts (Smith, 2009; Bettio et al., 2009; Villa and Smith, 2010a), policy responses to the crisis, such as budgetary cuts for public care services, risk jeopardising the advances made in women's employment and gender equality achieved over recent years, and as a consequence, conditions affecting work-life balance may worsen. Given that parents with small children usually are users of public care services, they are particularly sensitive to budgetary cuts, likely to be introduced in the majority of Member States as a part of the fiscal consolidation process. Moreover, some employers may be tempted to limit or cut policies aimed at helping parents to reconcile the demands made by work, private and family life. Yet crises can also be transformative moments (Seguino, 2009), providing an opportunity for EU countries to explicitly recognise that the different gender impacts of policies need auditing and monitoring.

1.2. EU policy and legal context

Promoting reconciliation of work, private and family life for women and men is recognised at the European level as an important priority for achieving gender equality, increasing women's participation in the labour market, and promoting equal sharing of care responsibilities between women and men. It is also among the strategic objectives of BPfA in the critical area of Women and the Economy (area F).

The year 2010 was a turning point in the evolution of the European Employment Strategy as the European Council launched Europe 2020, a strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth (EC 2010a) and set a number of EU headline targets. The Employment Guidelines for Member States' policies state that gender equality should be integrated into all relevant policy areas and national policies should improve the situation of women in the labour market and combat discrimination in order to increase women's labour-force participation⁹. The relevant EU headline target is *aiming to raise to 75 % the employment rate for women and men aged 20-64, including through greater participation of young people, older workers and low-skilled workers and the better integration of legal migrants*.

As many researchers have pointed out (Villa and Smith, 2010b), gender equality has a relatively low profile in the final adopted version of Europe 2020, with many of the references to women's employment, gender gaps and inequalities included at a late stage of the process. Separately from Europe 2020, which was adopted by the European Council, the Commission has presented a Women's Charter (COM (2010) 78) and a Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015 (EC 2010b). This Strategy states that economic independence is a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives and to make genuine choices,

⁹ In this context, Employment Guideline 7 aims at *increasing labour market participation of women and men, reducing structural unemployment and promoting job quality*, and encourages policies combating gender inequality, by promoting equal pay and conditions for a better work-life balance. Employment Guideline 8: *developing a skilled workforce responding to labour market needs and promoting lifelong learning* encourages Member States to create policies promoting further opportunities for training, skills and professional experience for women, including in the scientific, mathematical and technology fields.

and identifies reconciliation measures among the key actions. These are the following: supporting the promotion of gender equality; promoting female entrepreneurship and self-employment; assessing remaining gaps in entitlement to family-related leave, notably paternity; reporting on the Member States' performance with regard to childcare facilities, and promoting gender equality in all initiatives relating to immigration and integration of migrants.

Overall, despite the lack of an explicit reference in Europe 2020, gender equality remains a key political objective for the EU and a distinct aspect of the non-discrimination strategy. To achieve the objectives of Europe 2020, policies to promote gender equality are needed to make full use of the labour potential of both sexes, in order to face the challenges of an ageing population and rising global competition.

Several reports have acknowledged the efforts made by the EU in coping with reconciliation issues (Eurofound, 2010; Eurostat, 2009; Plantenga and Remery, 2005). The EU policy and legal framework on reconciling work, family and private life started gaining prominence at the European level during the 1980s, although the main 'hard' legislative measures in the area were introduced during the 1990s. These are the Pregnant Workers Directive (PWD) of 1992 and the Parental Leave Directive (PLD) of 1996.

Following an agreement of the European social partners on parental leave, signed in June 2009, a revision of the PLD was proposed by the Commission. The new Directive was formally adopted by the EPSCO Council on 8 March 2010 (Council Directive 2010/18/EU) and Member States are required to transpose the new rights into national law within two years¹⁰. The main changes in the revised Directive on Parental Leave are:

- Longer leave: each working parent will have the right to take four months off per child (previously three months). At least one month of the leave is made non-transferable between the mother and father, meaning it will be lost if not taken¹¹. This offers an incentive for fathers to take part of their leave, given that currently many working fathers transfer their right to leave to the mother. The right of parental leave in this context is an individual right and in principle non-transferable.

¹⁰ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:068:0013:0020:EN:PDF>

¹¹ Transfers between parents may be authorised if each parent retains at least one of the four months of leave.

- No discrimination: an employee applying for or taking parental leave must be protected from any less favourable treatment suffered as a consequence.
- Temporary changes to work schedules: employees returning from parental leave will have the right to request changes to their working hours for a limited period. In considering such requests, employers will be obliged to strike a balance which takes account of the employee's needs as well as those of the company.
- Work contracts: the new rights will apply to all workers, regardless of their type of contract (e.g. fixed-term, part-time, agency workers); however, the possibility of a maximum one-year period of qualifying employment is maintained.
- Parents of adopted children and children with a disability or long-term illness: governments and employers/unions will be obliged to assess the specific needs of such parents.

All matters regarding the income of workers during parental leave continue to be left for Member States and/or national social partners to determine.

In 2008, the European Commission put forward a proposal for the revision of the Directive 92/85/EEC on maternity protection:

- to increase the minimum level of maternity leave from 14 to 18 weeks (in line with the ILO recommendation);
- to increase the degree of flexibility for women to decide when to take their maternity leave before or after giving birth;
- to improve employment protection for women on, or returning from, maternity leave.

These measures are expected to make it easier for women to return to the labour market after a longer maternity leave. In addition, the decision to return to work is facilitated if the woman's employment rights are respected. Improving leave arrangements and payment during leave and strengthening employment rights will help reconcile work and family life and improve labour-market participation of women with children¹².

In addition, the European Commission has decided to propose to repeal Directive 86/613/EEC, which established the principle that equal treatment is not limited to employed workers, and to propose a new Directive in order to achieve the goals set by the original Directive more effectively. It is recognised that balancing family life and work is a challenge not only for men and women employed by other people but also for the self-employed and their spouses who help them in their professions or businesses. The main proposals were:

- female self-employed workers and assisting spouses or life partners should be entitled, at their request, to the same maternity leave entitlement as provided for employees under Community law in Directive 92/85/EEC;
- at their request, assisting spouses or life partners when recognised by national law should be able to join the same social security scheme as self-employed workers, under the same conditions applicable to self-employed workers.

As a follow-up, on October 2010, the European Parliament voted in favour of giving all female employees at least 20 weeks maternity leave, without any reduction in pay¹³, but in the subsequent Council meeting (December 2010)¹⁴, EU Employment Ministers largely opposed the amendments to the Pregnant Workers Directive proposed by the European Parliament. Nonetheless, a large majority of delegations announced that they would continue to support the objectives of the

¹² <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2008:0635:FIN:EN:PDF>

¹³ COD/2008/0193: Health and safety at work: workers who are pregnant, have recently given birth or are breastfeeding (amend. Directive 92/85/EEC).

¹⁴ http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lisa/118254.pdf

European Commission in its initial proposal, particularly with regard to protecting the health of women workers¹⁵. For example, most were open to the notion of allowing women to extend their maternity leave by combining it with other kinds of leave, already permitted in many Member States.

Moreover, the year 2010 saw the adoption of the Directive on the application of the principle of equal treatment between men and women engaged in an activity in a self-employed capacity (Directive 2010/41/EU). This is the first provision at EU level for a maternity allowance for self-employed workers and their spouses or life partners.

Finally, there are legislative measures which apply to working time, affecting family life only indirectly. The EU legal framework is backed by two EU Directives: Council Directive [97/81/EC](#)¹⁶ (based on the European Partners Framework Agreement) on part-time work and [Directive 2003/88/EC](#)¹⁷ concerning certain aspects of the organisation of working time. The Directive on part-time working establishes a framework to eliminate discrimination against part-time workers and to promote the quality of part-time work. It also aims to facilitate the development of part-time work on a voluntary basis and to contribute to the flexible organisation of working time in a manner which takes into account the needs of employers and workers. The Directive applies to part-time workers who have an employment contract or employment relationship as defined by the laws, collective agreements or practices in force in each Member State¹⁸. As usual, the EU legislation can only set out general principles and minimum requirements relating to part-time work at a European level. As stated in the review Report by the Commission's services, Member States have correctly transposed the provisions of the Framework Agreement on part-time work¹⁹.

¹⁵ In its original proposal two years ago, the Commission suggested increasing the minimum level of maternity leave in the EU from 14 to 18 weeks, in line with standards developed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO).

¹⁶ Available at:
<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:31997L0081:EN>

¹⁷ Available at:
<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32003L0088:EN>

¹⁸ The definition of a part-time worker refers to an employee whose normal hours of work, calculated on a weekly basis or on average over a period of employment of up to one year, are less than the normal hours of work of a comparable full-time worker. The term 'comparable full-time worker' means a full-time worker in the same establishment having the same type of employment contract or relationship, who is engaged in the same or a similar work/occupation.

¹⁹ Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=4269&langId=en>

In September 2009, the Commission announced a new proposal to amend the Working Time Directive (Directive 2003/88/EC), based on a two-stage consultation with the social partners, in accordance with Article 154 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU), also based on specific analyses and a detailed social and economic impact assessment²⁰. At the end of the first phase of consultation a wide consensus emerged from the replies of the EU-level workers' and employers' representatives. The clear message was that changes to the current working time rules are urgently needed. There is also a high degree of consensus that EU working time rules should allow greater flexibility for workers' and employers' representatives to negotiate on the details of implementation at the appropriate level. During the second stage of the consultation, the social partners have to make their views known to the Commission on different options for amending the Working Time Directive. Based on those replies, the Commission will begin preparing a legislative proposal to amend the Directive, and make a detailed assessment of the impact of the proposed changes. The legislative proposal could be adopted after the impact assessment is completed – this is planned for the third quarter of 2011. The legislative proposal would then need to be considered and agreed by the Council and the Parliament. Moreover, the Commission has made clear its preference for the inclusion of new provisions in any revisions to the Directive encouraging Member States to implement measures to improve the compatibility of work, family and private life. This could be achieved by expanding opportunities for flexibility in working arrangements (e.g. facilitation of part-time work and time credit systems), possibly taking into account all the caveats mentioned in the discussion of measures in support of reconciliation (see discussion in chapter 1.1).

As highlighted by the Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in its *Opinion on flexible and part-time working arrangements and the gender dimension of the labour market*²¹, the quantitative increase of women in the labour market may not have been matched by qualitative development of better jobs. The reason is that flexible working arrangements and lack of high-quality part-time jobs are often important factors in determining gender gaps in the labour market. In fact, flexible and part-time work has been shown to have a number of positive impacts on employment. In general, they can be a support measure to help employers to retain skilled and

²⁰ Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=706&langId=en&intPageId=205>

²¹ <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=6398&langId=en>

qualified staff in the recent economic crisis. Furthermore, when care responsibilities and full-time working hours are not compatible, flexible and part-time work are necessary alternatives for working parents to help them to balance work, private and family life. On the other hand, part-time work can have negative impacts on economic independence, long-term financial security and career prospects. Since working women are more likely to take reduced hours options, as a result of the dual burden they carry, their working patterns are more likely to have longer-term impacts on salaries and careers, given that part-time work is still predominantly clustered in lower-paid sectors and professions. Moreover, some part-time workers experience poorer job content, receive less training and have diminished promotion opportunities. From the gender equality perspective it is essential that the use of flexible work arrangements is supported for both women and men.

To summarise, the reconciliation of work, family and private life is recognised at European level as an important means of achieving major policy objectives of the EU, notably on smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, inclusion of vulnerable groups and equality between women and men. The Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015 points out that economic independence is a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives and identifies reconciliation measures among the key actions for gender equality. The EU has recently made progress in improving the overall European regulatory framework for a better and more gender-equal harmonisation of roles and responsibilities.

The policies that directly support the reconciliation of professional, private and family life have been developed primarily with the aim of facilitating women's employment. The success of the implementation of these policies is confirmed by the main findings of several empirical analyses showing a positive effect deriving from increased availability of part-time work opportunities, affordable childcare, and paid parental leave on women's labour-force participation. Nevertheless, when studying the effectiveness of reconciliation policies on women's participation in the labour market, possible caveats need to be taken into account by policy-makers. The quantitative increase of women in the labour market may not be matched by increases in their economic independence, financial security or better jobs. Lack of flexibility in working arrangements, lack of quality part-time jobs and, more generally, measures to support family carers or to promote family-friendly work practices can reinforce gender gaps in the labour force. An important policy direction is to improve national labour market policies to facilitate the co-responsibility approach to reconciliation of professional, private and family life by different actors and to encourage the equal sharing of family responsibilities by women and men.

2. METHODOLOGY

The present report reviews the developments at the level of the European Union and the Member States in implementing the Beijing Platform for Action, with the focus on area F: Women and the Economy, with particular emphasis on the promotion of reconciliation of work, family and private life²². The literature review entailed examination of existing reports and documents (secondary sources of information, also referred to as “resources”) and, when possible, the use of primary and harmonised data sources. The latest available information and data suitable for each indicator was used. Appendix 4 provides a list of data sources used for the analysis, with a description of each data base.

The reference point of the analysis was the situation presented in two previous reviews of the state of implementation of the BPfA in this area. Specifically, the French Presidency Report from 2008²³ and the Swedish Presidency Report from 2009, *Beijing 15+: The Platform for Action and the European Union*²⁴, which presented a review of developments at the level of the EU in relation to all 12 critical areas of concern of the BPfA.

The current report focuses on the indicators in this area accepted by the EPSCO Council (2008). The Swedish Presidency Report (2009) reviewed nine indicators related to reconciliation of work, family and private life in the area F: Women and the Economy (see Box 2.1).

²² The concept of ‘reconciliation of work, private and family life’ is very often used interchangeably with the concept of ‘work-life balance’. According to MacInnes (2006), the concept of work-life balance is not so obvious. While it suggests that ‘life’ is no longer dominated by ‘work’ in the way it may once have been, it says little about work’s continued importance for most people’s income (either immediately or in the form of future pension or benefit rights) and verges on the vacuous. It downplays objective constraints on working arrangements and foregrounds ‘choices’.

Moreover, one of the objectives of the BPfA's area F on Women and the Economy is to promote the harmonisation of work and family responsibilities for women and men. There is a growing body of policy and research literature that refers to much broader aspects of interrelations between work and individual life (education, training, leisure time) than merely family life. Following the above arguments and EU policy terminology, the concept of reconciliation of work, family and private life will be used in this study.

²³ Council conclusions "Women and the Economy: Reconciliation of Work and Family Life" and the Report (16595/08 ADD 1 + COR 1)

²⁴ *Beijing+15: The Platform for Action and the European Union*. Report from the Swedish Presidency (15487/09 ADD 1)

**Box 2.1 – The indicators for the area F: Women and the Economy of
the Beijing Platform for Action**

- Indicator 1. Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) within the meaning of Directive 96/34/EC on the framework agreement between the social partners on parental leave, as a proportion of all employed parents.
- Indicator 2. Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave.
- Indicator 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 non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours); in compulsory primary education (outside school hours).
- Indicator 4. Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life for both men and women (including for example, a description of available childcare facilities, parental leave, flexible working arrangements or services offered by companies for their employees, and flexible opening hours of public services such as local authority offices, post offices, crèches and shops).
- Indicator 5. Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75: living in specialised institutions; who have help (other than the family) at home; looked after by the family as a proportion of men and women over 75.
- Indicator 6. Total “tied” time per day for each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependant: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults).
- Indicator 7. Total “tied” time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults).
- Indicator 8. Employment rates (women and men)
- Indicator 9. Unemployment rates (women and men).

This report focuses on the review of all indicators mentioned in Box 2.1. The analysis of the allocation and take-up of parental leave covers indicator 1 and indicator 2, taking into account the new legal provisions on parental leave in Council Directive 2010/18/EU. Indicator 8 and indicator 9 are presented in Chapter 3 as background information for the review of the situation regarding reconciliation of work, private and family life in the EU.

The review of indicators faced challenges in terms of data availability, harmonisation and coverage. On the one hand, an effective monitoring exercise requires adequate and extensive data, relevant to and specifically addressed to the monitoring needs. In the case of the BPfA indicators, there are no data collected specifically to address the issues to be monitored. As a consequence, for the most part, the current analysis is based on data collected for purposes not connected with the monitoring process and, therefore, not necessarily adequate or as specific as might have been desired. For some of the indicators proxy data were used. At the same time, the availability of information was not uniform. Indeed, in some areas there are a large number of reports and studies available. In other areas, the information is more limited or, if available, does not specifically address the issues covered by the present monitoring. One example is the situation of the data, studies, and analysis available on parental leave. Several studies have been done on this topic, looking both at EU level and within a Member State or several Member States. However, very little information is available on parental take-up rate.

Finally, the indicators cover a wide range of topics, with different characteristics in terms of the kind of data and expertise necessary for a detailed analysis. In order to facilitate an efficient and effective monitoring process, a wide-ranging study would be necessary. The reviewing process also requires ensuring the continuity of collection of comparable data, harmonisation and segregation by gender at EU level.

Still, compared with the previous review of the area (French Presidency Report 2008), the present review had data collected and available for all nine indicators. The process of monitoring will be improved and a clear image of progress done will emerge when data newly collected by Eurostat (ad-hoc module on work-life balance and time-use survey) and Eurofound (European Working Conditions Survey) are made available. These data sources represent valuable resources for the process of monitoring the BPfA within the EU.

3. GENDER GAPS IN THE LABOUR MARKET IN THE EU MEMBER STATES

This section briefly examines the situation in the EU labour market, focusing on employment, unemployment, inactivity and part-time trends among women and men and taking into account the rapid deterioration in labour market conditions during the latest economic downturn²⁵. Gender gaps in employment due to care responsibilities are also examined, together with a brief review of gender gaps for vulnerable groups.

3.1 *Employment rates*

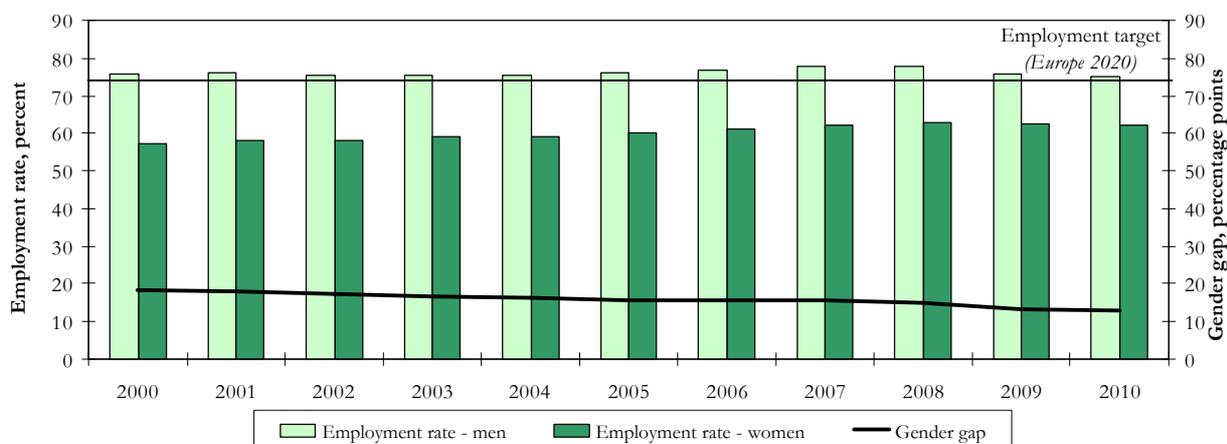
As several reports have emphasised (EC 2010c; 2011), despite remarkable advances towards equality between women and men across European labour markets in the last 10 years, significant gender gaps persist throughout the EU, which risk jeopardising both its fundamental growth and employment and social cohesion goals.

The EU employment rates indicate an important and encouraging increase in women's employment. As Figure 3.1.1 shows, the percentage of women aged 20 to 64 in employment rose from 57.3 % in 2000 to 62.1 % in 2010. Men's employment rate suffered a slight decrease during the same period (from 75.8 to 75.1 % between 2000 and 2010). Notwithstanding the difference between these trends, the gender gap in the employment rate for this age group still persists, stabilising at 13 percentage points in 2010. In this respect, the European Commission Europe 2020 strategy's newly set target of 75 % for the employment rate of both women and men aged between 20 and 64 raises a big challenge for the Member States in the field of employment and social inclusion²⁶.

²⁵ Data have been updated as of May 2011.

²⁶ The age group (20-64) covered by the Europe 2020 strategy employment rate target of 75 % differs from the Lisbon target (60 %) which covered the 15-64 age group. On the basis of the Lisbon target, women's employment rate increased from 53.6 % to 58.2 % between 2000 and 2010.

Figure 3.1.1 Employment rate by sex and gender gap in the EU27 (age group 20-64), 2000-2010



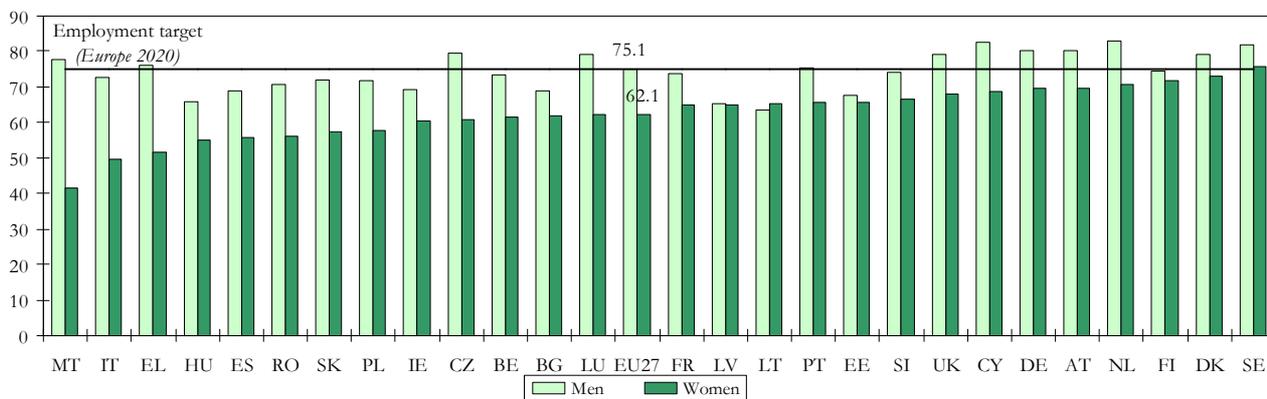
Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between men’s and women’s employment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

If the employment rate by sex is broken down across the individual EU27 Member States, the EU Labour Force Survey highlights the different experiences of women in the various European labour markets (Figure 3.1.2). The employment rates of women in 2010 vary from 75.7 % in Sweden to over 70 % in the Netherlands, Finland, and Denmark to 49.5 % in Italy and 41.4 % in Malta. The figures show that if one takes the new EU 2020 target employment rate of 75 % for women and men of the 20 to 64 age group, only one country, Sweden, achieves this²⁷.

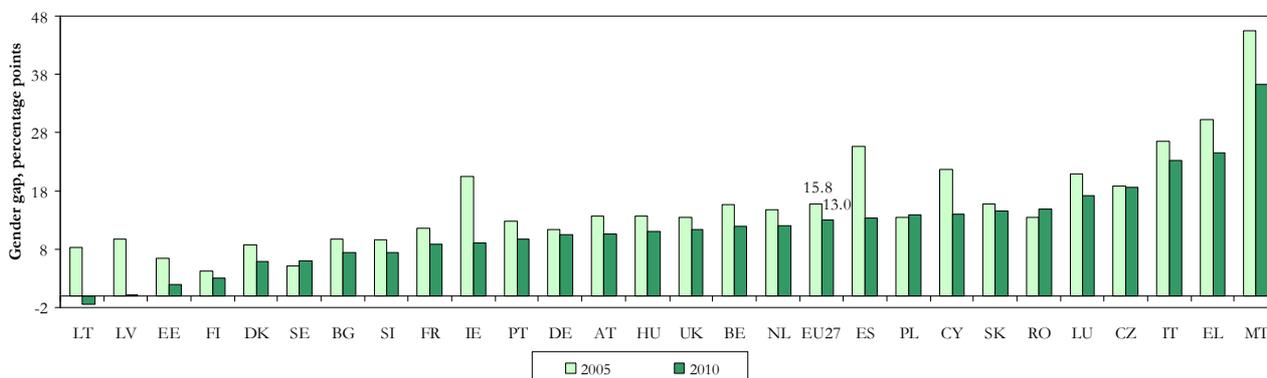
²⁷ The age group (20-64) covered by the Europe 2020 strategy employment rate target of 75 % differs from the Lisbon target (60 %) which covered the 15-64 age group. On the basis of the Lisbon target, only 11 countries (Estonia, Portugal, Slovenia, Cyprus, the United Kingdom, Germany, Austria, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden and Denmark) achieved the Lisbon target for women’s employment rate in 2010.

Figure 3.1.2 Employment rate by sex in EU Member States (age group 20-64), 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS.

Figure 3.1.3 Gender gap in employment rates in EU Member States (age group 20-64), 2005 and 2010



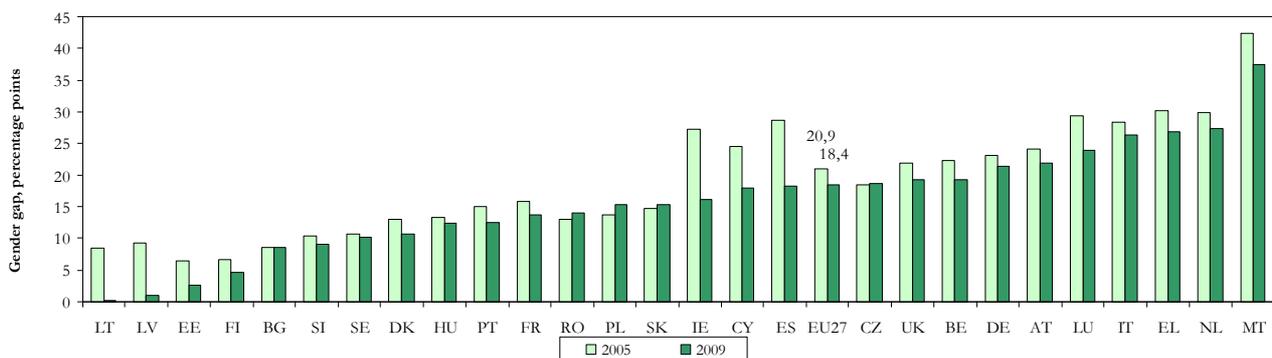
Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between men's and women's employment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

There is also a remarkable variation in the gender gap in employment rates between individual EU Member States (Figure 3.1.3), varying from -1.5 percentage points in Lithuania to 36.3 percentage points in Malta. Ten EU Member States currently have an employment rate gender gap above the EU27 average of 13 percentage points (Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Spain, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Romania and Slovakia). Over the period from 2005 to 2010 this gap decreased everywhere except in Sweden, Poland, and Romania. In addition, the decrease was greater in countries where the employment gender gap was higher (Malta, Greece, Cyprus, Spain) and where the labour market was worst hit by the last recession (Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Ireland).

In Figure 3.1.4 gender gaps in employment rates are also presented as differences in the full-time equivalent (FTE) rates²⁸. This measure is extremely useful, as it provides a better insight into the differences between men and women in terms of hours worked, converting as it does the number of employed people into the number of full-time equivalents (indeed, according to the ILO standard, work of just one hour during the reference week is enough to be considered as being in employment).

Figure 3.1.4 Gender gap in FTE employment rates in EU Member States (age group 15-64), 2005 and 2009



Source: European Commission, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Employment in Europe 2010

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between men's and women's FTE employment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher FTE employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

If full-time equivalent employment rates are considered, the gender gap in employment is wider (18.4 percentage points over the EU as a whole). This difference is found in all 27 EU Member States. The 2009 gender gap in the FTE employment rate is lower by 2.5 percentage points than the 2005 figure, which was 20.9 percentage points. This decrease in gender gap was essentially uniform across the EU Member States, except in countries which suffered greater contraction of their employment markets because of the economic crisis (Lithuania, Latvia, Ireland, and Spain). Due to a lack of available data

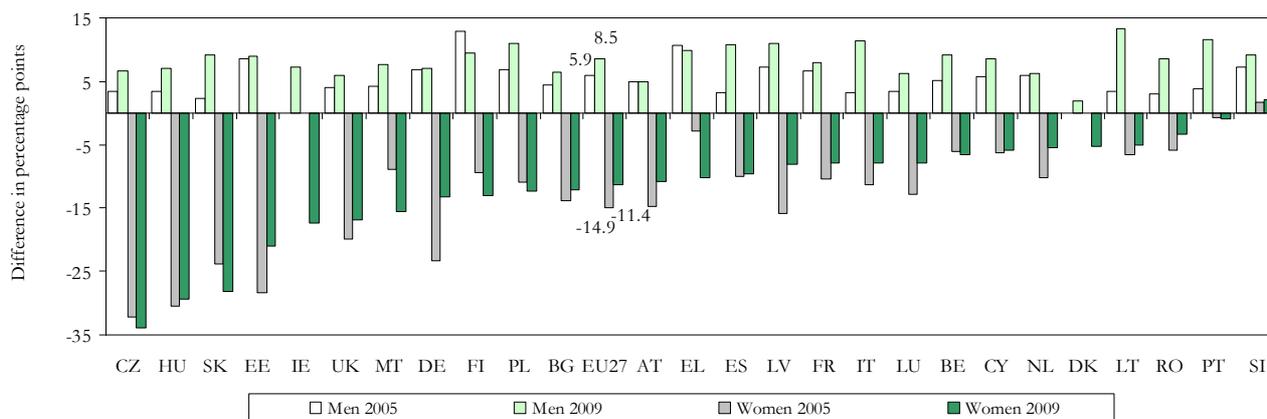
²⁸ Employment can be measured in terms of the number of persons or jobs, in full-time equivalents or in hours worked. Full-time equivalent employment is defined as total hours worked on both main and second job divided by the average annual number of hours worked in full-time jobs. The full-time equivalent employment rate is calculated by dividing the full-time equivalent employment by the total population in the 15–64 age group. (source: http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/eie/statistical_annex_02_en.html)

and in-depth impact assessment analysis on national level, it is difficult to identify the extent to which the change in the employment gender gap between 2005 and 2009 can be attributed to the worse economic conditions generally and the extent to which it is due to a variety of measures stimulating women's employment (such as better childcare facilities, parental leave schemes and more possibilities for flexible working time arrangements) implemented by the EU Member States.

Impact of parenthood on employment

Figure 3.1.5 shows a clear link between the presence of children and women's opportunities to participate in the labour market. The employment situation of women and men is affected in different ways when they have children. On average, in 2009 the employment rate of women with children under 12 years of age is 11.4 percentage points lower than for women without children. For men, the opposite is true: there is a higher probability that men with children under 12 years of age will be in employment. Remarkably, the impact of parenthood on women and men is similar across the EU Member States. Looking at changes over time, between 2005 and 2009 there was a slight reduction of the negative employment gap among women (3.5 percentage points) in the EU average, with a particularly noticeable drop in Germany (10 percentage points).

Figure 3.1.5 Employment impact of parenthood by sex (age group 25-49), 2005 and 2009



Source: European Commission 2007, Report on equality between women and men – 2007; European Commission 2011, DG Justice, Fundamental Rights and Citizenship, Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2010: The gender balance in business leadership.

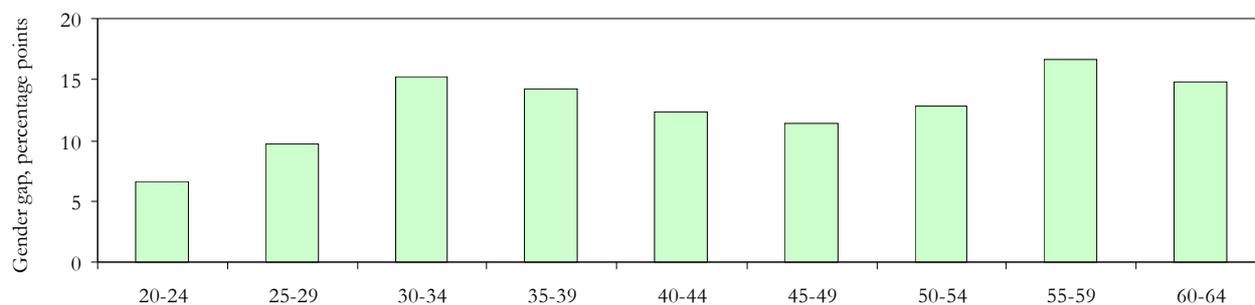
Note: Difference in percentage points in employment rates with presence of a child under 12 and without the presence of any children. A positive difference indicates higher employment rates with a child present, while the opposite is true for a negative difference. No data available for Denmark, Ireland and Sweden, in 2005, no data available for Sweden in 2009.

Comparing employment rates by sex and number of children, the pattern observed across the EU is that the employment rate for women decreases as the number of children increases in a majority of Member States (see Table A1.1 in Appendix 1). However, the pattern is slightly different in Cyprus, Belgium, Czech Republic, Hungary, Netherlands, and Finland, where the employment rate for women decreases for the first child, but then increases for the second. In Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, women with one child are more often in employment, and the employment rate only starts to drop for women with a second child. In Slovenia, the employment rate starts to drop with the third child. For men, the pattern over the EU as a whole (increasing until the third child) is confirmed in nearly all Member States. Employment rates for women, both with and without children, are lower than for men in all Member States, except for women without children in Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Finland, Germany, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Spain and the United Kingdom, where their employment rates are higher than those of men without children.

Employment rates by age

While looking at the gender gap in employment rates across different age groups, 2010 EU27 average figures display a “hump and bump” shape (Figure 3.1.6). The first hump indicates the period during the central years of fertility (between 24 and 35 years of age) when the gender gap rises dramatically. The rate slightly decreases from age 35 onwards. In other words, women are more likely than men to leave the labour market during child rearing and then return when their children have started their education. The second hump applies to older workers (between 55 and 64) when the gender gap reaches its highest level of about 17 percentage points due in part to lower levels of female participation in general, lower skill levels of older women and, in many Member States, lower statutory retirement ages for women. These tendencies raise challenges for policies that aim to balance work and life responsibilities.

Figure 3.1.6 Gender gap in employment rates by age groups in the EU27, 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between men's and women's employment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

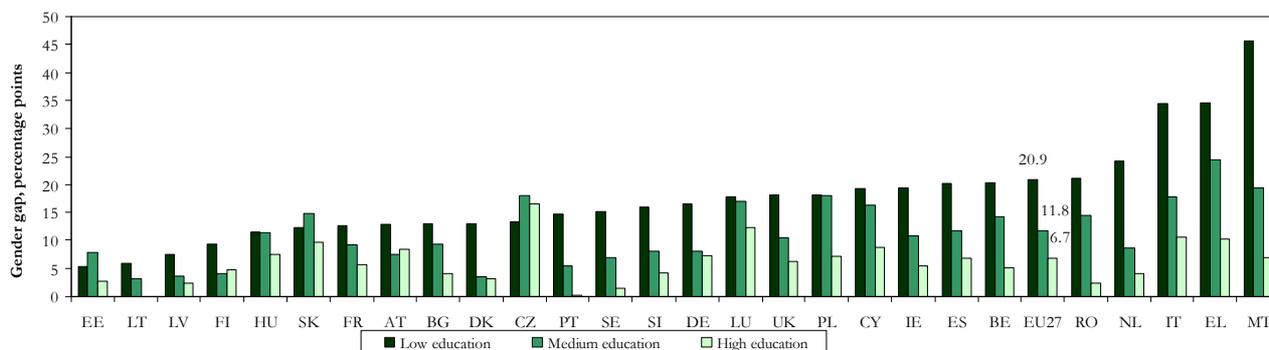
Employment rates of vulnerable groups

Stronger negative consequences in terms of labour market outcomes can be expected for the most vulnerable groups of women. This holds true especially for women with a lower level of education and/or non-nationals²⁹.

So far as educational level is concerned, in 2010, based on the EU27 average figures, the likelihood of being employed, for a man in the 20 to 64 age group with tertiary educational level attainment, is more than 25 percentage points greater than for less educated men, while among women the educational gain is much wider - over 40 percentage points. Within each educational level, the gender gap in employment rate is at its highest for lower levels of education, more than 20 percentage points on average, decreasing as the level of education rises. This relationship between education and employment applies regardless of country - the only exception being the Czech Republic, where the gender gap is greater among the more highly educated (Figure 3.1.7).

²⁹ "Non-nationals" include: citizens of countries outside EU27 and citizens of any of the EU27 who are not nationals of the state where they live in.

Figure 3.1.7 Gender gap in employment rates by education in EU Member States (age group 20-64), 2010

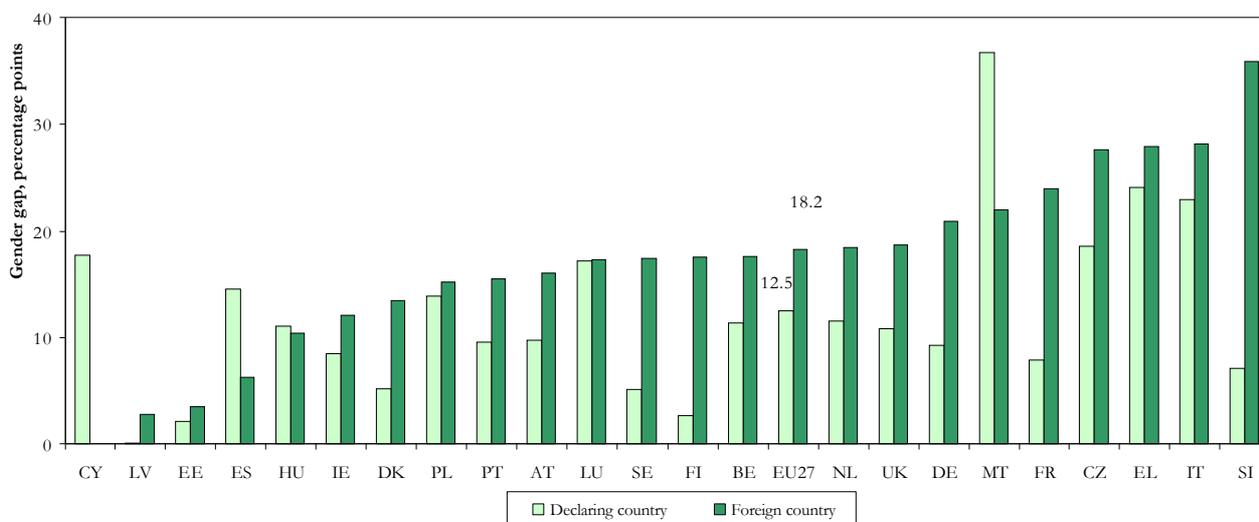


Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between men's and women's employment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap. Educational levels are grouped, according to ISCED 1997 categories, into: Low education=Pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education - levels 0-2; Medium education=Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education - levels 3-4; High education=Tertiary education - levels 5-6. In Portugal and Lithuania the gender gap among the most highly educated is close to zero.

The EU27 is an immigration area, and there is a consensus among experts that migration is one of the main factors that might help EU Member States to cope with the negative labour-market effects stemming from demographic change (EC, 2009a). In 2010 EU27 average figures, total male non-nationals had slightly lower employment rates (72.1 %) than national workers (75.3 %), but the difference for women was much higher (63 % for nationals compared to 54 % for non-nationals). Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Spain, Greece, and the Czech Republic were notable exceptions to this, where employment rates for women foreign workers were higher than those of women national workers (see Table A1.2 in Appendix 1). The worst employment rates in 2010 were those for women aged between 20 and 64 from non-EU countries, the EU average being about 53.9 %, around 10 percentage points less than the employment rate of 62.8 % for female nationals %.

Figure 3.1.8 Gender gap in employment rates in the EU MS by nationality (age group 20-64), 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS

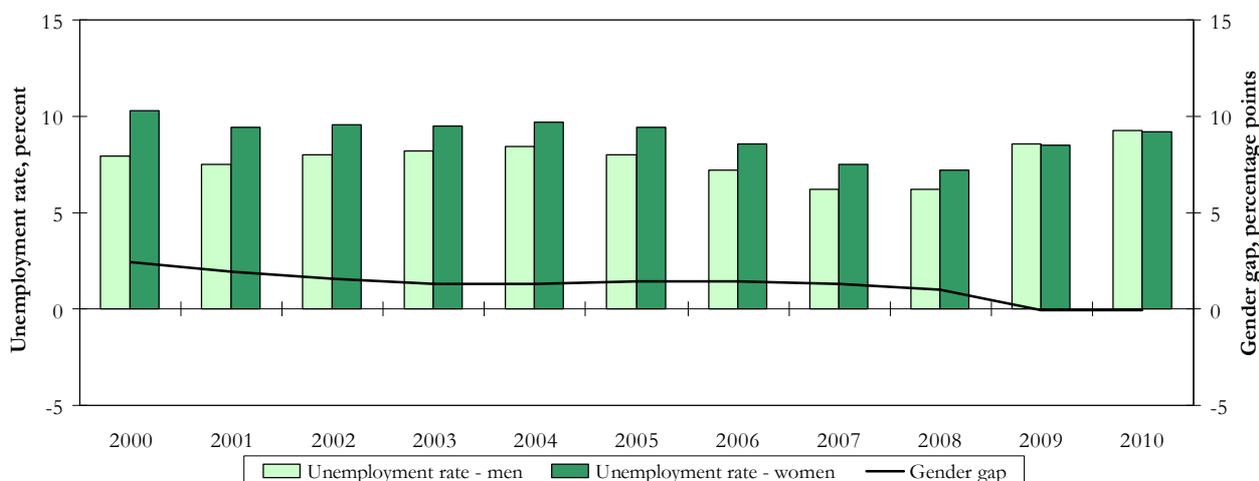
Note: Among people of the same nationality, a positive gap indicates higher employment rates for men in comparison with women, while the opposite is true for a negative gap. For Lithuania, Bulgaria and Romania data for people from foreign countries are not available; for Slovakia data for women from foreign countries are not available. In Cyprus the gender gap among the people from foreign countries is close to zero; in Latvia the gender gap among people from the declaring country is close to zero.

The gender gap appeared greater for non-nationals almost everywhere except Cyprus, Hungary, Malta and Spain (Figure 3.1.8). Four countries had a gender gap for non-nationals more than 10 % higher than the EU average (the Czech Republic, Greece, Italy and Slovenia).

3.2 Unemployment rates

After four years of steady decline, the EU27 average unemployment rate for workers between 20 and 64 rose to 8.6 % in 2009 (from 6.7 % in 2008), reaching 9.3 % in 2010. The modest overall increase observed in 2009, despite the serious economic crisis, resulted from a smaller increase in women's unemployment rate between 2008 and 2009 (1.3 percentage points compared to 2.4 percentage points for men), while in 2010 the increase in unemployment rates was the same for both men and women. As a consequence of these different dynamics, a remarkable reduction in the unemployment gender gap can be observed over the last decade (Figure 3.2.1). Indeed, the unemployment rate of women decreased from 10.3 % in 2000 to 9.2 % in 2010, whereas men's unemployment rate increased from 7.9 to 9.3 % during the same period.

Figure 3.2.1 Unemployment rate by sex and gender gap in the EU27 (age group 20-64),2000-2010



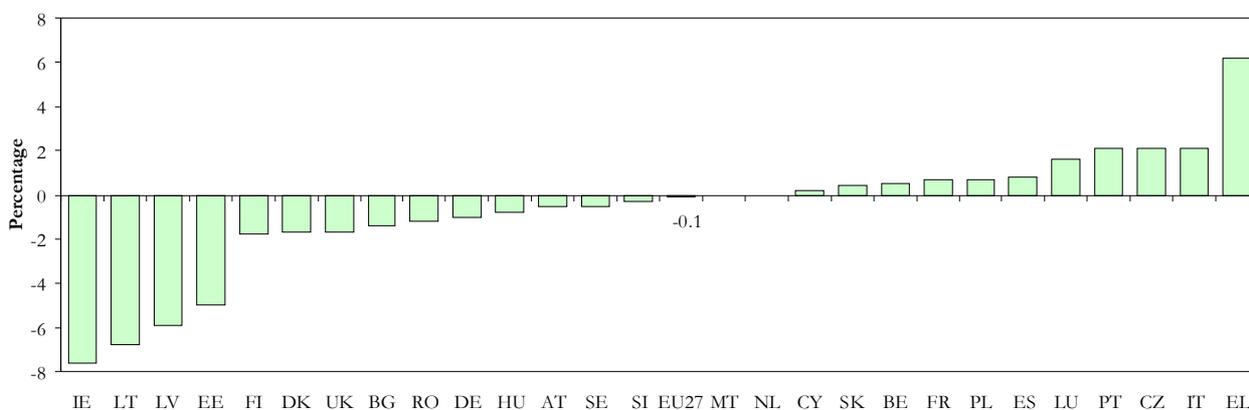
Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between women's and men's unemployment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher unemployment rates for women in comparison with men, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

The levelling out of unemployment rates of women and men can be explained for the most part by the worsening of men's position during the recent slowdown, since the male-dominated areas of employment, such as automotive and construction industries, have felt the impact of the crisis more deeply so far. Thus, the gender-specific characteristics of the labour market largely explain the nature and timing of the different trends in sex-based unemployment rates at the EU27 level³⁰. Even so, the female unemployment rate still exceeds male rates in 11 EU Member States. This is most noticeable in Greece, Italy, the Czech Republic, Portugal and Luxembourg (Figure 3.2.2). In contrast, in Latvia, Ireland, Lithuania and Estonia, where in 2010 the unemployment rate was quite high in absolute terms for both men and women, the male unemployment rate exceeds the female rate by more than 5 percentage points.

³⁰ Recent snapshot of gender segregation in occupations and sectors across EU27 can be found in EC (2011a).

Figure 3.2.2 Gender gap in unemployment rates in EU Member States (age group 20-64), 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between women's and men's unemployment rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher unemployment rates for women in comparison with men, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

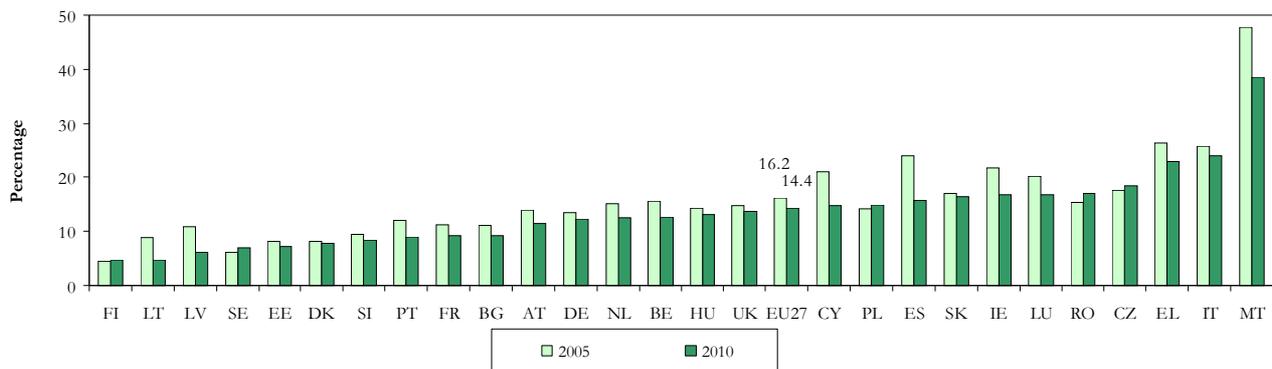
3.3 Inactivity rates

The percentage of inactive people³¹ of between 20 and 64 out of the whole working age population (the so called inactivity rate) reached a low of 24.4 % in 2010 based on EU27 average figures, continuing the downward trend of the previous years (in 2000 the EU27 inactivity rate was about 27 %), in spite of the economic crisis. The overall positive trends during this period are largely due to the increased participation of women in the labour market, as registered in the fall in the percentage of women outside the labour market from 36.1 % in 2000 to 31.6 % in 2010. In contrast, the percentage of men outside the labour force remained almost stable, falling slightly from 17.6 % to 17.2 %. The fact remains, however, that women are more likely than men to be outside the labour force in all Member States (Figure 3.3.1). In Finland, Lithuania, Sweden and Latvia the gender differences in inactivity rates are less than half the EU27 average of 14.4 percentage points, while in

³¹ Inactivity has been defined as the percentage of persons, who are classified neither as employed nor as unemployed in the labour market. Employed persons are all persons who worked at least one hour for pay or profit during the reference week or were temporary absent from such work. Unemployed persons are all persons who were not employed during the reference week, had actively sought work during the past four weeks and were ready to begin working immediately or within two weeks.

Malta, Italy and Greece the difference is more than 20 percentage points. At one extreme, Finland has an absolute gender difference of only 4.8 percentage points, while at the other, the corresponding figure in Malta is 33.6 percentage points. Compared with 2005, the EU average for the absolute gender gap decreased to 14.4 percentage points, with a particularly significant fall in Malta, Spain and Cyprus.

Figure 3.3.1 Gender gap in inactivity rates in the EU Member States (age group 20-64), 2010



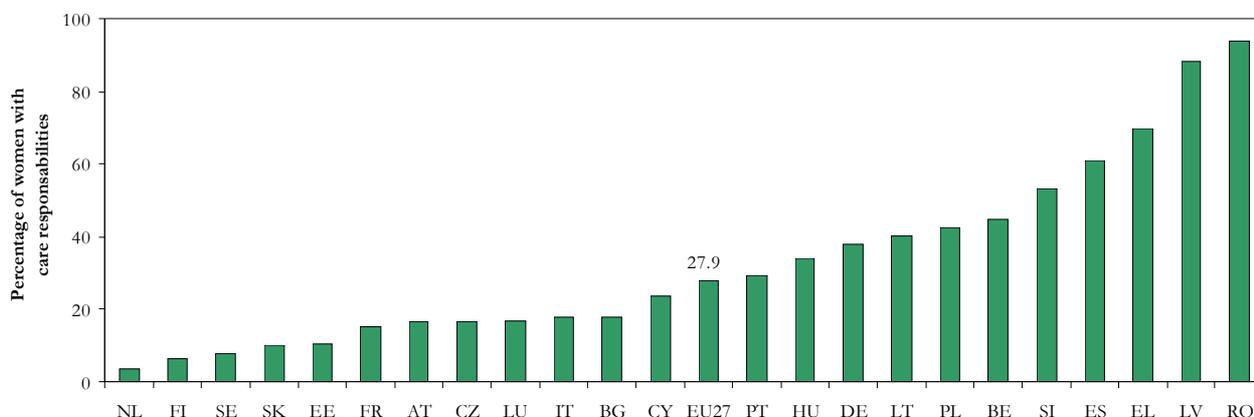
Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: The gender gap is calculated as the difference between women's and men's inactivity rates. As such, a positive gap indicates higher inactivity rates for women in comparison with men, while the opposite is true for a negative gap.

On average, in the EU27 almost one third of women with care responsibilities declare themselves to be either inactive or employed in part-time jobs due to the lack of care services for children and other dependants, as shown by the latest *Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men*³². Figure 3.3.2 reveals that in 2009 the remaining gender differences in extensive margins (participation) and intensive margins (hours worked) can mainly be explained by the challenges involved in reconciling work, family and private life.

³² European Commission (2011): *Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2010: The gender balance in business leadership*, EC, DG Justice, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Figure 3.3.2 Inactivity or part-time work among women with care responsibilities due to the lack of care services for children and other dependent persons, 2009

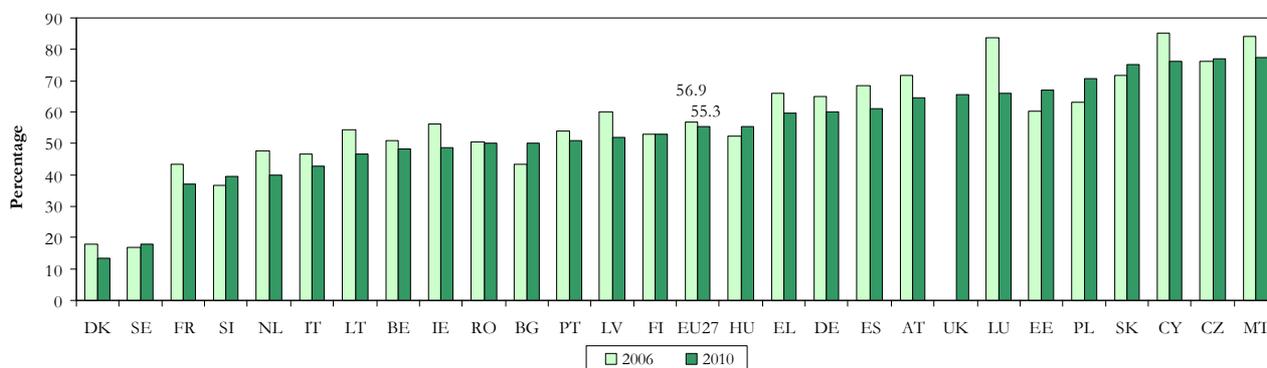


Source: European Commission 2011, DG Justice, Fundamental Rights and Citizenship, Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2010: The gender balance in business leadership. (EC (2011a))

Note: Ireland, Malta, and UK: data not available, Denmark: no reliable data

Based on EU27 average figures for 2010, more than half (55.3 %) of the inactive women of child-bearing age (between 25 and 49) are out of the labour force because of care responsibilities, a slight reduction compared to 57.0 % in 2006 (Figure 3.3.3). The percentage of inactive women out of the labour force for family reasons has decreased in most of the EU Member States over the period from 2006 to 2010, except in Sweden, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Estonia, Slovakia, Poland and the Czech Republic. Of those countries where there was a decrease, it varied from a maximum of more than 7 percentage points in the Netherlands, Ireland, Latvia, Spain, Austria, Luxembourg and Cyprus to less than one percentage point in Romania and Finland.

Figure 3.3.3 Women inactive due to care responsibilities in the EU Member States, 2006 and 2010



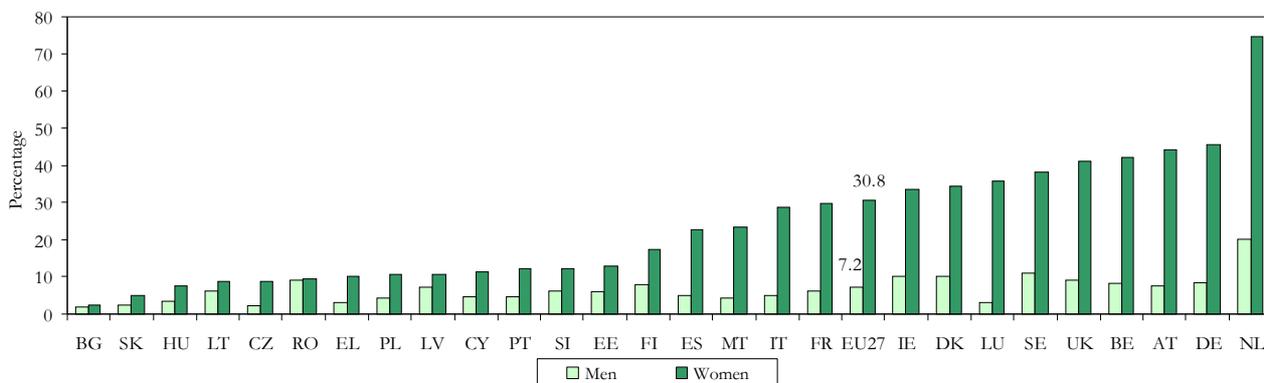
Source: Eurostat, LFS

Note: Percentage of women 25 to 49 years old declaring that they were not seeking employment due to care responsibilities. Note: The 'care responsibilities' category aggregates the following items: 'other family or personal responsibilities' and 'looking after children or incapacitated'. For Estonia and Sweden the aggregate only includes 'looking after children or incapacitated adults'. Data for 2006 are not available for the United Kingdom. Data for 2006 for Finland only include 'other family or personal responsibilities'.

3.4 Part-time work

Focusing on part time employment, Figure 3.4.1 shows a higher incidence of part-time employment (PTE) among women than among men in all the EU27 Member States. In particular, part-time employment is more common among employed women in the Netherlands (almost 75 % of employed women), but this is also true in Austria, Belgium, Germany, and the United Kingdom (over 40 %). By contrast, part-time employment is quite unusual in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania, Romania, and Slovakia, where the incidence of part-time employment for employed women is less than 10 %.

Figure 3.4.1 Share of part-time workers in total employment in EU Member States (age group 20-64), 2010



Source: Eurostat, LFS

From the analysis of employment rates in chapter 3.1, it is clear that if the employment gap is defined only in terms of a per capita measurement, an important dimension of gender equality would be missed. Due to the fact that there are more women than men working on a part-time basis, this measure results in an underestimation of the employment gap³³. For example, referring to 2009 figures, in the Netherlands, where part-time work is widespread, the full-time equivalent employment gap is considerable (27.3 percentage points) compared to the per capita figure (10.9 percentage points), as women tend to work more part-time (75.7 % of total employed) than men (23.6 % of total employed). The same situation can be seen in Germany and Luxembourg. On the other hand, in countries like Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, and Finland the gender gaps are the lowest whether measured per capita or by reference to full-time equivalent.

³³ According to Eurostat definitions used for EU LFS, the distinction between full-time and part-time work is based on a spontaneous response by the respondent. In the Netherlands, Iceland and Norway part-time is determined if the usual hours are fewer than 35 hours and full-time if the usual hours are 35 hours or more. In Sweden, this criterion is applied to the self-employed). See: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_lfs/methodology/definitions.

To summarise, despite an encouraging trend towards gender equality in employment at EU level, the gender gap in employment rates still persists: the difference between employment rates for women and men of 20-64 years old was 13 percentage points in 2010. A remarkable variation in employment rates can be seen across the EU27 Member States. Women's employment rates in 2010 varied from a maximum of 75.7 % in Sweden and over 70 % in the Netherlands, Finland, and Denmark to 49.5 % in Italy and 41.4 % in Malta.

There is a clear link between the presence of children and women's participation in the labour market. On the EU27 average, primarily women in the working age (25-49) with children are 7.0 percentage points less likely to be employed than women without children, while the opposite is true for men. According to the latest European Commission Report on Progress on Gender Equality (2011a), on average at the EU27 level, almost one third of women with care responsibilities declare themselves either employed in part-time jobs or inactive due to the lack of care services for children and other dependent persons. Stronger negative consequences in terms of labour market outcomes characterise the most vulnerable groups of women, especially women with lower levels of education and foreigners.

In recent years, different trends in unemployment analysed by sex were observed at the EU27 level. Most markedly, from the first quarter of 2008, male and female unemployment rates converged; by the second quarter of 2009 the male unemployment rate was higher. The early impact of the economic crisis on male-dominated sectors has brought about a remarkable reduction in the unemployment gender gap over the last decade. Yet in 11 EU27 Member States women's unemployment rates still exceed men's. The later impact of the economic crisis may have consequences for female-dominated sectors (notably public employment) and lead to increases in women's unemployment rates.

4. REVIEW OF THE INDICATORS OF THE BEIJING PLATFORM FOR ACTION IN AREA F: WOMEN AND THE ECONOMY IN RELATION TO RECONCILIATION OF WORK, FAMILY AND PRIVATE LIFE

This chapter presents the results of the literature review on the Beijing indicators in area F: Women and the Economy, on the topic of reconciliation of work, family and private life³⁴. The chapter is divided into sections on each indicator, presenting the main findings of the review and the relevant available data³⁵.

4.1. INDICATOR 2 – Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave

Following the 1996 EU Parental Directive, the right to parental leave (not to be confused with maternity leave for mothers and paternity leave for fathers where it exists³⁶) has been established in all EU Member States³⁷. However, large differences continue to exist between countries in terms of the legal framework with respect to duration, payment, proportion of leave that can be transferred between parents, and a part being reserved for fathers only³⁸. In the context of indicator 2, the focus is on parents' take-up rate and in particular on the allocation of parental leave between employed women and men.

³⁴ The primary and secondary sources used are the latest available at May 2011.

³⁵ The list of Beijing indicators on the topic of reconciliation is presented in Box 2.1, the chapter on methodology in the current report.

³⁶ 'Men and Women workers are entitled to an individual right to parental leave on the grounds of the birth or adoption of a child to take care of that child until a given age up to eight years to be defined by Member States and/or social partners. The leave shall be granted at least for a period of four months and, to promote equal opportunities and equal treatment between men and women, should, in principle, be provided on a non-transferable basis.' in Council Directive 2010/18/EU of 8 March 2010, Clause 2, No. 1 and 2.

³⁷ As discussed in Chapter 1, the right to parental leave was revised by the Council Directive 2010/18/EU. Member States have two years to transpose the new Directive into national legislation. Due to the time of production of this report – one year after the adoption of the Parental Directive 2010/18/EU – the following analysis will refer to the situation as regulated by the Parental Directive 96/34/EC.

³⁸ Among the reports that present and discuss several aspects of parental leave, the following are relevant for the EU context: the Eurostat publication *Reconciliation between work, private and family life in the European Union* (2009) extensively discusses length and benefits, timing and fractionability, employment protection and safeguard of pension rights; Sheila B. Kamerman and Peter Moss (editors), in *The politics of parental leave policies. Children, parenting, gender and the labour market* (2009) look at parental leave policy within a wider work/family context, addressing how, why, and by whom particular policies are created and subsequently developed.

Data availability

A huge effort has been made in collecting and disseminating information on parental leave. The French Presidency Report (2008) based its discussion of parental leave on the data collected through the European Survey on Working Time (ESWT) carried out at the company level in 2003 – 2004 and on the data collected through the ad-hoc module on reconciliation of the EU LFS carried out in 2005. Several other reports published after 2008 used the same data sources to present and analyse the situation at EU level³⁹.

The 2010 round of the EU LFS included the ad-hoc module on reconciliation. When the present report was being prepared, in spring 2011, Eurostat had not yet published the data or any other reports or analyses based on the collected data. The EU LFS ad-hoc module on reconciliation collected information on parental leave which will be extremely helpful for the monitoring of the situation covered by indicator 2.

These reports and studies are the source of information for the exercise monitoring indicator 2 presented in the current report. The following analysis, based on the most up-to-date data available that apply to the indicator, refers to: (1) the ratio of fathers using the entitlement to parental and paternity leave as against mothers⁴⁰; (2) the proportionate allocation of parental leave between mothers and fathers and (3) the percentage of total maternity, paternity and parental leave taken up by fathers⁴¹.

³⁹ Eurofound (2007): *Parental Leave in European Companies*; Eurostat (2009): *Reconciliation between work, private and family life in the European Union*; the Swedish Presidency Report (2009).

⁴⁰ OECD Database in 2007 contained information about only 14 countries, EU Member States.

⁴¹ The study by Haataja (2009) refers to 3 of the 27 EU Member States: Finland, Denmark and Sweden.

At the time of completion of the present report the existing data were either not harmonised/uniformed or not yet available for analysis⁴². Different data sources were explored and the provided information was put together in order to offer a full picture of the current situation on parental leave. Increasing efforts in the collection of evidence on this topic have been made at national level, with some EU Member States producing and disseminating country-specific studies, like, for example, *Fathers' use of paternity and parental leave in Nordic countries (2009)* and *Primo rapporto sulla coesione sociale (2010)* in Italy⁴³. The data collected by the OECD in this area do not cover all the 27 EU Member States⁴⁴. The data collected and available for several EU Member States are not harmonised.

The data available from the OECD on several EU Member States showed the existence of remarkable gender differences in the rates of parental leave entitlement take-up (Figure 4.1.1). There was a notable variation among countries when it came to fathers' participation in parental leave. For example, in 2007, in Sweden there were 70 fathers to every 100 mothers taking parental leave, while in Cyprus, Estonia⁴⁵, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary and Slovakia in there were less than 10 fathers to every 100 mothers being in parental leave. When data were available for both the use of paternity and parental leave, a higher proportion of fathers taking paternity leave compared to the proportion on parental leave, was observed. Due to different legislative frameworks of the Member States the available and presented data is subject to methodological limitations.

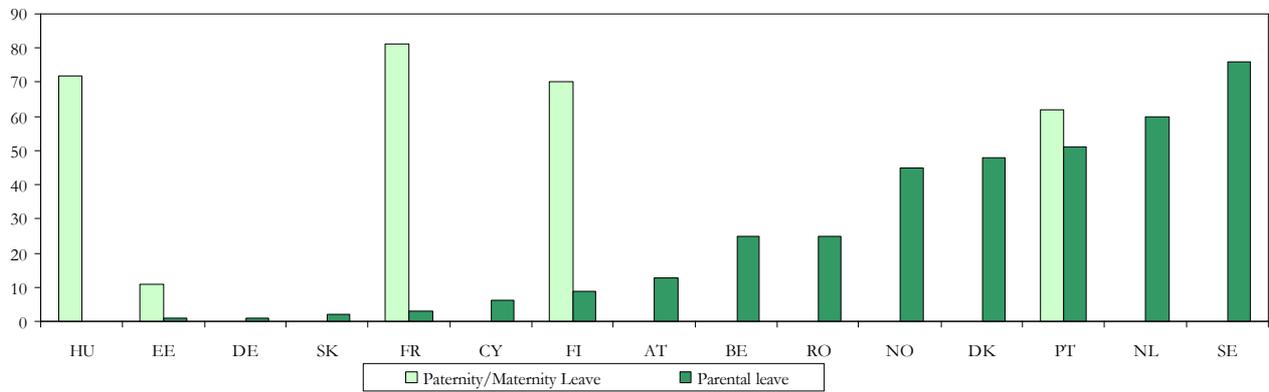
⁴² The data collected through the European Company Survey by Eurofound in 2009 has information on parental leave at the level of individual businesses. Data were not yet available by spring 2011. The data collected in 2010 through the ad-hoc module on work-life balance of the EU-LFS was not available.
http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_lfs/methodology/ad-hoc_modules

⁴³ Haataja A. (2009), *Fathers' use of paternity and parental leave in Nordic countries* is based on data collected in 2007. ISTAT (2010), *Primo rapporto sulla coesione sociale* is based on data collected through 2007 – 2009.

⁴⁴ OECD Family database, www.oecd.org/els/social/family/database

⁴⁵ According to the information provided by the Estonian Expert, the data for Estonia show the persons receiving parental benefits and not the persons on parental leave. Parental benefits can be received also by parents that work, the benefit is paid to one parent at a time.
See www.ensib.ee/parental-benefit/

Figure 4.1.1 Ratio of fathers to mothers using their entitlement to leave, 2007



Source: OECD, Social Policy Division, Directorate of Employment, Labour and Social Affairs, Family Database, Chart PF2.2.C

Note: The ratio is the relationship between the numbers of fathers taking parental leave in each country for 100 women.
Data from Family Database questionnaire sent to countries on parental leave.

The situation of mothers taking up almost the total parental leave available is confirmed by the data collected through other sources. As table 4.1.1 shows, in the eleven EU Member States where data were collected, the allocation of parental leave between men and women is characterised by a clear gender imbalance, with women accounting for nearly all parental leave recipients (between 82 % and 99 % of total parental leave).

Table 4.1.1 Allocation of parental leave between men and women, 2008, 2009, 2010

Countries (year of collected data)	Women	Men
Czech Republic (2008)	98	2
Estonia (2010)	93.1 ¹	6.9 ¹
France (2010)	97 ²	3 ²
Greece (2010)	85 ³	15 ³
Ireland (2010)	84 ⁴	16 ⁴
Lithuania (2010)	93 ⁵	7 ⁵
Latvia (2010)	74.6 ⁶	25.4 ⁶
Malta (2010)	98 ⁷	2 ⁷
Romania (2010)	82 ⁸	18 ⁸
Slovakia (2010)	99.8 ⁹	0.2 ⁹
Slovenia (2008)	96	4
Spain (2010)	96	4

Notes: Data express in percentage of recipients out of total recipients.

1) Data provided by the Ministry of Social Affair, Social Insurance Board. 2) Data taken from a national study referring to 2007. 3) Data taken from the Labour Inspectorate and referring to the take-up of family leave in the private sector. In the public sector data are not collected centrally. 4) Data referring to 2001 taken from a national study. 5) Data provided by the State Social Security Fund. 6) Data provided by the State Social Insurance Agency. 7) Data included in a study by the Ministry of Social Policy referring to the period 1997-2001. 8) Based on data from the National Agency of Social Benefits. 9) Data taken from the global report on gender equality in Slovakia in 2009 from the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs.

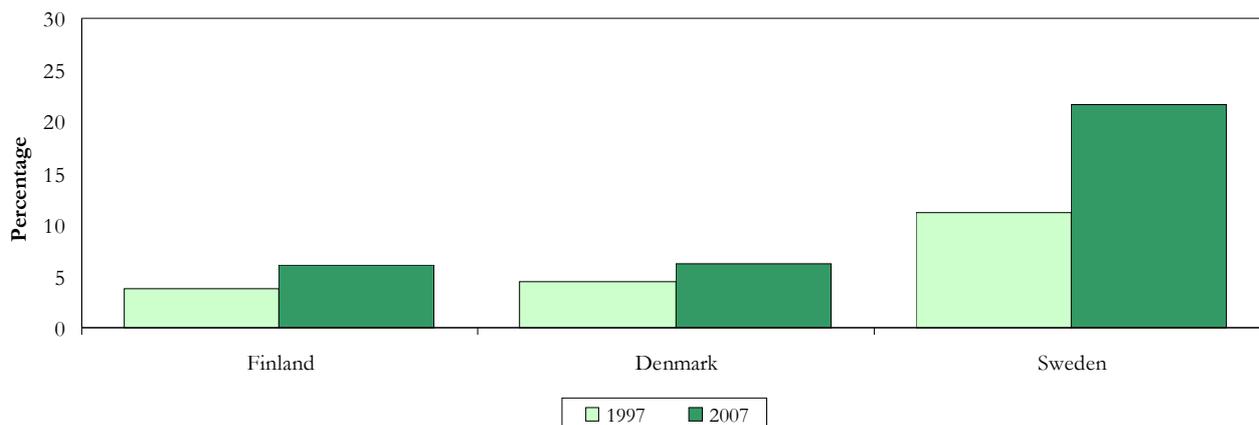
Data for Denmark, Finland and Sweden presented by Haataja (2009) show an increase in fathers' participation in parenting in these countries, with take-up by fathers in Sweden accounting for more than 20 % of the total maternity, paternity and parental leave taken in 2007⁴⁶.

Acknowledging the methodological limitation of using different sources of information, which limits direct comparison of the figures, the pictures emerging out of these sources are similar: women are the main recipients of parental leave, to the extent that in some countries they account for almost all recipients of parental leave.

⁴⁶ Haataja A. (2009), *Fathers' use of paternity and parental leave in Nordic countries*, p.8.

The greater take-up of leave by mothers can be explained by reference both to the way maternity/paternity/parental leave are designed and to the gender differences in the allocation of time. In addition, a crucial factor affecting parental leave take-up derives from the existence of gender gaps in wages. The higher likelihood that it will be the mother who takes leave in turn has a negative effect on her career and wages, reinforcing gender inequality in the labour market.

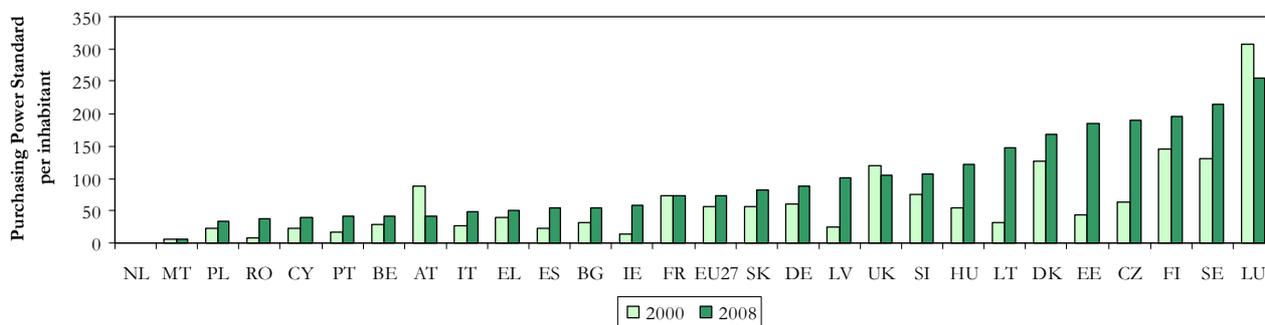
Figure 4.1.2 Fathers' shares of total maternity, paternity and parental leave benefit days, 1997 and 2007



Source: Haataja A. (2009). Father's use of paternity and parental leave in the Nordic countries. Kela/FPA. Online working paper 2/2009

Eurostat provides data on the public budgets expenditure allocated to parents that take-up leave to care for their children as means to compensate the loss of earnings during these periods. These data offer complementary information on the current situation as to parental leave. Looking at these data one can see the policy trend within the EU27 Member States in relation to support and encouragement of parental care at home, provided mostly by women. It does not address the exact request formulated by indicator 2 because the data collected and presented are not sex-disaggregated. Still, it can contribute to a better understanding of the broader picture of child care provided by parents within EU27 (see Figure 4.1.3).

Figure 4.1.3 Public budgets expenditure as means to compensate for the loss of earnings provided to parents that take leave to care for their children*, 2000 and 2008



Source: Eurostat, ESSPROS

Note: *The expenditure on parental leave benefit and expenditure on income maintenance benefit in the event of childbirth have been included. For the Netherlands the expenditure are equal with zero on both years.

The situation is characterised by differences in the PPS per capita expenditure⁴⁷. In 2008, three EU Member States experienced a decrease in expenditure on total parental leave (Austria, Luxembourg and United Kingdom). In the vast majority (twenty three) of the EU27 Member States an increase in expenditure can be seen for the same period (Figure 4.1.3 and Table A.2.1 in Appendix 2). In the Netherlands, there is no expenditure for parents in parental leave (data collected show 0). The variation for 2008, both upwards and downwards, ranges from less than 10 PPS in Malta to more than 200 PPS in Luxembourg and Sweden.

⁴⁷ Purchasing power standards (PPS) is a unit independent of any national currency that removes the distortions due to price level differences. PPS values are derived from purchasing power parities (PPPs), which are obtained as weighted averages of relative price ratios in respect of a homogeneous basket of goods and services, comparable and representative for each Member State.

The combination of information from different sources provides an overview of a picture in which take-up of parental leave is still greater among women than among men. In some EU Member States the number of men who take up parental leave has started to be more significant (over 10 %). There is variation between the 27 EU Member States in take-up of parental leave by fathers: 70 fathers to every 100 mothers in Sweden, while in Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary and Slovakia there are fewer than 10 fathers take parental leave for every 100 mothers. The general situation is that take-up of parental leave is still greater among women than among men.

Therefore, women's participation in the labour market is more likely than men's to be affected by the presence of children, and thus more effort is needed to increase fathers' take-up, leading to greater equality in the distribution of care work by gender.

The data sources for the analysis on indicator 2 are different. This diverse nature of data sources, the lack of coverage for all 27 EU Member States and the lack of harmonisation at EU level make it impossible to draw comparative conclusions.

4.2. INDICATOR 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 non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours); in compulsory primary education (outside school hours)

In recent decades, childcare services have become a matter of serious public concern in the EU Member States, as affordable and good-quality childcare services may make it easier to reconcile work, family and private life and thus foster labour market participation and gender equality (Plantenga and Remery, 2009). Providing suitable childcare is recognised as an essential step towards equal opportunities in employment for women and men at EU level as well. Thus, at the Barcelona Summit in 2002 it was agreed that by 2010 EU Member States should seek to provide childcare to at least 90 % of children between 3 years old and the obligatory school age and to at least 33 % of children under 3 years of age (EU MEMO 08/592). The importance of these targets was reaffirmed as recently as 2010 in the Employment Guidelines adopted by the Council of the European Union and in the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011 - 2020⁴⁸.

Data availability

The relevance of this topic at EU level is confirmed by the effort made to provide harmonised and updated statistics on the provision of childcare services. The EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU SILC) provide the data and the information on the use of childcare services. The French Presidency Report (2008) used the same data source for the analysis of the situation. Updated information and data on the use of childcare services are currently available and are used in the current report. The Eurostat aggregated data include information on the use of formal and other types of childcare services (Box 4.1) and on the number of hours of childcare per week (up to 30 hours a week /30 hours or more a week) in formal and other arrangements⁴⁹. Appendix 4 provides additional details on the data set.

⁴⁸ Council Decision of 21 October 2010 on guidelines for the employment policies of the Member States (2010/707/EU); Council conclusions on the European Pact for gender equality for the period 2010 – 2020, Brussels, 7 March 2011.

⁴⁹ The EU SILC data do not provide information on whether demand for childcare services is fully met, nor on the quality and affordability of childcare services.

This available data and information makes it possible to monitor effectively both BPfA indicator 3 and progress towards the achievement of the Barcelona targets⁵⁰. However, two points need to be mentioned in this context. First, as currently phrased, the BPfA indicator 3 focuses on care arrangements “other than from the family”. Based on the UN definition, family (within the household) includes those members of the household who are related, to a specified degree, through blood, adoption or marriage. This means that grandparents, or other relatives, living in the same household cannot be considered as “other than family” and need to be excluded from the indicator as they are members of the family within the household. This is not feasible when the aggregated EU SILC data are used. Indeed, as described in the box below (Box 4.1), EU SILC aggregated data provide information for “other type of childcare arrangements” that combines childcare offered by grandparents and other household members (other than parents) with those provided by professional child-minders. However, when care arrangements not involving parents are considered, EU SILC does provide the necessary data.

BOX 4.1 – Formal childcare and other types of care in EU SILC survey variables

<p>Formal childcare:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education at pre-school or equivalent • Compulsory education • Childcare at centre-based services outside school hours • Childcare at day-care centre organised/controlled by a by public or private structure 	<p>Other types of care:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Childcare by a professional child-minder at child's home or at child-minder's home • Childcare by grand-parents, other household members (not parents), other relatives, friends or neighbours.
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Source: EU SILC http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/en/ilc_ca_esms.htm

Secondly, in the case of children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system and children in compulsory primary education, BPfA indicator 3 focuses on the use of childcare services outside pre-school and school hours. From the EU SILC data it is possible to isolate the percentage of children in each group using childcare for 30 hours per week or more, which could be considered as a proxy for the “outside the pre-school or school hours”. In addition, it is possible to look at the use of “other types” of childcare arrangements. However, it is not possible to verify if other types of childcare are used in combination with formal childcare precisely to cover the hours outside school or outside pre-school from the aggregated data.

⁵⁰ Following the EU approach (EU- MEMO/08/592) in measuring progress towards the Barcelona targets, provision of childcare is measured as children cared for by formal arrangements other than by the family as a proportion of all children in the same age group.

The data provided by EU SILC are a very good source of evidence to monitor the development in the implantation of the BPfA indicator in the area of childcare, even if some methodological differences can be identified and may be addressed in the future.

Current situation and evolution since 2008

The availability of EU SILC data allows a robust comparative analysis of progress made in the EU as regards indicator 3. The analysis is organised according to the three age-group categories used in the definition of the BPfA indicator:

- before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system: this group refers to children under 3 years of age;
- in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system: this group refers to children over 3 years of age and below compulsory school age;
- in compulsory primary education: this group refers to children over compulsory school age up to 12 years of age.

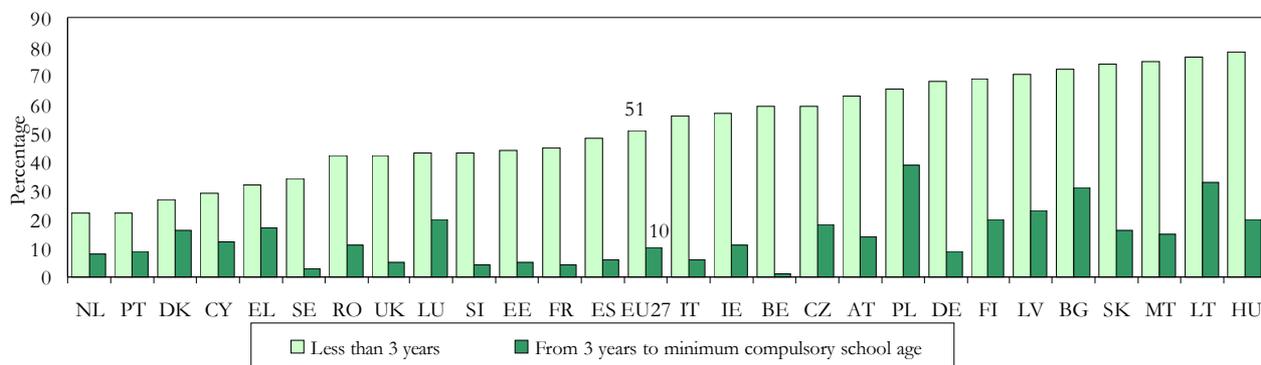
Data indicate the proportion of children cared for in the different arrangements expressed as a proportion of all children in the same age group. The use of childcare services for 30 hours or more per week is considered as equivalent to the use of childcare services “outside” pre-school or school hours. As far as the data source allows, the combining of more than one type of childcare is explored. The two time points of the comparison are 2005, when the data used by the French Presidency Report (2008) were collected, and 2009, when the data for the present report were collected.

Figure 4.2.1 provides information about children in the two age groups under compulsory primary education age that are cared for only by parents. The first observation to be made looking at the data is that children in the age group under 3 years old are significantly more often cared for by the parents compared to the children in the older age group (from 3 to compulsory school age). On average, at the EU 27 Member States level, 50 % of children under 3 years of age are cared for by parents alone, while the proportion decreases to 10 % for children in the age group from 3 to compulsory school age. Variation among the EU Member States as regards use of childcare facilities for different children age groups exists and needs to be noticed. Still, in 21 out of 27 EU Member States, over 40 % of children under 3 years of age are in the care of parents alone.

The percentage of children under 3 years old cared for only by the parents is smaller in EU Member States like Netherlands and Portugal, where it reaches around 20 %, and in Denmark and Cyprus, where it reaches 30 %. The largest percentage of children under 3 years old cared for only by the parents is to be found in Hungary, followed closely by several other EU Member States including Lithuania, Malta, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Latvia, where the percentage is over 70 %.

The situation for older children, in the age group between 3 years and compulsory school age, is different and better compared to the younger age groups. Children in this older group are less often cared for only by the parents, as the average percentage at EU level for this group age is 10 %. There are some EU Member States where the percentage reaches 30 or even more (Bulgaria, Lithuania, and Poland), in others the percentage is more than 10 %, approaching 20 % (Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, Czech Republic, Finland, Latvia, and Hungary), and while in eleven EU Member States the percentage is less than 10.

Figure 4.2.1 Percentage of children cared for by parents alone broken down by age group, 2009



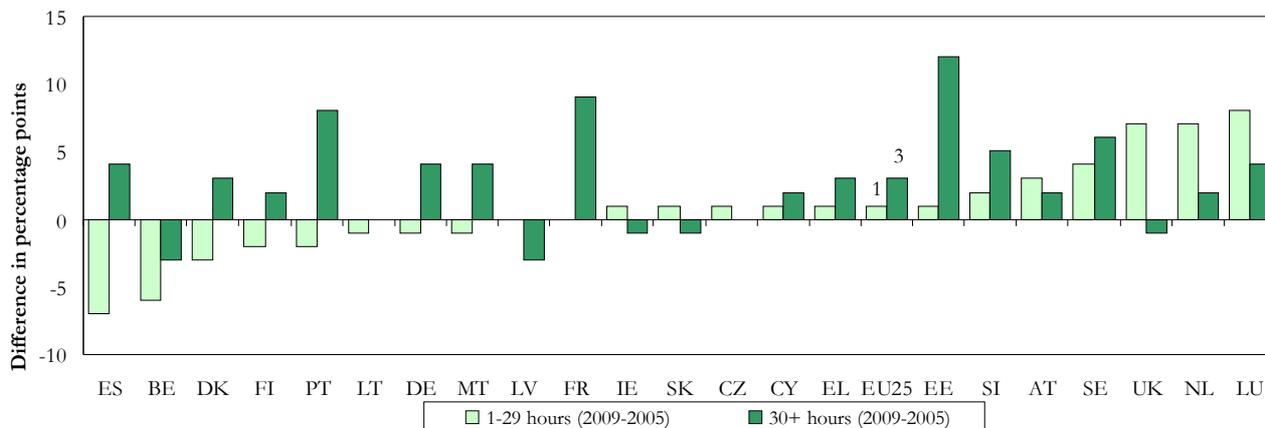
Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children cared for by parents alone out of total number of children in the same age group

Children before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day)

Data on the use of childcare services for children before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (children in the 0 to 2 age group in the EU SILC database, under 3 years as described in the Barcelona targets) show an encouraging positive trend over recent years. Figure 4.2.2 presents the changes between 2005 and 2009 in the proportion of children under three years of age in formal childcare. Both provision of 1 to 29 hours and provision of 30 hours or more are considered. Positive values indicate an increase in the proportion of children in formal childcare, whilst negative values show a reduction in the use of formal childcare services.

Figure 4.2.2 Variation in the proportion of children under 3 years of age in formal childcare, 2005 and 2009



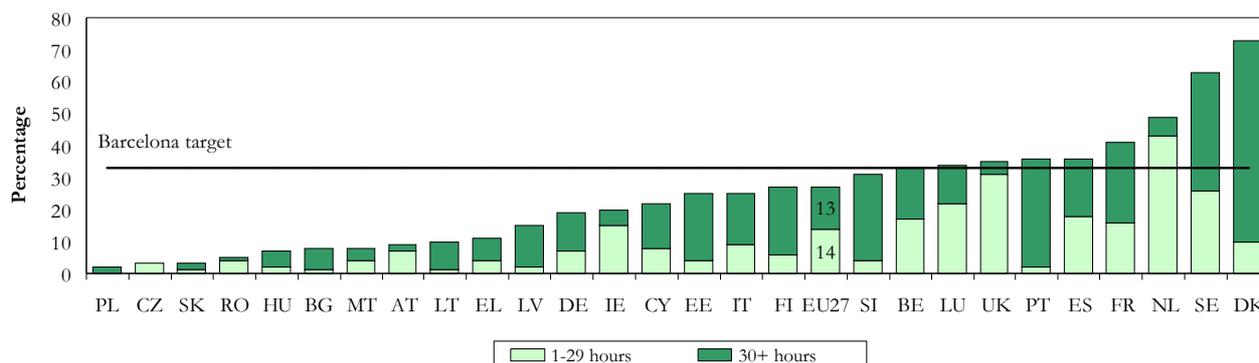
Source: EU SILC

Note: Variation in percentage points: a positive variation indicates increase in use of formal childcare in 2009 compared to 2005; a negative variation stands for decrease in use of formal childcare in 2009 compared to 2005. Data on Bulgaria and Romania are not available. Missing values for Hungary, Italy and Poland are not due to missing information but because there was no variation between the two years considered.

Figure 4.2.2 shows that between 2005 and 2009, ten EU Member States (Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Greece, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Romania, Slovenia, and Sweden) experienced an increase in the use of formal childcare arrangements for children under 3 in both the 1 to 29 hour category and the 30 hours or more category. In seven other EU Member States like (Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Malta, Portugal and Spain), the increase in the use of childcare was confined to that covering 30 hours or more per week. The data show a shift towards the use of childcare services for longer hours, more compatible with parental work patterns. Belgium is the only EU Member State where a decline in the use of childcare services in both categories (1 to 29 hours and 30 hours or more per week) can be observed since 2005. The flexibility for the hours and the days when childcare service is available has an important influence on parents' accessibility to make use of such services, especially if both parents are employed full time or if the lone parent wants to have a full-time job. With this in mind, the situation in Belgium can be explained by the fact that childcare provision is fragmented, with different types of structures and different quality levels as measured by the qualifications and remuneration of the staff employed, child/staff ratios etc. (Meulders and O'Dorchai, 2008); therefore it might be difficult for parents to make use of the services available.

Noticeable progress in availability and use of formal childcare services for children before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system is registered. Still, progress varies in terms of the situation in different EU Member States and how close they are to reaching the targets set for 2010 in Barcelona 2002. As Figure 4.2.3 shows, by 2009, nine EU Member States had already met the targets set in Barcelona, of 33 % of children under 3 in formal childcare (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, and UK); out of these nine, in Denmark, France, Portugal and Sweden most formal childcare services are used for 30 hours or more per week. In nine other EU Member States (Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, and Slovakia) the Barcelona target of 33 % was not reached or passed, as the proportion of children under 3 using childcare is still less than 10 %.

Figure 4.2.3 Proportion of children under 3 years of age in formal childcare 1 to 29 hours and 30+ hours, 2009

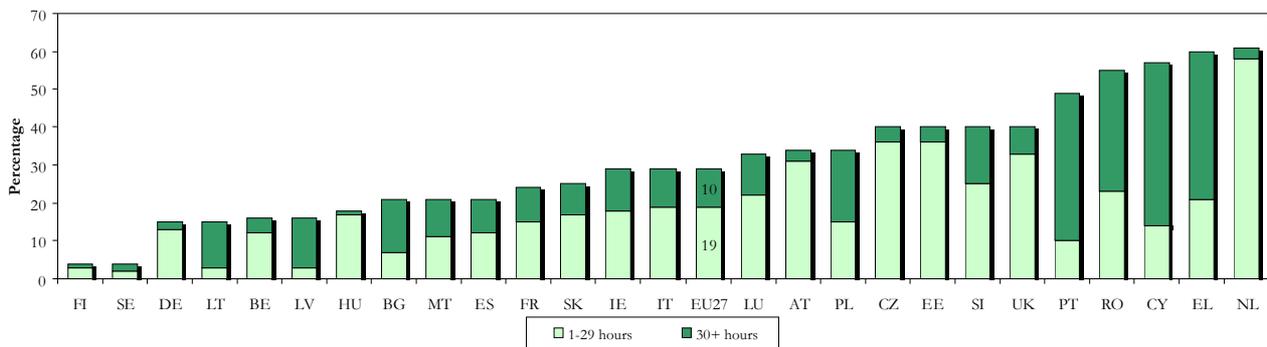


Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children in formal childcare out of total number of children in the same age group

Figure 4.2.4 shows that the use of other childcare services also varies among EU Member States, ranging from less than 5 % in Finland and Sweden to a maximum of 60 % in Netherlands and Greece. Types of childcare services other than formal childcare are the most used services for less than 30 hours per day in the EU Member States.

Figure 4.2.4 Proportion of children under 3 in other types of childcare 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2009

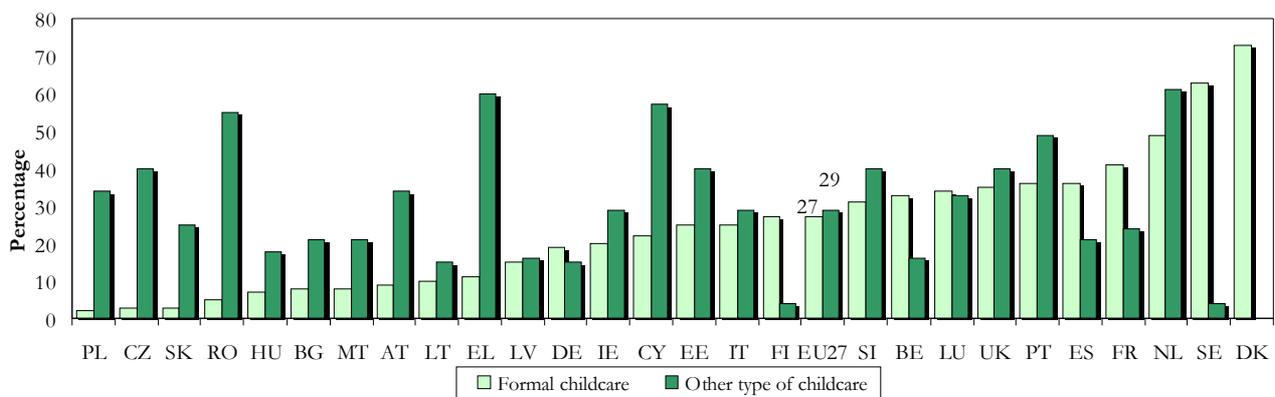


Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children in other type of childcare out of total number of children in the same age group. Data on Denmark are not available.

Figure 4.2.5 contains a combination of data on formal childcare with data on other types of childcare services and it provides additional information on the use of childcare services.

Figure 4.2.5 Proportion of children under 3 in formal and other type of childcare, 2009



Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children in formal and other type of childcare out of total number of children in the same age group. Data on “other types of childcare” for Denmark are not available.

The information presented in Figure 4.2.3, Figure 4.2.4 and Figure 4.2.5 combined in the analysis show the extent to which these services complement or can replace each other in different countries. The analysis allows three different patterns to be identified:

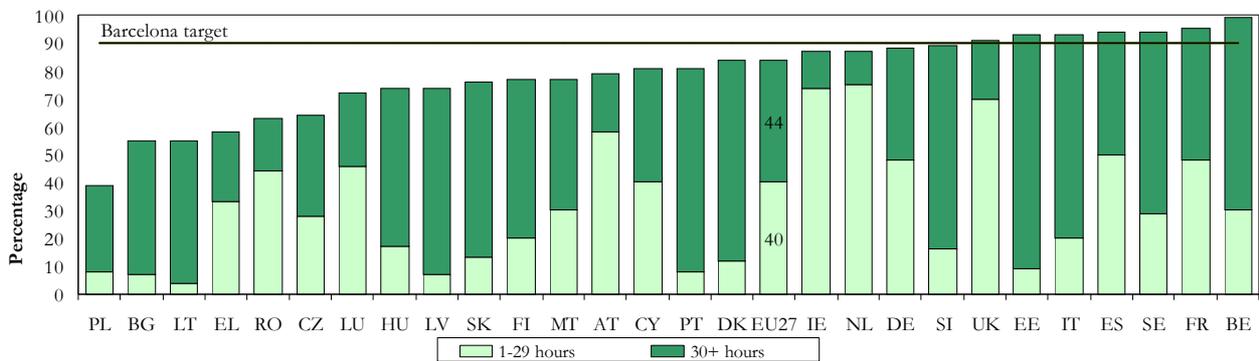
- In several EU Member States, formal childcare services are broadly used in combination with an extensive use of other arrangements. In Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Luxembourg, for instance, formal childcare services are extensively used for 1-29 hours and combined with the use of other arrangements mainly for 1-29 hours, suggesting that the two types of childcare services are used to complement each other. A more unusual situation emerges in Portugal, where both formal and other types of childcare are used mainly for 30 hours or more.
- In several other EU Member States, including the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Greece, Poland, Romania and Slovakia, there is very little use of formal arrangements, but there is more extensive use of other types of arrangements, suggesting swapping between the two childcare services, with a prevalence of use of informal childcare providers.
- In Denmark, Sweden and Finland, formal arrangements are used extensively, while other types of arrangements are very little used. In these countries the use of formal childcare institutions is prevalent and is combined with a less extensive use of the “informal” kind of childcare.

Children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours)

The formal childcare services for children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (between the age of three and compulsory school age in the EU SILC database) is used in the EU 27 Member States. By 2009, seven EU Member States (Belgium, Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Sweden and the UK) met the target of a 90 % rate of coverage set up for 2010, in Barcelona. In addition, another seven EU Member States (Cyprus, Germany, Denmark, Ireland, Netherlands, Portugal and Slovenia) achieved a coverage rate of at least 80 % in 2009 (Figure 4.2.6). Despite this overall positive trend, there still are EU Member States where the use of childcare services falls significantly short of the target set for 2010. In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Lithuania,

Poland and Romania, current use of childcare services falls short of the target by more than 20 percentage points. The childcare in these EU Member States is mostly family-based and/or informal (OECD, 2006; Michon, 2010) despite the fact that formal childcare services are identified as being the best option for pre-school children. When asked ‘what is the best way of organising childcare for pre-school children’, 64.5 % of EU citizens interviewed in 2008 chose ‘public or private crèche/day care centre/nursery’⁵¹. This answer was followed by 51.3 % who chose ‘childcare by mother’, while only 29.5 % of the interviews chose ‘childcare by fathers’, far too few compared to those that chose ‘childcare by grandparents or other relatives’ (36.9 %).⁵² At the same time, there were EU Member States like Luxembourg, Romania, Malta, and Cyprus where ‘childcare by mothers’ was preferred by those interviewed, over the ‘public or private crèche/day care centre/nursery’ option. The data collected by this latest survey show that the conclusion that childcare for this age group is mostly family-based and/or informal still holds.

Figure 4.2.6 Proportion of children between 3 and the minimum compulsory school age in formal childcare 1 to 29 hours and 30+ hours, 2009



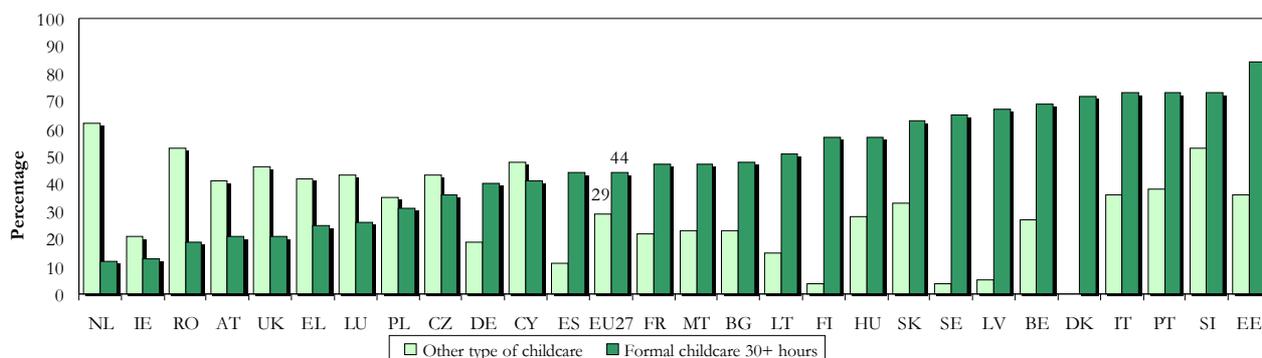
Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children in formal childcare out of total number of children in the same age group.

⁵¹ Family life and the needs of an ageing population. Analytical report. *Flash Eurobarometer 247*, October 2008, Table 14a. The best way of organising childcare for pre-school children – by country, p. 92.

⁵² Family life and the needs of an ageing population. Analytical report. *Flash Eurobarometer 247*, October 2008, Table 14a. The best way of organising childcare for pre-school children – by country, p. 92.

Figure 4.2.7 Proportion of children between 3 and the minimum compulsory school age in formal childcare for 30+ hours and other types of childcare, 2009



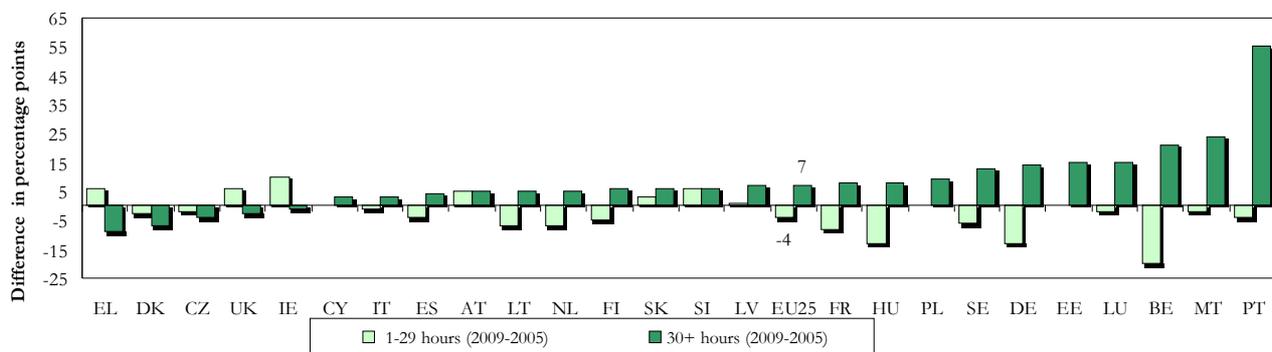
Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children in formal childcare for 30+ hours and other type of childcare out of total number of children in the same age group. Data on “other types of childcare” for Denmark are not available.

The data on the use of formal childcare services for 30 hours or more per week show that in twelve EU Member States (Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Latvia, Portugal, Sweden, Slovenia, and Slovakia) the majority of children receive such childcare services (50 % or more of the total children in this age group). Interestingly, with a few exceptions such as Germany, Spain and Slovenia, those countries where only a small percentage of children receive formal childcare for 30 hours or more per week have a higher proportion of children using other types of childcare. It is important to note that the data available make it impossible to check whether other types of childcare arrangements are used outside pre-school hours, perhaps in combination with the use of formal childcare during school hours. However, the situation described above seems to suggest this pattern of use, especially in countries where formal childcare is used for fewer hours per week (Figure 4.2.7).

It is very important to point out that the use of formal childcare for longer hours has increased since 2005, when the previous set of data was collected (Figure 4.2.8). Between 2005 and 2009 the use of formal childcare for 30 hours or more per week for children aged between 3 and compulsory school age increased in twenty of the 27 EU Member States (Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden). This noticeable increase in use of childcare services of 30 hours or more per week went along with an increase in the use of formal childcare for 1 to 29 hours per week.

Figure 4.2.8 Variation in the proportion of children between 3 and the minimum compulsory school age in formal childcare, 2005 and 2009



Source: EU SILC

Note: Variation in percentage points: a positive variation indicates increase in use of formal childcare in 2009 compared to 2005; a negative variation stands for decrease in use of formal childcare in 2009 compared to 2005.

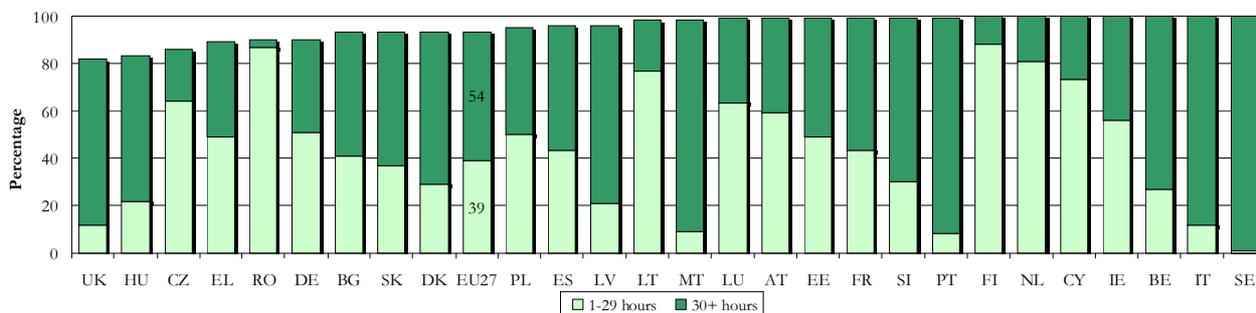
Data on Bulgaria and Romania are not available; Missing values for Cyprus, Poland and Estonia are not due to missing information but to the absence of variation between the two years considered.

Children in compulsory primary education (outside school hours)

Data on childcare arrangements for children in compulsory primary education⁵³ show a coverage rate of nearly 100 % (Figure 4.2.9). It is important to notice that in twelve out of the 27 EU Member States the typical school day is still less than 30 hours per week (in Austria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Germany, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Lithuania, Netherlands, Poland, and Romania). In these countries, less than 50 % of children in the age group concerned use the formal childcare arrangements for 30 hours or more per week. Data can be seen in Figure 4.2.10.

⁵³ As explained previously, when starting to present the data and analysis for the indicator 3, the age group of children in compulsory primary education defined in the text of the indicator 3 is equivalent to the age group of children from minimum compulsory school age up to 12 years old in the EU-SILC database.

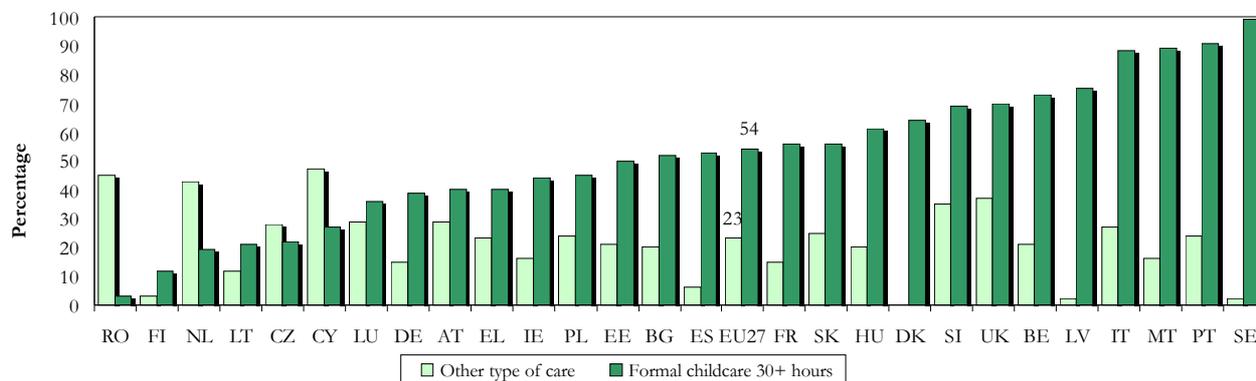
Figure 4.2.9 Proportion of children between minimum compulsory school age and 12 in formal childcare, 2009



Source: EU SILC

Note: Percentage of children in formal childcare out of total number of children in the same age group.

Figure 4.2.10 Proportion of children between minimum compulsory school age and 12 in formal childcare for 30+ hours and in other types of childcare, 2009



Source: EU SILC

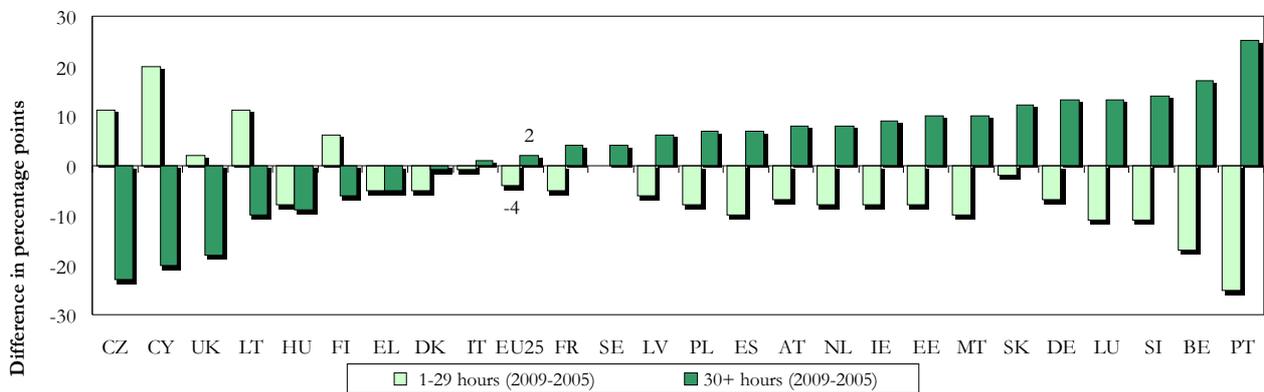
Note: Percentage of children in formal childcare for 30+ hours and other type of childcare out of total number of children in the same age group.

Improvements towards a more extensive use of childcare services for 30 hours or more per week are particularly relevant for the analysis of progress towards the achievement of this BPfA indicator. On this point, Figure 4.2.11 shows an increase in the use of childcare services for 30 hours or more per week between 2005 and 2010 in seventeen EU27 Member States (Austria, Belgium, Estonia, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden). The increase in use of childcare services for 30 hours or more per week, which is seen in Austria, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Poland, still does not reach the target set for 2010 for this age group in Barcelona 2002. The figures for these countries, in absolute terms, are smaller.

In the case of children in this age group, as with the situation for the younger age group (from 3 years old up to compulsory school age), the highest proportion of children receiving other types of childcare are also those with the lowest proportion of children in formal childcare for 30 hours or more per week (Figure 4.2.10). In Slovenia and the UK the situation is different.

Overall, formal childcare is combined with the use of other types of childcare in most of the EU27 Member States. Variation as to the use of other types of childcare exists among the EU27 Member States, ranging from less than 5 % in Latvia, Sweden, and Finland to a maximum of 47 % in Cyprus.

Figure 4.2.11 Changes in the proportion of children between minimum compulsory school age and 12 in formal childcare between, 2005 and 2009



Source: EU SILC

Note: Variation in percentage points: a positive variation indicates increase in use of formal childcare in 2009 compared to 2005; a negative variation stands for decrease in use of formal childcare in 2009 compared to 2005.

Data on Bulgaria and Romania are not available. Missing values for Sweden are not due to missing information but to the absence of variation between the two years considered.

The recent available data show that on average, at EU level, the use of formal childcare for children before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (children under 3 years old) has increased. By 2009, when the latest data were collected, nine EU Member States had already achieved the 33 % target set for this age group in Barcelona 2002. Since the analysis presented by the French Presidency Report (2008), only two additional countries have changed situation in this regard. In addition, only in Denmark, France, the Netherlands and Sweden is the proportion of children under 3 years that use formal childcare higher than 40 %. In another twelve EU27 Member States, the proportion is equal to or lower than 20 %.

By 2009, when the latest data were collected, seven 27 EU27 Member States had reached or exceeded the 90 % coverage rate set in Barcelona 2002 for use of childcare services outside pre-school hours for the **intermediate age group (children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system)**. The same data show that in seven other EU Member States this target had almost been reached by 2009. Based on these data, a clear improvement in providing childcare services outside pre-school hours in the EU Member States can be seen. There are still fifteen EU Member States not achieving the target, since their childcare services for the age group of children are accessible only less than 30 hours per week (the coverage rate for full-time attendance is below 50 % of children in the age group).

The situation for the use of childcare services outside school hours by children in compulsory primary education is similar to that for the use of childcare services by the pre-school age-group children. The coverage rate for use of childcare services less than 30 hours per week is close to 100 % in almost all countries. In twelve of the 27 EU Member States formal childcare services are used mainly for less than 30 hours per week.

The analysis for indicator 3 is based on several data sources that are harmonised and updated for all 27 EU Member States. In order to improve the monitoring exercise, a better match of the EU SILC aggregated categories to the monitoring needs is recommended. This recommendation refers particularly to data about the use of childcare outside pre-school or school hours (for the middle and older age group) or provision of childcare by non-family-members. Several gaps in the data shall be addressed by using the micro-data of the EU SILC ad-hoc module.

4.3. INDICATOR 4. Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life for both men and women

This indicator provides information on the key policy measures, particularly family and employment policies enacted or announced in the EU27 Member States, since 2008, in order to (directly or indirectly) promote reconciliation of work, family and private life.

Data availability

Since the French Presidency Report (2008) extensive and accurate information on policies relating to reconciliation of work, family and private life have been made available through several sources. The main sources used for the current analysis are the databases MISSOC⁵⁴ and ESSPROS qualitative⁵⁵ (see Appendix 4 for a description), the latest summary reports produced by the European Commission's Expert Group on Gender and Employment (Villa and Smith, 2010a and 2010b) and the latest data collected for the European Commission's DG Justice on the costs and benefits of measures on paternity leave.

Current situation and evolution since 2008

Appendix 3 presents a summary of the policy measures identified in each of the EU27 Member States that are aimed at promoting reconciliation of work, family and private life. Enacted and announced policy initiatives are the subjects of the summary of each EU Member State. The summaries have similar structures and each briefly describes the content of national action plans for gender equality⁵⁶ and the policy initiatives considered to address childcare services, childcare benefits, and provisions facilitating reconciling work, family and private life (e.g. parental leave or other leave, parental allowances). An overview of the situation at EU level is discussed below.

⁵⁴ MISSOC is coordinated by the European Commission.

⁵⁵ The European system of integrated social protection statistics (ESSPROS) was jointly developed in the late 1970s by Eurostat and representatives of the Member States in response to the need for a specific instrument for statistical observation of social protection in the EU Member States.

⁵⁶ Gender Action Plans are particularly relevant, since they shape countries' policies on women's empowerment and gender equality issues and provide an overarching and global framework for the specific policy interventions. They usually support increased programming to tackle gender inequality and support women's and girls' rights; encourage different partners to pay greater attention to women's empowerment; and secured a much improved focus on the needs and priorities of women and girls in development.

In almost all 27 EU Member States, efforts to reconcile work, family and private life responsibilities form part of a broader action intended to ensure equal opportunities for women and men to participate actively in all areas of life. National strategies for gender equality and/or national action plans for gender equality have been adopted in almost all EU27 Member States as an overarching framework for specific policy measures and initiatives. Within this framework, different measures have been enacted in all areas that can promote reconciliation of work, family and private life. The information collected in the two above-mentioned qualitative data sources show that a significant effort has been made to improve access to childcare through increased provision of childcare services and facilities. In some cases, these measures are associated with reform of childcare benefits, as in Austria, where new schemes for childcare benefits have been introduced⁵⁷, or in Germany, where subsidised childcare for one-year-old children is to start in 2013⁵⁸. In several EU Member States, amendments to paternity and parental leave laws have been enacted or proposed⁵⁹. These measures are aimed at introducing leave entitlements (e.g. Bulgaria, Latvia, Poland and Portugal), promoting the extension of coverage (e.g. Cyprus, Spain, the Netherlands and Slovakia), introducing leave for grandparents (e.g. Germany), or encouraging fathers' take-up of parental and paternity leave (e.g. Finland, Poland, Portugal and the UK).

Given the period of time covered by this updating exercise, the BPfA indicator 4 offers an opportunity to discuss the potential negative effects on the reconciliation policies of the latest policy measures implemented in the aftermath of the economic crisis. As noted by Villa and Smith (2010a), it is not easy to predetermine the direction of impact, as the interventions implemented may affect reconciliation policies in different ways. On the one hand, the concentration of women

⁵⁷ Villa,P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States.*, Box 5.1 Example of policies favoring gender equality (“Highs”), Austria, p. 134.

⁵⁸ Villa,P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States.*, Box 5.1 Example of policies favoring gender equality (“Highs”), Germany, p. 137.

⁵⁹ Villa,P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States.*, Box 5.1 Example of policies favoring gender equality (“Highs”), pp. 133-145. It is important to note that while paternity leave is important in particular in laying the basis of paternal care, its impact on work-life balance should not be overestimated, as we are talking mainly of rather short periods, around the birth, and typically overlapping with the period of maternity leave.

in the public sector means that changes in working conditions of public employees can affect women's overall employment opportunities directly and often negatively in the context of cuts to public services. On the other hand, some EU Member States have used financial transfers to households to mitigate the impact of the crisis – these include family allowances and child benefits (e.g. Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic and Netherlands), bonuses for low-income households (e.g. Italy) and assistance with childcare (e.g. Belgium and France). Since women are more likely to take the primary role in caring for children these measures are likely to have a positive impact in terms of paying for the care work that women are doing. On the other hand, these types of measures may lead to inactivity among women as they facilitate, directly and indirectly, women's absence from the labour market. Furthermore, they do not address the structural inequalities related to the gendered division of unpaid work and its low-paid character. Future gender-equality-sensitive assessments of these measures may detect the possible negative effects on the main carer's participation in the labour market. The analyses carried out of women's labour supply emphasised that these effects are more likely to have an impact on women with low educational attainments, who are the ones most likely to earn low wages in paid employment.

Other EU Member States considered it more efficient to address the public budget deficit by cutting or freezing such financial transfers. In Hungary, there were budget cuts in child benefits; in Ireland, there were budget cuts for young-child supplements; in Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, there were budget cuts in parental/paternity/maternity benefits. Reductions in public expenditure on care services and benefits in relation to care work are thus likely to transfer care work back to households, meaning back to women, and to perpetuate the uneven distribution of unpaid care work between women and men.

The Council of the EU has endorsed the priorities for fiscal consolidation and structural reforms which all EU Member States have to translate into concrete measures to be included in their Stability or Convergence Programmes and National Reform Programmes. By June 2011, the European Commission offered Country-specific Recommendations based on the revision of the National Reform Programmes and Stability or Convergence Programmes⁶⁰. For several EU Member States specific recommendations as to increase of childcare facilities and change of the fiscal system in order to support parents' full-time participation in the labour market were formulated.

⁶⁰ European Commission, Country-specific Recommendations 2011, available at: http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/tools/monitoring/recommendations_2011/index_en.htm

National strategies for gender equality or national action plans have been adopted in almost all EU Member States as an overarching framework for policy measures and initiatives aiming at promoting equal opportunities for women and men to participate actively in all areas of life. Among the specific measures announced or enacted, data show a significant effort to:

- a) improve access to childcare through increased provision of childcare facilities as well as increased childcare benefits;
- b) promote the use of paternity and parental leave; and
- c) promote women's labour force participation and female entrepreneurship.

Particular attention needs to be paid to the possible effects of the economic crisis - and of measures adopted in response to it. In this context, it is not easy to determine the direction of the impact. Some adopted measures could benefit women more (for instance, family allowances, child benefits, and assistance with childcare, provided to households to mitigate the impact of the crisis). Other measures could have a negative effect on women's participation in the labour market and the reconciliation of work, private and family life.

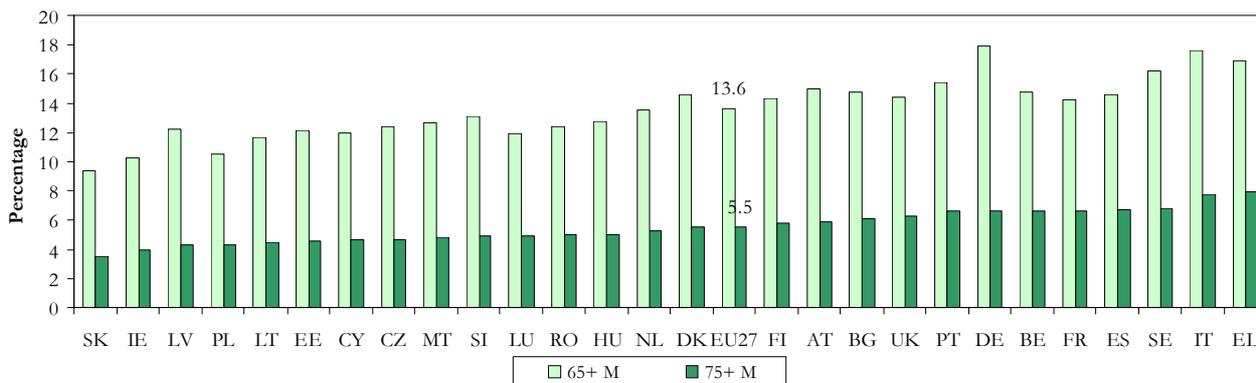
The analysis for indicator 4 is based on extensive information on policies announced or implemented by the EU27 Member States available from several sources.

4.4. INDICATOR 5. Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75: living in specialised institutions; who have help (other than the family) at home; looked after by the family, as a proportion of total men and women over 75.

The current Member States of the European Union are confronted with the problem of an aging population. The increase in life expectancy among both men and women and the low fertility rates⁶¹ dramatically affect the size of the European population and the age structure, inevitably resulting in an increased old-age dependency ratio⁶².

Between 2000 and 2010, the proportion of the total population aged 65 and over increased from approximately 15 % to approximately 17 %. In 2010 the proportion of the population over 65 and 75 was 14 % and 6 % respectively for men and 19 % and 9 % respectively for women (Figure 4.5.1 and Figure 4.5.2). In particular, the proportion of men over 65 ranged from almost 10 % to slightly more than 15 % of the total male population in the EU27 Member States, while the proportion of women in the same age group ranged from almost 15 % to more than 20 % of the total female population.

Figure 4.5.1 Percentage of men aged 65+ and 75+ out of the total male population, 2010



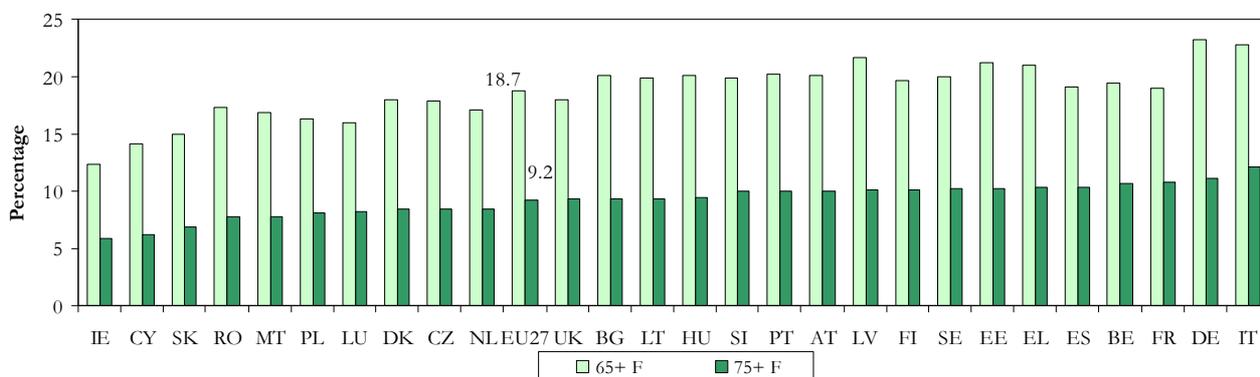
Source: Eurostat

Note: Data for UK refer to 2009

⁶¹ Eurostat (2011), Demography Report 2010. Latest figures on the demographic challenges in the EU, *Eurostat Newsrelease No. 50/2011*; Eurostat (2010), *Europe in figures. Eurostat yearbook 2010*, Chapter 2: Population.

⁶² The age-dependency ratio is the proportion between elderly and people in working age in a given country.

Figure 4.5.2 Percentage of women aged 65+ and 75+ out of the total female population, 2010



Source: Eurostat

Note: Data for UK refer to 2009

The smallest proportion of over 75s in the total male population lives in Slovakia (3.5 %), while the largest percentage of total males over 75 lives in Greece (8 %). For women, at the lowest extreme females over 75 represented 6 % of the total in Ireland and Cyprus, while the highest proportion was in Italy, where the same group represented 12 % of the total female population. These extremes show that demographic trends are quite different across Europe: the old-age dependency ratio is projected to be more than 60 (%) in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia, and less than 45 % in Denmark, Ireland, Cyprus, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom⁶³. In addition, there are great differences within the European countries in life expectancy and in healthy life years.

⁶³ EC (2009), *The 2009 Ageing Report*.

The increase in the elderly as a proportion of the population raises challenges for EU societies not only from a cultural and organisational point of view but also in terms of public expenditure⁶⁴. An ageing population is expected to increase pressure on pensions systems, public finances, and social and care services, particularly because the elderly are more likely to be in need of care resulting from limitations in their ability to carry out daily activities⁶⁵. At EU level, 15 % of people between 65 and 74 and 26 % of those between 75 and 84 stated they were severely hampered in daily activities (Figure A5.1 in Appendix 2). Still, in all EU Member States, women live longer than men, but have a shorter percentage of their life in good health compared to men. Therefore, it is expected that more women need long-term care and for a longer period of time⁶⁶.

The increased proportion of elderly in the total population is also likely to have an impact in terms of labour market outcomes and the reconciliation of work, family and private life of household members, particularly women. In their latest report on *Long-term-care for the Elderly* (2011)⁶⁷, Bettio and Verashchagina emphasise that 'in principle, the conflict between working and care is not only a women's issue, as there is a considerable participation of men in informal care⁶⁸'. The same authors, making reference to the work carried out by the network of experts on gender and employment of the European Commission, specify that 'employed men are less likely to take on responsibilities for elderly care than are employed women⁶⁹'; women leave their jobs more often than men in order to care for older people; however, the estimated loss of employment is generally below 10 %.' Still, in practice, there is some uncertainty as to how (un)equally this risk is actually

⁶⁴ EC (2009), *The 2009 Ageing Report*.

⁶⁵ Demographic ageing, however, does not necessarily mean an increase in demand of care, especially long-term care. It is the increase in life expectancy and the incidence of dependency that creates increase in the demand for long-term care. The increase in life expectancy at birth has implications on the percentage of healthy life years, and therefore on incidence of dependency: longer lifespan influences needs in terms of long-term care, formal and informal.

⁶⁶ EC (2010), *Access to Healthcare and Long-Term Care: Equal for Women and Men?* p. 117

⁶⁷ Bettio, F and Verashchagina, A (2011): *Long-term-care for the Elderly*.

⁶⁸ Based on SHARE dataset, the 2006-2007 surveys carried out in thirteen EU Member States, **men account for 39 % of informal caregivers**. An informal caregiver is 'a carer that looks after family, partners, friends or neighbours in need of help because they are ill, frail or have a disability; the care they provide is unpaid.' (Eurocarers, 2007, *White paper: together for health: a strategic approach for the EU 2008-2013*)

⁶⁹ According to data provided by the Second European Quality of Life Survey (Eurofound 2007), in the EU 27, **employed men** who also care for an elderly or disabled relative spent **on average eight hours per week caring**. Employed care-giving **women** spent **eleven hours per week caring**.

distributed. According to the Special Eurobarometer survey on *Health and long-term care in the EU*, women are more often fully involved in informal care than men: more women shop, cook, clean, and help with dressing, bathing or showering, feeding the person they are helping compared with men⁷⁰. The data collected by Eurofound through the Second European Quality of Life Survey show that women spend on average 15 hours each week caring for elderly or disabled relatives compared with 11 hours spent by men, on average⁷¹. Also, as just mentioned in looking at the data collected by the Eurobarometer, men provide a less intensive care which involves different activities than women.

Data availability

Given the importance of elderly care in the EU27 Member States, the European Union is playing an essential role in the accumulation of knowledge, improvement of data availability and support for policies and interventions in this field. Growing realisation of the importance of this issue has resulted in increased availability of adequate data, helping to fill a serious gap in the monitoring of BPfA indicators.

More specifically, in the French Presidency Report (2008), data on indicator 5 were not available for all countries and were not sufficiently harmonised, due to differences in reference periods and in relevant population groups. Since the French Presidency Report (2008), additional efforts have been made at EU level to fill the gaps identified. An example of this type is the *2009 Ageing Report: Economic and budgetary projections for the EU27 Member States (2008 – 2060)*⁷², which provides valuable data that can be used effectively in the monitoring of BPfA indicator 5. The SHARE Project (Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe), in putting together a data base on aging and retirement, represents another important attempt to obtain data on elderly care within the European Union⁷³.

⁷⁰ European Commission (2007): Special Eurobarometer No.283/wave 67.3, *Health and long-term care in the EU*, Report, December 2007, p. 83

⁷¹ Eurofound (2009), *Second European Quality of Life Survey. Overview*, p.24

⁷² http://ec.europa.eu/economy_finance/publications/publication14992_en.pdf

The *2009 Ageing Report* is collaboration between the European Commission and the Economic Policy Committee and the database is updated every 2-3 years.

⁷³ SHARE Database (Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe) is a multidisciplinary and trans-national panel database of microdata on health, socio-economic status and social and family networks. It is supported by the European Commission with funds for research; the survey has been implemented since 2004 and currently involves nineteen EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the UK. For more information, see Appendix 4 and also www.share-project.org

For the current report, the data presented and discussed in the *2009 Ageing Report* are used⁷⁴. These data do not address the requirements of the BPfA indicator precisely, as they are not sex-disaggregated. In order to be able to get an overview of the situation of elderly people in need of care from the gender perspective, complementary information was extracted from the SHARE database, from the Report of the European Commission's Expert Group on Gender Equality and Social Inclusion, Health and Long-Term Care Issues (EGGSI), *Access to Healthcare and Long-Term Care: Equal for Women and Men?*⁷⁵, and from the recent study of the European Commission's Expert Group on Gender and Employment (EGGE), *Long-term care for the Elderly*⁷⁶. The available data provide useful information on the number of dependent elderly people who need care, formal or informal⁷⁷. In this sense, this information can be considered as a fairly good proxy indicator for describing the current situation.

The French Presidency Report (2008) used a different data source to present the situation for indicator 5⁷⁸. Due to the differences in methodologies of collecting the data and the coverage that the data present, it is a risky exercise to make a comparative analysis. Progress has been made at EU level in data collection and availability, so an overview of the situation can be given.

Current situation and evolution since 2008

Figure 4.5.3 shows that recourse to formal care institutions for dependent elderly people is not particularly common in the EU27 Member States. In nine EU Member States (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Poland, Romania and Slovakia) less than 10 % of the dependent elderly receive care in institutions. Denmark and Sweden are the EU Member States with the highest percentage of dependent elderly people who receive care in institutions, a rate of 35 %.

⁷⁴ EC (2009), *2009 Ageing Report*, Table 34-Number of people receiving formal and informal or no care in the pure demographic scenario, in thousands, p. 138.

⁷⁵ Crepaldi, C., Samek Lodovici, M., Corsi, M. (2010): *Access to Healthcare and long-Term Care: Equal for Women and Men?*, EC, DG Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities.

⁷⁶ Bettio, F and Verashchagina, A (2011): *Long-term-care for the Elderly*.

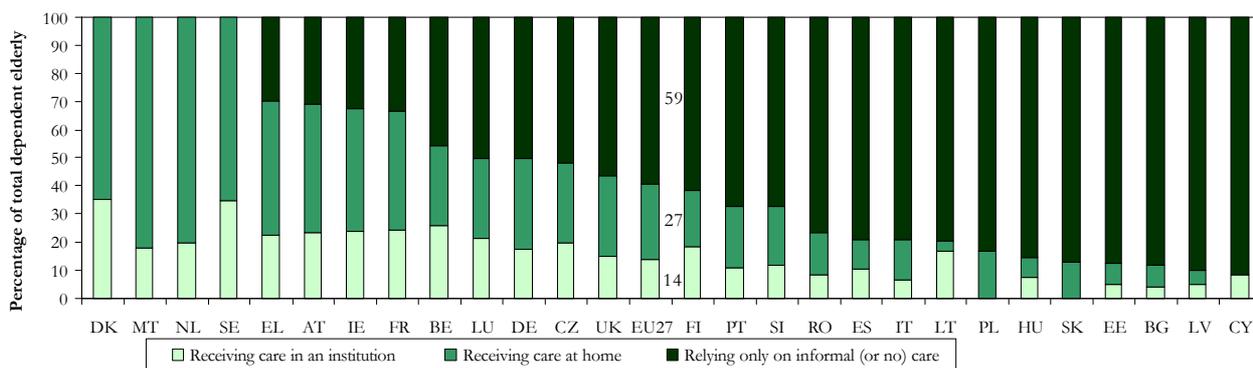
⁷⁷ The *2009 Ageing Report* uses data provided by SHARE as a database and data provided by the national institutions on the number of people living in institutions. A dependent elderly person is a person who has limitations in capacity for the activities of daily living.

⁷⁸ The authors of the French Presidency Report (2008) used two data sources for this indicator:

- a) Eurostat, Comparable statistics in the area of care of dependent adults in the EU (2003) and
- b) SHARE Survey from 2004 that covered only six EU Member States (e.g. France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, and Sweden).

At the same time, the low level of use of formal care at home can be seen in EU Member States with low use of institutional care. Conversely, in Denmark, Sweden, the Netherlands and Malta, 65 % to 80 % of the dependent elderly receive formal care at home. Overall, informal carers (family and friends) remain the most important group of care providers for the dependent elderly⁷⁹. In 2007, in nineteen of the EU27 Member States more than 50 % of dependent elderly received informal care or no care⁸⁰.

Figure 4.5.3 Dependent elderly people receiving formal care, informal care or no care, 2007



Source: Authors' calculations based on the estimates provided by the European Commission's Services (EPC) and presented in *2009 Ageing Report: Economic and budgetary projections for the EU27 Member States (2008-2060)*, Table 34-Number of people receiving formal and informal or no care in the pure demographic scenario, in thousands, p. 138.

Note: Expressed as percentage of total dependent elderly population. The number of dependent older persons is estimated using dependency rates and projected population and differs from national statistics. A dependent elderly person is a person who has limitations in capacity for the activities of daily living.

⁷⁹ Informal care is a residual category made up of elderly that are not receiving institutional or formal home care.

⁸⁰ Bettio, F and Verashchagina, A (2011): *Long-term-care for the Elderly*.

The data have not been broken down by sex. However, as the report *Long-term care for the Elderly* mentions, women are and will continue to be the majority of beneficiaries in all projections, even though this gender imbalance will probably lessen in the future. Based on the latest statistics on formal provision coverage rates, in all the EU27 Member States, with the exception of Latvia and Poland, a woman is between 1.1 and 2.8 times more likely to be a beneficiary of institutional care than a man. At the same time, a woman is between 1.5 and 2.8 times more likely to be a beneficiary of formal care at home than a man⁸¹.

The report on *Access to Healthcare and long-Term Care* (2010) highlights that among elderly women there is an increased demand and use of long-term care⁸². It is women who are the main beneficiaries of long-term care (both of service in kind and benefits in cash) in the majority of the EU Member States, considering their longer life expectancy and their reliance on formal care. Women's reliance on formal care is linked to the fact that they often have no care alternatives in their household. Generally speaking, elderly women are more likely to live alone than men.

The proportion of dependent elderly people assisted by informal carers is relevant from the perspective of the harmonisation of work and family responsibilities as well as for its possible implications in terms of women's employment. Indeed, there remains a persistent imbalance in the number of women informal carers compared with men. While this pronounced female predominance in elderly care work opens up employment opportunities for women in the rapidly expanding sector of care workers and professionals, it also raises important concerns about gender equity in the labour market as well as within households⁸³.

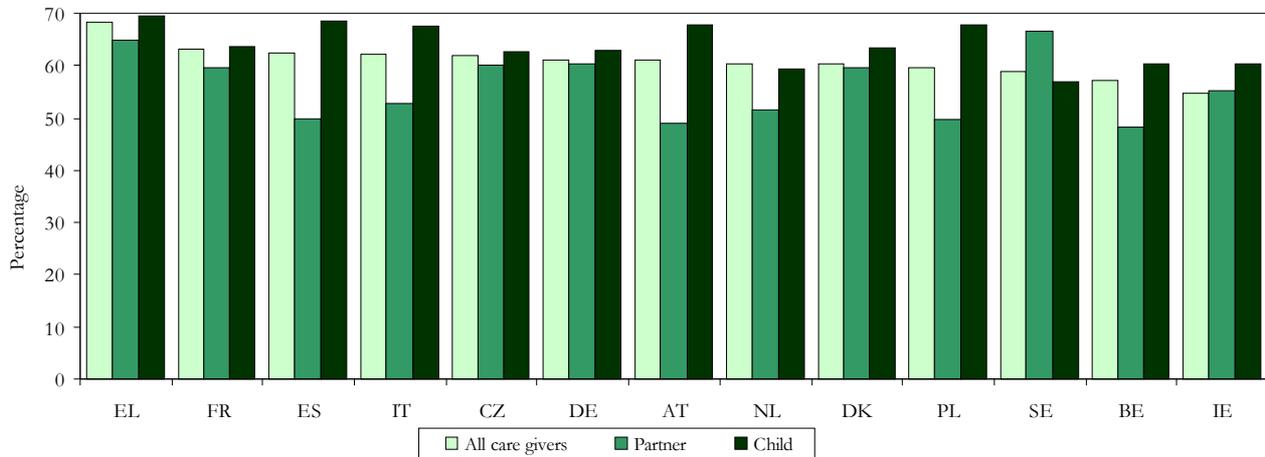
Useful data on the proportion represented by women out of all informal carers for the elderly are provided for 13 EU Member States by the SHARE survey. As Figure 4.5.4 shows, within families (or among friends) it is more likely that men will take on care responsibilities for older people than in the case of children, but women still shoulder the larger part of the burden - 61 % of informal carers are women.

⁸¹ Disproportionate representation of women among care recipients reflects higher longevity together with a steep rise in disability past the age of 70-75. It is estimated that this overrepresentation will lessen in the next fifty years if life expectancy continues to rise faster for men (Bettio and Verashchagina 2011).

⁸² Crepaldi, C., Samek Lodovici, M., Corsi, M. (2010): *Access to Healthcare and long-Term Care: Equal for Women and Men?*, p. 117. The conclusions are based on data and information collected by the national gender experts of the European Commission's Expert Group on Gender Equality and Social Inclusion, Health and Long-Term Care Issues (EGGSI).

⁸³ Bettio, F and Verashchagina, A (2011): *Long-term-care for the Elderly*.

Figure 4.5.4 Proportion of women among informal carers



Source: SHARE, surveys 2006-2007

In academic and political analysis circles, there is an ongoing and lively debate on the possible effects of dependent elderly care on women’s employment. Indeed, as stressed in Bettio and Verashchagina (2011), on the one hand, carers for the elderly tend to be relatively old themselves and only a minority are still in employment. However, on the other hand, they are a sizeable minority, and the negative impact of care time on employment can not be considered as negligible (despite being modest in comparison with childcare). National-level research and comparative econometric studies have been carried out in order to estimate the impact of elderly care on women’s labour supply. Results show a negative and statistically significant impact of care on either the probability of being employed or on hours of work. However, the size of these effects varies widely across studies and further analyses are needed.

Informal carers remain the most important group of care providers as in 19 of the 27 EU Member States, more than 50 % of dependent elderly people receive informal care or no care. Women shoulder the largest part of the burden. Indeed, even if within families (or among friends) men are more likely to take on care responsibilities for older people than for children, women still represent the majority of informal care givers (61 % of the total).

The possible effect of dependent elderly care on women's employment has been considered in several studies and continues to be debated among both academics and policy-makers. The results show a negative and statistically significant impact of care on both the probability of being employed and hours of work. The studies do not agree on the exact size of these effects.

The analysis of indicator 5 is based on the data collected by the European Commission, and they represent estimates of dependent elderly people who need care; data are presented in *The 2009 Ageing Report* and use the SHARE database and data provided by national institutions on numbers of people living in institutions. Still, these data do not address the requirements of the BPfA indicator with precision as they do not provide information broken down by sex.

4.5. INDICATOR 6. Total “tied” time per day for each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 or a dependant: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults)

INDICATOR 7. Total “tied” time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 or a dependant (as 6).

The total “tied” time to which indicators 6 and 7 refer includes working time (measured in labour force surveys as time spent in jobs that produce goods and services that are included in GDP), but also commuting time (i.e. time spent travelling to and from work), time spent in domestic activities and tasks involved in parenting or, more generally, in household duties together with the care of children and adults (unpaid work). From an employer’s perspective, time spent in commuting and in unpaid work is not considered working time. However, from the perspective of the individual, woman or man, time spent in commuting and in unpaid work is still considered work, even if it is not placed in the same category as paid work.

Data availability

Ideally, indicators 6 and 7 would provide harmonised information for the EU27 Member States on “tied” time applying to individuals in different family conditions (i.e. parents in a couple or single parents with children in specific age groups). Such information is available for 15 EU MS, with data collected in 2007, as a result of the work of the Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS). The HETUS data are not available for the other 12 EU27 Member States. The data from the new round of surveys carried out in 2009 – 2010 for the HETUS has not been made available and public at the time of writing this report.

In order to provide updated information for indicators 6 and 7, another data source was consulted. The European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) carried out in 2010 by Eurofound provided the basis for the following analysis. The EWCS (2010) database provides updated and harmonised information for all EU27 Member States, but it only partially meets the criteria appropriate for the indicator 6 and 7. The survey has a module on work-life balance with information for the EU27 Member States on the number of hours spent in paid/unpaid work and a number of unpaid activities; this information is then used to draw up an index (see Box 4.2).

BOX 4.2 – Index of the Number of Hours Spent in Paid and Unpaid Work

The index has been drawn up based on questions on the following:

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| – Working hours per week in main paid job | – Caring for children |
| – Working hours per week in other job | – Housework |
| – Commuting time | – Caring for adults |
| – Political activities and Voluntary activities | – Training and Education |

Source: EWCS

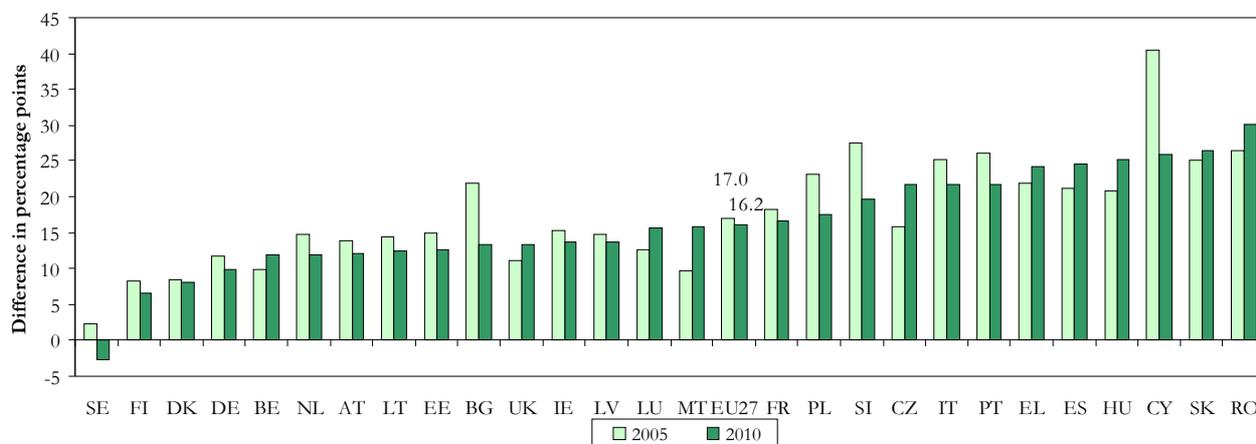
The index provides information about the percentage of individuals in each of the following categories so far as total “tied” time is concerned: less than 40 hours per week; 40-70 hours per week; more than 70 hours per week. It can be broken down by sex, age, employment status, industry/service, and type of occupation, but not by reference to family conditions (such as whether or not parents, or whether or not a couple). The data provide information only about employed persons. In addition, the on-line database does not allow cross-references to combine different breakdown criteria (for instance sex and age) that could be used as proxy indicators.

Current situation and evolution since 2008

The unequal sharing of domestic and family tasks pointed out in the French Presidency Report (2008) is confirmed by the results of the present analysis. However, any changes in the magnitude of this inequality cannot be measured, since the two reports refer to different data sources. Nonetheless, this study has drawn on EWCS data for 2005 and 2010 to provide a picture of the dynamics at play and to assess the evolution of this indicator over time.

Figure 4.8.1 shows the difference in the percentage of women and men stating that they spend more than 70 hours per week in paid and unpaid work combined. Positive values indicate that more women than men state that they spend 70 hours or more per week on paid and unpaid work, whilst negative values indicate the opposite. As Figure 4.8.1 shows, while there is still a gender imbalance, over the period from 2005 to 2010 most of the EU27 Member States experienced a significant decrease in the gender gap in total “tied” time”, as measured by the total hours per week spent in paid and unpaid work.

Figure 4.8.1 Gender gap in time use in paid and unpaid work, 2005 and 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS

Note: Difference, in percentage points, between women and men spending more than 70 hours per week in paid and unpaid work. Positive values indicate that more women than men declare to be engaged in paid and unpaid work for 70 hours or more per week, whilst negative values indicate the opposite.

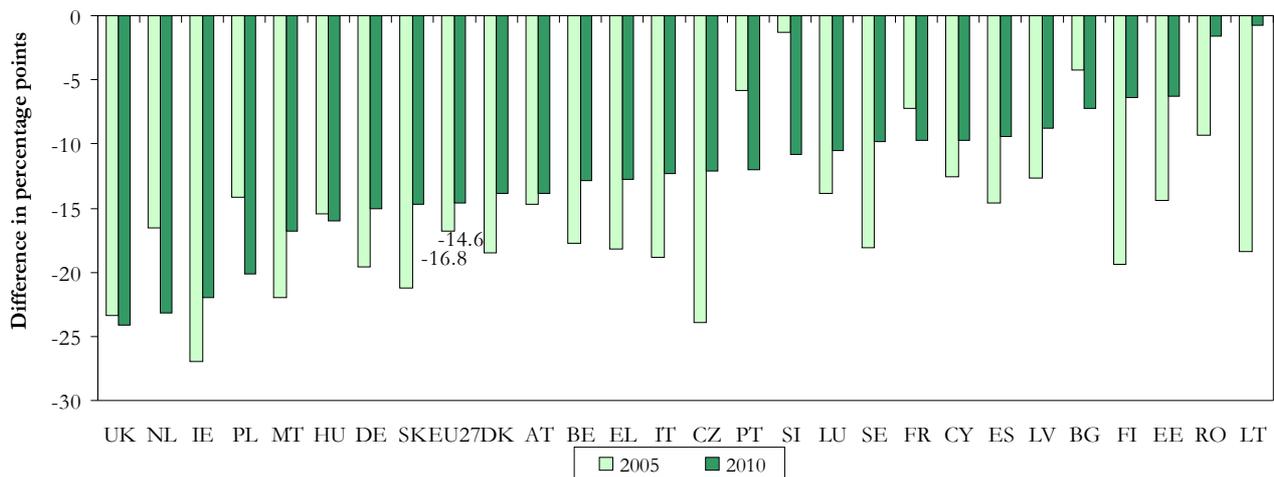
Even though the majority of individuals, both men and women, reported that they spent between 40 and 70 hours per week in paid and unpaid work on average in 2010, in all EU27 Member States, with the sole exception of Sweden⁸⁴, women were more likely to report longer “tied” time, based on the percentage of women spending more than 70 hours per week in paid and unpaid work.

The difference between the percentage of women and the percentage of men involved in paid and unpaid work for more than 70 hours per week ranged from less than 10 percentage points in Germany, Denmark, and Finland to more than 20 percentage points in nine other Member States (Czech Republic, Italy, Portugal, Greece, Spain, Hungary, Cyprus, Slovakia and Romania).

⁸⁴ Sweden is characterised by a low gender gap in employment (whether using FTE or per capita ratio as a measure) and by high parental leave take-up among fathers. These two facts could partially explain the outlier behaviour. It would nonetheless be useful to have further studies to indicate the causes of this remarkable difference more clearly.

In contrast, when the focus is restricted to time spent in paid work, the percentage of men reporting that they spent more than 70 hours per week on such work was higher than the equivalent figure for women⁸⁵. This is illustrated by Figure 4.8.2. In the latest years, this difference between men and women in spending time in paid work has also been decreasing. However, the overall picture has not changed significantly and men are still more likely to report longer hours in paid work than women.

Figure 4.8.2 Gender gap in time use in paid work, 2005 and 2010



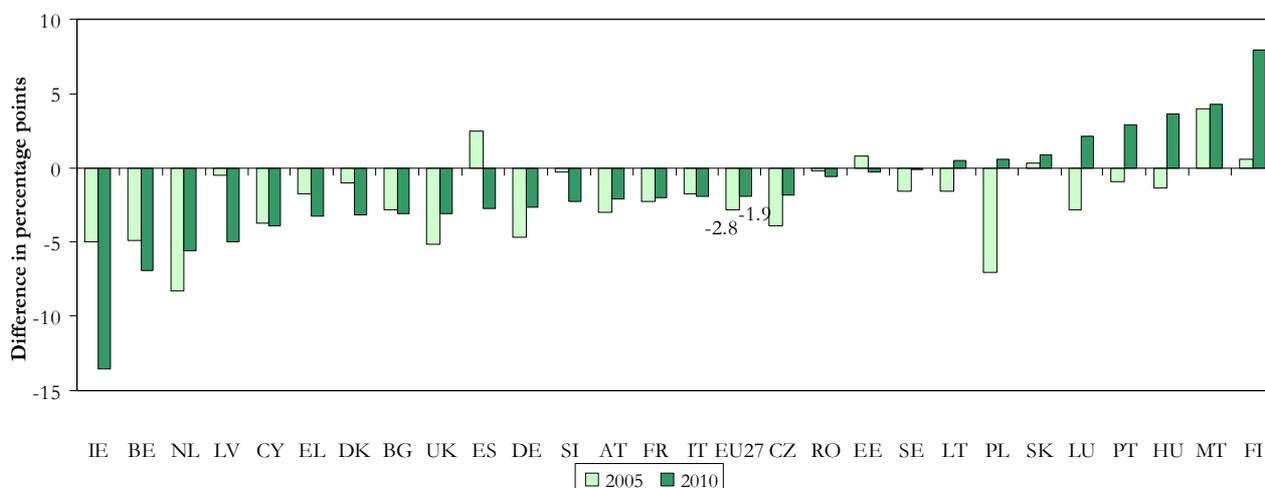
Source: Eurofound, EWCS

Note: Difference, in percentage points, between women and men spending more than 70 hours per week in paid work. Positive values indicate that more women than men declare to be engaged in paid work for 70 hours or more per week, whilst negative values indicate the opposite.

Women, with very few country exceptions, are more likely to report less time spent in commuting, i.e. travelling to work and back. Figure 4.8.3 illustrates this, showing the gender differences in travelling patterns in EU Member States.

⁸⁵ As stated previously, the figure shows the difference in the percentage of women and men. Negative values, as in the case of Figure 4.8.2 indicate that fewer women than men stated that they were engaged in paid work for 70 hours or more per week.

Figure 4.8.3 Gender gap in time use in travelling to work and back, 2005 and 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS

Note: Difference in percentage points between women and men spending more than 1 hour travelling to work and back. Positive values indicate that more women than men declare that they spend more than 1 hour travelling to work and back every day, whilst negative values indicate the opposite.

The overall general pattern in many EU Member States is that men are still more likely to work longer hours in paid employment, while women work longer hours than men when paid and unpaid working hours are combined. This situation persists even though improvements toward a more gender-balanced way of dividing responsibilities and time use has been occurring, over the years, in a number of European societies.

The combination of information about the gender gap in paid and unpaid work and in commuting time shows that there is still a marked gender gap in total “tied” time. Overall, despite some improvements towards a more gender-balanced use of time, men are still more likely to work longer hours in paid employment, while women work longer hours than men when paid and unpaid working hours are combined.

The analysis for indicator 6 and 7 was based on the data from the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) carried out in 2010. The aggregated data made available on-line are only partially compatible with the issues covered by the BPfA indicator 6 and 7. The information requested by indicator 8 and 9 is not comparable with the data collected through HETUS.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Reconciliation of work, family and private life is recognised at EU level as an important priority for achieving gender equality, increasing women's participation in the labour market, and promoting the sharing of caring responsibilities between women and men. Reconciliation is a key element for achieving one of the EU headline targets of the Europe 2020 strategy, namely to raise to 75 % the employment rate for women and men aged 20-64, which means it is necessary to give priority to addressing barriers to women's participation in the labour market and men's more active involvement in caring duties when implementing the strategy. The Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015 points out that economic independence is a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives and identifies reconciliation measures among the key actions for gender equality. The European Pact for Gender Equality (2011-2020) also stresses the importance of promoting better work-life balance for women and men throughout the life-course as to enhance equality between women and men, including ensuring that both women and men can participate in the labour market.

In recent years, significant progress can be observed towards gender equality in EU and EU27 Member States. Nevertheless, certain degree of variation among the Member States remains, in particular, gender gaps in the labour market and the distribution of care responsibilities. The analysis of data for this report demonstrates that women are still the main carers both for children and for the dependent elderly and are more likely to be involved in both paid and unpaid work compared to men in all EU27 Member States. The status of women's working life is more likely to be affected by the care needs of others, whether they are children, parents, family members or any other dependants - which can be explained by the higher take-up of parental leave and by the position of women in the labour market - for instance, a higher frequency of part-time work as well as a higher rate of inactivity for women. Patterns of inequality are reflected in various EU27 Member States policies for the improvement of women's access to, and position in, the labour market in promoting more equal sharing of caring duties and to achieve a better work-life balance. Nevertheless, the Annual Reports on Equality between Women and Men of the European Commission demonstrate that progress is slow and that *de facto* gender equality has yet to come to fruition.

The current report monitoring developments in implementing the BPfA in area F: Women and the Economy clearly proves the need for further strengthening work on a more effective monitoring system, particularly in relation to data collection and data dissemination. The monitoring process is recognised as being very important at EU level, but the limited availability of harmonised, comparable or sex-disaggregated data hampers assessment of progress. Effective monitoring requires adequate and extensive data, suited to and specifically addressing the monitoring needs.

As for the purpose of this report, the data were available for each of the indicators, but in most cases they were not as accurate, harmonised or comparable as needed for the purpose of monitoring progress. One reason is that the data provided by different ad-hoc studies are based on different methodological approaches, vary in the scope of country coverage and lack periodicity. These limitations impaired the comparison and made it difficult to observe trends and changes over time.

Given the difficulties and the cost of collecting new data, the suggested way to overcome the existing barriers is to strengthen cooperation among the key players involved in data collection. It is important to explore the possibility of taking monitoring needs into consideration when new rounds of the EU LFS ad-hoc module or of EU-SILC are launched, or when reports on topics linked to the BPfA indicators are carried out. The LFS ad-hoc module on reconciliation provides good background information and data to measure progress in the BPfA area on Women and the Economy, especially to monitor the indicators on the take up of parental leave, childcare and elderly-care provisions and flexible working time arrangements. To make monitoring more effective over time, it is important to ensure the periodic collection of data within the framework of this module. It would be also recommended to explore the possibility of using administrative data sources for monitoring purposes, for instance for indicator 2 on parental leave and on indicator 5 on elderly care for dependent elderly women and men.

Should new indicators for this area be considered, the first aspect to take into consideration is the need for a monitoring indicator to be SMART; the second is the practical requirements of carrying out the monitoring itself that are, the possibility of obtaining the required data.

5.1. Current situation in implementing the Beijing Platform for Action in area F: Women and the Economy

The indicators and descriptive statistics on the labour market situation of Member States presented in Chapter 3 of the report provided an overview of the implementation of the BPfA in the area of Women and the Economy with a special focus on the indicators for reconciliation of work, family and private life. The analysis pointed out the limits of the data availability and also the particular situation of ongoing economic crisis in the EU when data for the report were collected.

With these restrictions in mind, the analysis shows a high degree of gender inequality in the labour market, although this varies widely from one Member State to another. The percentage of women aged 20 to 64 in employment rose from 57.3 % in 2000 to 62.1 % in 2010. Men's employment rate suffered a slight decrease during the same period (from 75.8 to 75.1 % between 2000 and 2010). Only around one-third (11 countries) of EU27 Member States reached women's employment rates in 2010 above 60 % (out of women aged from 15 to 64), which was set out as the Lisbon target, and only Sweden achieved its new target for the employment rate of 75 % for women and men (age group 20 to 64) set out in the Europe 2020 strategy. The average employment rate in 2010 in the EU27 area is 68.6 % and countries like Hungary, Italy and Malta are still far below the European average. Even though an increase in women's employment rate has been observed during the last decade, the average gender gap in the employment rate in 2010 for EU27 countries is 13 percentage points, ranging from -1.5 percentage points in Lithuania to 36.3 percentage points in Malta, with ten EU Member States above the EU27 average⁸⁶. The gender gap measured in full-time equivalent is even higher (18 percentage points)⁸⁷. It shows that women are involved in part-time jobs much more often than men (in 2008, the share of women employees working part time was 31.1 % in the EU27 while the corresponding figure for men was 7.9 %⁸⁸). This difference applies to all 27 EU Member States.

⁸⁶ Eurostat, LFS

⁸⁷ EC (2010), *Employment in Europe 2010*

⁸⁸ Eurostat, LFS

There is a clear link between presence of children and women's and men's employment rates. On average, in 2009 the employment rate of women with children under 12 years of age dropped by 12 percentage points, whereas men's increased by 9.1 percentage points⁸⁹. Moreover, the employment rate for women decreases as the number of children increases in a majority of Member States⁹⁰. According to the latest European Commission's Report on Progress on Gender Equality (2011a), on average at the EU27 level almost one third of women with care responsibilities declare themselves to be either employed in part-time jobs or to be inactive due to the lack of care services for children and other dependent persons. Stronger negative consequences in terms of participation in the labour market or job losses as a result of the economic crisis characterise the most vulnerable groups of women, especially women with lower levels of education.

The reduction in the gender gap in unemployment is a consequence of the increase in men's unemployment rates in a year of economic crisis rather than the result of progress in women's participation in the labour market. In twelve EU Member States women's unemployment rate still exceeds that of men⁹¹.

Inactivity and reduced hours of work for women appear to be linked to the difficulties of reconciling work, family and private life when juggling the demands of work, children and other dependents. The way time is used according to gender reveals a higher unpaid-work load for women. Women aged 25-44 spend practically three times longer than men do on childcare per day⁹². Cuts in public expenditure for public care services can aggravate observed inequalities by increasing the workload of unpaid care activities for women who are more likely to be engaged in providing care.

The observed gender inequalities in labour market and share of paid and unpaid work are reflected in inequalities in the reconciliation of work, family and private life across Member States. The current report provides an analysis of the indicators for reconciling work, family and private life as ways of implementing the BPfA objective formulated in the area of Women and the Economy. What follows is a brief concluding overview of the situation – progress, shortcomings and challenges - on each indicator.

⁸⁹ EC (2007), *Report on equality between women and men – 2007*; EC (2011), *Report on Progress on Equality between Women and Men in 2010: The gender balance in business leadership*

⁹⁰ Eurostat, LFS.

⁹¹ Eurostat, LFS

⁹² EC (2010), *Report on equality between women and men – 2010*.

INDICATOR 1: Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) within the meaning of Directive 96/34/EC on the framework agreement between the social partners on parental leave, as a proportion of all employed parents.

INDICATOR 2: Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave.

The analysis of the allocation and take-up of parental leave covered indicator 1 and indicator 2, taking into account the new legal provisions on parental leave of Council Directive 2010/18/EU.

Over recent years, the European Commission has introduced a package of measures designed to improve the reconciliation of work, family and private life. The latest initiative in this area concerns a **new Directive on parental leave** which implements the revised framework agreement concluded in June 2009 by EU social partners. This move reflects the changes that have occurred in society and the labour market since the original Parental Leave agreement was signed in 1995, and aims to contribute to a better work-life balance as well as to promote gender equality. The right to parental leave is extended from three to four months per child for each parent; at least one of the months is not transferable to the other parent, thereby encouraging fathers to take their leave. The new legal regulation increased protection against any less-favourable treatment (not only against dismissal) for all workers in connection with parental leave. When returning from parental leave, employees can request temporary changes regarding their working hours. Governments and employers/unions are required to address the specific needs of parents of adopted children and children with a disability or long-term illness. The new rights will apply to all workers irrespective of their type of contract (fixed-term, part-time, agency workers, etc.); however, Member States have the option to maintain a qualifying period of a maximum of one year before an employee can apply for such leave. All matters regarding the income of workers during parental leave are left for Member States and/or national social partners to determine. One of the biggest advantages of the new legal provisions is that parents will be entitled to one month non-transferable right to parental leave, which provides incentives to fathers' involvement in caring duties.

Nevertheless, the provision of parental leave arrangements as a major reconciliation strategy in the majority of Member States still encounters **several shortcomings related to gender equality**. The fact that leave regulations imply by definition distance from labour market and instead facilitate care time makes these regulations sensitive to the **risk of reinforcing gender stereotypes and traditional role share** related to care and work. The data show that men's take-up of leave is a small fraction of women's take-up rates. This social role model and gender stereotypes often underlines organisational culture (Plantenga and Remery, 2005). Employers in many cases still show quite negative attitudes towards men's right to take parental leave. Both genders often suffer from unsupportive and even discriminatory organisational cultures when it comes to take-up of parental leave.

Secondly, **the duration of the leave taken up by men is in most cases shorter, thus less pronounced in terms of labour market impact**. Women are at much higher risk of experiencing negative effects on their career paths and losing earnings.

Thirdly, **women encounter many more problems at the re-employment stage**. Some of them continue on a part-time basis after returning, others are left outside the labour market. The length of leaves and take-up rates are also determined by job guarantees for employees taking up parental leave and vary according to the level of qualifications and between private and public sectors. Evidence exists that highly qualified women leave their jobs for shorter periods than women with lower qualifications. The latter also encounter more problems when they want to re-enter the labour market afterwards. The public sector seems to give women and men more security during parental leave than private labour-market sectors. Usually the time and costs associated with finding replacements, especially in smaller enterprises, are considered to be a costly affair for employers in the private sector (Plantenga and Remery, 2005).

Finally, **the lack of flexibility in the take-up of parental leave may impede women's career prospects** and the development of a more family-friendly organisational culture. Flexibility may facilitate the parallel strategy, in the sense that parents care for a child and participate in the labour market simultaneously (Plantenga and Remery, 2005). This in turn may affect a more balanced share of gender roles and more engaged fatherhood. Many countries in Europe (Iceland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, etc.) offer parents the opportunity to take up leave in periods, usually as an individual and non-transferable entitlement, instead of one person taking up the leave all at once.

The Report shows that notwithstanding the fact that there has been significant progress in the extension of parental leave in Member States, **women account for the majority of recipients of parental leave**. The proportion of all parental leave allocated to employed men as compared with that allocated to employed women is a key indicator linking the reconciliation of work, private and family life to gender equality. Data available from the OECD showed a notable variation among countries in fathers' take-up of parental leave. For example, in 2007, in Sweden there were 70 fathers to every 100 mothers taking parental leave, while in Cyprus, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary and Slovakia in there were less than 10 fathers to every 100 mothers being in parental leave.

The fathers' use of parental leave is particularly low if parental leave is organised along family lines (not as an individual and non-transferable right) and not well-paid. When data are available for the use of both paternity and parental leave, they show that **the ratio of fathers taking paternity leave is higher than for parental leave**. The data for Denmark, Finland and Sweden presented in the report on *Fathers' use of paternity and parental leave in Nordic countries* (Haataja 2009) show an increase in fathers' participation in parenting in these countries, with take-up by fathers in Sweden accounting for more than 20 % of the total maternity, paternity and parental leave taken in 2007.

The data⁹³ for 2000 and 2008 on public budgets expenditure as means to compensate for the loss of earnings provided to parents that take-up leave to care for their children (purchasing power standards (PPS) per capita) in all EU27 Member States show that in 2008 three EU Member States reduced expenditure on total parental leave (Austria, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom). In 23 out of EU27 Member States, an **increase in expenditure on parental leave** can be seen for the same period.

⁹³ Eurostat, ESSPROS

The promotion of gender equality in caring responsibilities and take-up of parental leave is likely to meet several challenges. First, policy-makers need to focus how **to ensure the break up of the existing stereotypical cycle** (more women undertaking caring responsibilities, lower career prospects, lower incomes, lesser financial impact to family income). **Attitudinal change** is another important challenge. As noted by the Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men⁹⁴, family-related leave, taken by women or men, should not be seen to adversely affect career progression (especially by men). Women should not be seen as an unstable and expensive employee pool on an incorrect assumption that they might need to take more leave than men.

As regards the **availability of data**, a huge effort has been made in collecting and disseminating information on parental leave. The overview reveals the wide diversity in parental leave in Member States in terms of the legal framework with respect to duration, payment, proportion of leave that can be transferred between parents, and a part reserved for fathers only, which makes the monitoring exercise difficult. The diverse nature of data sources (mostly-country specific studies), the lack of coverage for all 27 EU Member States, and the lack of harmonised data at EU level imposed limitations on comparability of data among Member States and monitoring of the progress in this area since 2008. The 2010 round of the EU LFS included the ad-hoc module on reconciliation, which collected information on parental leave. The data have not been available for the purpose of this report, but will be extremely helpful for the monitoring of progress in this area in the future.

INDICATOR 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 non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours); in compulsory primary education (outside school hours).

⁹⁴ European Commission's Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2010), *Opinion on flexible and part-time working arrangements and the gender dimension of the labour market*

The importance of providing affordable and good quality childcare has been recognised at EU level as an important measure to improve the reconciliation of work, family and private life, foster labour market participation and gender equality. At the Barcelona Summit in 2002, the European Council agreed that Member States should remove disincentives to female participation in the labour market and strive to provide childcare by 2010 to at least 90 % of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age and at least 33 % of children under 3 years of age. **The importance of the Barcelona targets has been reaffirmed** as recently as 2010 in the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020 of the European Council and in the Employment Guidelines adopted by the Council of the European Union. The Council of the EU in its recent conclusions (2011)⁹⁵ on Reconciliation of work and family life in the context of demographic change invites the Member States and the Commission to continue to carry out co-financed initiatives at European, national, regional and local levels in order to promote cohesion and employment opportunities for workers (including through promoting men's role in the family, equality between women and men and reconciliation of work and family life) by improving the supply of adequate, affordable, high-quality childcare services for children under the mandatory school age with a view to achieving the objectives set at the European Council in Barcelona in March 2002, taking into account the demand for childcare services and in line with national patterns of childcare provision. The importance to improve the supply of childcare services is also recognised in the Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015.

Given the current situation in terms of gender-segregated allocation of childcare within the families, progress achieved by reference to this indicator would have important implications in terms of gender equality and the economy. The data show that between 2005 and 2009 **the use of formal childcare 30 hours or more per week has increased in twenty of the 27 EU Member States**. This noticeable increase went along with a lower increase in the use of formal childcare for 1 to 29 hours per week.

⁹⁵ http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lisa/122875.pdf

Still, on EU27 average, 50 % of children under 3 years of age are cared for by parents alone, while the proportion decrease to 10 % for the children in the age group from 3 to compulsory school age. In 21 out of 27 EU Member States, over 40 % of children under 3 years of age are cared by parents alone. The highest percentage of children under 3 years cared only by the parents is to be found in Hungary, followed closely by several other EU Member States like Lithuania, Malta, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Latvia, where the percentage is over 70 %⁹⁶.

The analysis carried out confirms previous research findings and reveals **the insufficient formal childcare provision for children up to 3 years old**. In 2009 the Barcelona target set for this age group (33 % in formal childcare by 2010) had only been achieved by nine Member States (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom). In nine Member States the percentage of children under 3 years old in formal childcare services is below 10 % (Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, and Slovakia). Lack of availability of formal childcare for this age group can be detrimental to the reconciliation of work, private and family life, particularly for those women who belong to the most vulnerable groups that are more exposed to the risk of not re-entering labour market after childbearing⁹⁷.

What regards the formal childcare provisions for children between 3 and compulsory school age, by 2009, seven EU Member States like Belgium, Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Sweden, and UK, met the Barcelona target set up at 90 % for 2010. Other seven EU Member States like Cyprus, Germany, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal and Slovenia reached a coverage rate of at least 80 % in 2009. **A clear improvement in providing formal childcare services for children between 3 and compulsory school age** outside pre-school hours in the EU Member States can be noticed. Nevertheless, there still are EU Member States where the use of childcare services falls significantly short of the set target for 2010. In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Lithuania, Poland and Romania, the current use of childcare services falls short of the target by more than 20 percentage points. The childcare in these EU Member States is mostly family based and/or informal⁹⁸. **The insufficient coverage of formal childcare provision poses major obstacles to women's participation in labour market, fertility rates and social inclusion.**

⁹⁶ EU SILC

⁹⁷ EU SILC

⁹⁸ EU SILC

The situation for the use of childcare services outside of school hours by the children in compulsory primary education is similar to the use of the childcare services by the pre-school age group children. The coverage rate of use of childcare services less than 30 hours per week is close to 100 % in almost all countries.

An important issue to be raised is related to the **lack of flexibility of the services**. Flexibility in childcare facilities might refer to opening hours (during the day, week or year, during non-standard hours, during summer holiday) and to flexible use of the facility during the week or year⁹⁹. Low degree of synchronisation between formal childcare services and normal working hours brings a critical difficulty for the reconciliation of work, private and family life. This mismatch seem to occurs both when children reach the age of compulsory education and when they are in the non compulsory or equivalent pre-school system. Flexibility is particularly important for parent working atypical hours. Opportunities seem to be even more limited in this respect.

The relevance of the provision of childcare services at EU level is reflected in the effort made to collect harmonised and updated statistics in this area. The EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU SILC) provide a wide range of data and information on the use of childcare services (formal and other), which makes it possible to monitor the progress of BPfA indicator 3 in an effective, timely and consistent manner. However, two points should be mentioned in this context. First, as currently phrased, BPfA indicator 3 focuses on care arrangements “other than from the family” (which presumably excludes not only parents, but also grandparents or other relatives living in the same household). However, this is not feasible when the aggregated EU SILC data are used, since they provide information for “other type of childcare arrangements”; which combines childcare offered by grandparents and other household members (other than parents) with those provided by professional child-minders. This mismatch between EU SILC aggregated categories and the definition of the indicator poses an obstacle for an accurate monitoring exercise.

⁹⁹ Plantenga J. and Remery C., (2009), *The Provision of Childcare Services. A comparative review of 30 European countries*

In addition, the EU SILC data cover “other types” of childcare arrangements. However, it is not possible to verify if other types of childcare are used in combination with formal childcare precisely to cover the hours outside school or outside pre-school. Despite these limitations, the data provided by EU SILC provide solid evidence for monitoring the implementation of the BPfA indicator in the area of childcare.

INDICATOR 4: Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life for both men and women.

Among the policies assessed for the analysis of indicator 4, an increase in childcare supply was observed, including reform of childcare benefits, as in Austria and Germany, and changes in the design or introduction of parental and paternity leave. Given the persistence of gender inequality in the take-up of parental leave highlighted by the data and analysis for indicator 2, it is particularly important to stress the efforts made by Finland, Portugal and UK to introduce incentives for fathers in taking parental or paternity leave.

It is important to subject the policies enacted by several Member States during the economic crisis to gender assessment since cuts in public care service provision or in child benefits and parental/paternity/maternity leave can make it more difficult for carers to reconcile the demands of family and work with a higher unpaid workload, further reinforcing gender inequality on the labour market and in the use of time.

Indicator 4 needs further consideration and interpretation. One observation is that the way the indicator was conceived does not match the so-called SMART criteria, which every monitoring indicator should follow. In other words, the indicator is not at the same time: Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant, and Time-bound. The lack of these characteristics can translate into additional difficulties for the monitoring exercise, since the data sources are mainly qualitative and as such more difficult to compare and harmonise. A second observation is that comparison of progress over time could be difficult in some cases. Nonetheless, even with these caveats in mind, assessment of the progress of reconciliation policies is extremely relevant in the context of monitoring the implementation of the BPfA indicators.

Several dimensions common to all countries could be identified to facilitate the monitoring of the indicator: *major legislative developments* in the areas of childcare and elderly care provision, parental leave and flexible work arrangements, the *policy framework* for the reconciliation of work, family and private life and *financial resources* allocated to the implementation of the policy framework.

INDICATOR 5: Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75: living in specialised institutions; who have help (other than the family) at home; looked after by the family, as a proportion of men and women over 75.

The information requested by indicator 5 refers to another aspect of the reconciliation of work, family and private life, the care for elderly, especially dependent elderly. The three aspects mentioned in the formulation of indicator 5 make reference to the different types of care provided to the dependent elderly by the main institutions of society: state, market and family. Formal care for the dependent elderly can be provided by all three of these institutions, and depend on the way they are regulated; informal care is provided mainly by the family, be it by spouse; children, relatives, or sometimes neighbours, or by undeclared workers,, mainly migrant women.

This aspect of care for elderly people is not subject to any legislation at EU level. Still, it has started to gain importance in terms of policy in relation to other areas in which the EU has faced challenges recently. As mentioned in this report, aging populations in EU Member States raise several issues to be addressed in EU policy, including the sustainability of pension systems and of the health systems that have to address the needs of an aging population. Increasing the minimum age for pensions, reforms in the health sector, inclusion and lifelong learning programmes for older people to maintain them in the labour market are some of the main policy lines that EU is moving along.

On these lines, the subject of care for the elderly, especially the dependent elderly; has gained relevance and importance at EU level. The availability of comparable data on this topic; which made possible the analysis in the present report, accentuates this importance and shows the progress made in this area. Another point to be mentioned here is that recent research and analysis shows men's involvement in care activities for elderly in much higher proportions compared to their involvement in care for children¹⁰⁰. Of course, there are variations in the type of involvement and between EU Member States, but overall, **men are among the providers of care for elderly or dependent elderly.**

This happens when **the vast majority of care for the dependent elderly is provided by the family** (spouse, children, relatives) or friends or close neighbours. This is the conclusion of the current report's analysis based on collected and available data for the EU27 Member States¹⁰¹. The estimated average rate of dependent elderly people receiving formal care in institutions in the EU27 is around 14 %. Only in Sweden and Denmark does this estimated rate exceed 30 %¹⁰². Formal care provided at home is also rare, as the estimated rate of the dependent elderly receiving formal care at home in the EU27 is 27 %. The remainder of the estimated numbers of dependent elderly people in need of care rely on informal care (which is mostly family) or no care.

Based on this conclusion, it is clear that the care needs of elderly people that are addressed within the family may come as a burden and need to be balanced with work responsibilities, in the situation of working carers.

The second conclusion that stands out from the available data and research is that **women are the main receivers of long-term care in the majority of EU Member States** due to their longer life expectancy combined with the shorter percentage of their lives spent in good health¹⁰³. As they tend to live longer than men, but become ill much earlier, and are widows or alone in the majority of cases, **women also need to rely on formal care** as they often have no alternatives in their households¹⁰⁴. Therefore, policies that regulate the organisation and accessibility of formal long-term care mainly address women and should take this gender dimension into consideration when being designed. The affordability of formal long-term care and its accessibility to women represents another topic that needs to be addressed in the future policies.

¹⁰⁰ Bettio, F. and Verashchagina, a. (2011), *Long-term-care for the Elderly*.

¹⁰¹ EC (2009), *The 2009 Ageing Report*

¹⁰² EC (2009), *The 2009 Ageing Report*

¹⁰³ EC (2010), *Access to Healthcare and Long-Term Care: Equal for Women and Men?*

¹⁰⁴ EC (2010), *Access to Healthcare and Long-Term Care: Equal for Women and Men?*

The third conclusion of the analysis presented in the current report reflects the gender-segregated nature of care work for the dependent elderly, be it formal or informal. **Care work is carried out mainly by women**, especially the 40s and 50s age group¹⁰⁵. These care responsibilities that women of this age category are more likely to take up affect their capacity to reconcile work, family and private life. It has been shown that women are more likely than men to leave their jobs in order to take up unpaid work caring for dependent elderly people or to look for possibilities to take flexible work or part-time work. The impact of elderly-care responsibilities has not yet been clearly established by research. Still, the loss of employment of women with care responsibilities for dependent elderly people is generally estimated to be around 10 %¹⁰⁶. The nature of the relationship between paid work and care differs for men and women and also between countries with different labour markets; opportunities to combine part-time paid work with informal care responsibilities are not evenly distributed between women and men, nor across the EU. Thus working-age women with heavy care responsibilities are much less likely to be in paid work in Southern European countries than in Western European and Scandinavian countries¹⁰⁷.

The current policy initiatives of involving older women or keeping them in the labour market need to take into account the care responsibilities faced by this category of women and consider measures that can support them in balancing their responsibilities, either by developing formal care services or/and by encouraging men to become even more involved in this type of responsibilities. At EU level, there has been little research as to the regulations of working time arrangements and leave arrangements for care for elderly and other dependents¹⁰⁸.

¹⁰⁵ Eurostat (2009), *Reconciliation between work, private and family life in the European Union*; Eurofound (2010) *Second European Quality of Life Survey. Overview*

¹⁰⁶ Bettio, F. and Verashchagina, a. (2011), *Long-term-care for the Elderly*.

¹⁰⁷ Glendinning, C. and all (2009), *Care Provision within Families and its Socio-Economic Impact on Care Providers*

¹⁰⁸ A good resource in this sense is provided by Bettio, F. and Verashchagina, a. (2011), *Long-term-care for the Elderly* that based on the data and information provided by the national gender experts put together a table on leave and flexi time provisions to care for older persons in all EU27 Member States plus the acceding countries (Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, and Turkey). See Table A4, pp. 119- 122.

Progress has been made in terms of data collected and availability for all EU27 Member States. The shortcoming is that the data are not sex-disaggregated, and this makes it difficult to respond to the requests of monitoring indicator 5 as formulated. Another shortcoming is the age category of dependent elderly people collected in most of the data sets at EU level that take 65 and over as the minimum age. Indicator 5 proposes to look at dependent elderly people over 75 years old. This situation may cause problems for analysis of the available data. A possible solution to this problem is the recommendation to use different age categories when collecting sex-disaggregated data on elderly persons.

The emergency needs for the reconciliation of work, family and private life especially for women's working life in the later phase of their careers, since they are more likely to be informal carers, have to be reconsidered and addressed in the policy initiatives regulating working times and leave policies. In addition, Member States need to address the development of diverse forms of elderly-care which will improve equal opportunities and increase women's presence in the labour market.

INDICATOR 6: Total “tied” time per day of each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependant: paid working time; travelling time; basic time spent on domestic work; other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults)

INDICATOR 7: Total “tied” time per day for each employed single parent, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent (as 6)

Discussions at EU level over recent years have focused on making working time more flexible and facilitating shorter working hours, both as a way to make jobs available to more citizens and (increasingly) to reconcile work, family and private life. Working long hours has been, and remains, mostly a male phenomenon: 18 % of men in the EU27 work long hours, compared with 8 % of women¹⁰⁹. Shorter hours are primarily a female phenomenon, with 20 % of employed women working fewer than 20 hours per week, as against 7 % of male workers. The prevalence of short working hours varies considerably between countries, reflecting cultural differences with regard to part-time work as well as such factors as the availability of care services and school-opening hours¹¹⁰.

¹⁰⁹ Eurofound (2010), EWCS

¹¹⁰ Eurofound (2010), EWCS

The main aim of gathering information for indicator 6 and 7 is to see how domestic tasks are distributed among parents, women/men, in couples/alone in order to reflect upon the time left for employed people to spend time with their families. The EU Member States are not obliged to collect information on this subject. Still, the EU encourages the Member States to collect such information and to participate in the time-use surveys¹¹¹.

The data available from the EWCS 2010 survey do not provide information as to the social status of the parents (being in a couple or raising alone the child/children) or the age group of the children found in care. Furthermore, the available data do not permit an in-depth analysis comparable with the one provided by the French Presidency Report (2008).

At the level of data available from Eurofound EWCS (2010), the following conclusions may be drawn from the analysis: women have a higher work-load when both paid and unpaid work is taken into account; men work longer hours in paid work compared to women and spend more time in commuting, while women choose to live closer to work, as more of them take on care responsibilities both for children and the elderly, and spend less time commuting.

¹¹¹ Eurostat has developed guidelines to harmonise the European survey on time use.

In recent years within the EU27 Member States, progress has been made both in terms of women's participation in the paid labour market and policies designed to facilitate the reconciliation of work, family and private life. The data on time use reflected in indicator 8 and 9 and on the take-up of parental leave by employed men and women (indicator 2) and care work for the elderly (indicator 5) show that the situation is still critical in the implementation of BPfA so far as area F is concerned. In spite of all the progress made in promoting policies to advance women on the labour market, at the same time, women are still the ones who have to find ways to reconcile work and family responsibilities as they are the ones shouldering both childcare and care for elderly people or other dependents. Men's involvement in care responsibilities, both for childcare and elderly care, has increased in the last years, especially in some EU Member States. But men still work longer hours, travel more and spend their time on different domestic activities than women.

EU Member States therefore need to find ways to increase provision of childcare and elderly services and reform the paid parental and paternity leave that encourages men to participate more in care work

Table 5.1 Summary table on the current status of the BPfA Indicators in the area F: Women in the Economy

BPfA Indicators	"as it is" or proxy	Source	Strengths	Weaknesses	Evolution from 2005 (French Report):		Suggestions
					Content	Data availability	
INDICATOR 2 - Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave	PROXY. Ratio of fathers to mothers using their entitlement to leave, (2007), fourteen EU MS. Father's share of total maternity, paternity and parental leave benefit for three Nordic EU MS (1997 and 2007) Allocation of parental leave between men and women	OECD (2007) Haataja (2009) GHK (2011)	<i>Ad hoc</i> studies: wide effort in collecting existing evidence at the EU level (EGGE, EGGSI, EUROSTAT, GHK) and beyond (EU MS, OECD). Good knowledge of the situation in term of policies to promote PL.	No continuity with previous efforts on take up Lack of harmonised data on take up	Still female dominated parental leave take up rate Nordic countries show an increase in father's participation in parenting	The <u>same level</u> of harmonised information <u>is not</u> available.	Strengthening cooperation among key actors in data collection (administrative data, EU LFS ad hoc module, other survey at the EU level). Improve access to micro data collected. Strengthening the dialogue with other international institutions in order to improve the effectiveness of existing experiences.
INDICATOR 3. Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group	a) Children before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day); b) Children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours); c) Children in compulsory primary education (outside school hours)	EUSILC	Availability of harmonised and updated data on childcare services Good level of knowledge of the situation	Slight misalignemnt between the categories to which the indicator focuses on and the categories in the SILC database For instance: a) the BPfA indicator 3 focuses on care arrangements "other than by the family", while EU SILC aggregated data provide information for "other type of childcare arrangements" (=offered by grandparents and other household members + professional child-minder). b) Difficulty in isolating the use of childcare outside pre- school and school hours	Children before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day): overall increase in the use of formal childcare services, but still far from reaching the Barcelona target . Since the time of the French report only two additional countries met the Barcelona criterion, adding up to nine countries out of the EU27 MS. Children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours): the use of formal childcare for longer hours has been characterized by a positive trend in twenty of EU27 MS. Children in compulsory primary education (outside school hours): there was an increase in the use of childcare service for 30 hours or more per week between 2005 and 2009 in seventeen EU MS.	<u>Same level</u> of harmonized and updated data on the use of childcare at the EU level	The monitoring exercise would benefit from an additional effort to ensure a better match of the EU SILC aggregated categories to the monitoring needs. In particular: i) Re-phrasing by putting 'parents' instead of 'family' (if this is in line with the aim of the Indicator); ii) Instead of using proxy, explore the possibility to use micro data or introduce slight modification in the EU SILC questionnaire

BPfA Indicators	"as it is" or proxy	Source	Strengths	Weaknesses	Evolution from 2005 (French Report):		Suggestions
					Content	Data availability	
INDICATOR 4 - Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life	Reconciliation policies Public transfers Policies to support female employment or entrepreneurship Activation policies Other gender specific policies	ESSPRO S MISSOC EGGE (2010a and 2010b) GHK, (2011). National Plans	Availability of extensive information on policies in several sources	Risk of lack of continuity. For the way the indicator is phrased and conceived, it doesn't match the so-called SMART criteria (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant, and Time-bound)	A remarkable effort is visible: i) to improve access to childcare through increased offer of childcare facilities as well as increased childcare benefits; ii) to promote the use of paternity and parental leave; and iii) to promote female labour force participation and female entrepreneurship. Particular attention needs to be paid to the possible effects of the crisis - and of measures adopted in response to the crisis.	<u>Same</u> sources of information, rich and meticulous	It is not a measure of outcome. This is a tool to (directly or indirectly) promote WLB. To be inserted at the bottom of the BPfA indicators' list.
INDICATOR 5 - Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75: – living in specialised institutions, - who have help (other than the family) at home, – looked after by the family, as a proportion of men and women over 75	PROXY Dependent elderly receiving formal care and informal or no care, 2007 (% of total elderly)	Ageing Report (2009)	Increased availability of adequate and harmonised data Increasing attention and efforts at the EU level	Data are not sex-disaggregated. Risk of no continuity. No comparable with the past. Misalignment with the need of the BPfA indicator (gender/age). Data are the result of an ad-hoc effort made by the European Commission and are not available as an easy-to-access and constantly updated database.	The percentage of dependent elderly receiving care in institutions is less than 10% in nine of the EU27 MS. Countries with a low use of care in institutions are also characterized by low use of formal care at home. Overall, informal care givers, namely family and friends, remain the most important group of providers. Women still shoulder the larger part of the burden	<u>More detailed and harmonised</u> information is available for all EU27 MS	Work in close cooperation with EU: - to ensure continuity to the existing efforts (see Ageing Report) ; - to use the existing data with a gender perspective . Improve access to micro data collected (SHARE)
INDICATOR 8- Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependant: – paid working time, – travelling time, – basic time spent on domestic work, – other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent . INDICATOR 9 - Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent (as 8).	PROXY. Percentage of women and men spending more than 70 hours per week in paid and unpaid work (gender gap in p.p.). Percentage of women and men spending more than 70 hours per week in paid work (gender gap in p.p.). Percentage of women and men spending more than 1 hour travelling to work and back (gender gap in p.p.)	EWCS	Consolidated attention to the topic. Latest round of data collection was in 2010	Less disaggregated information publicly available. Data on the website are available only at aggregated level. No comparable with the past (different statistics). Misalignment with the need of the BPfA indicator.	A still clear gender unbalance, but between 2005 and 2010, most of the EU27 MS experienced a significant decrease in the gender gap in the total "tied time", as measured by the total hours per week spent in paid and unpaid work. In 2010, still in all EU27 countries, with the only exception of Sweden, women were more likely to report longer "tied" time, as measured by the percentage of women spending more than 70 hours per week in paid and unpaid work.	<u>More extended coverage</u> (all EU27 MS) <u>but less disaggregated information</u> publicly available	Balance the need to be specific with the availability of information (given the overall complexity of the monitoring exercise). Further explore the availability of disaggregated data (EWCS)

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Additional Tables for Chapter 3 – Labour Market Outcomes

Table A1.1: Employment rate by sex and number of children (age group 25 to 49), 2010

	Men				Women			
	Without children	1 child	2 children	3 children or more	Without children	1 child	2 children	3 children or more
EU27	80.6	87.7	90.9	85.6	78.6	72.0	69.1	54.5
BE	80.9	89.8	93.4	87.8	79.4	76.4	78.0	62.2
BG	80.6	87.1	87.4	67.0	78.5	76.6	74.4	44.3
CZ	87.0	92.9	96.3	89.1	85.4	68.3	68.5	52.6
DE	82.8	90.7	92.7	86.5	83.7	77.2	72.4	53.0
EE	71.9	81.9	83.7	86.1	83.6	77.3	69.5	56.3
IE	73.9	77.6	82.0	79.8	81.5	68.2	61.5	49.1
EL	84.8	91.7	95.5	93.3	70.0	62.5	59.7	54.4
ES	72.2	80.2	84.8	75.4	73.2	64.2	60.2	48.9
FR	82.2	90.0	93.1	90.0	80.4	78.6	77.8	59.0
IT	79.5	87.7	91.1	87.3	67.3	59.5	53.4	40.3
CY	82.5	92.1	94.6	93.1	82.5	76.3	78.3	68.0
LV	68.6	77.5	82.7	77.7	75.9	77.0	75.8	61.6
LT	65.1	81.8	83.7	77.0	77.5	81.7	79.3	66.9
LU	88.4	92.1	95.2	93.0	83.7	74.4	70.8	52.6
HU	77.6	83.6	85.7	74.5	78.2	65.0	65.5	38.6
MT	85.2	92.9	95.5	89.0	70.5	49.6	37.4	29.6
NL	88.3	93.7	95.8	93.5	86.6	79.8	81.4	71.3
AT	87.0	92.5	93.5	90.5	85.2	82.1	77.3	60.0
PL	78.9	88.4	91.4	88.7	79.0	75.1	71.1	62.8
PT	78.0	89.4	90.9	87.0	78.2	77.5	75.5	66.6
RO	78.2	82.7	85.5	76.6	71.4	72.2	67.4	52.0
SI	82.8	91.4	94.0	90.4	80.3	85.5	89.2	79.5
SK	78.5	89.3	90.7	84.3	80.2	69.7	69.4	53.2
FI	79.9	89.1	92.4	88.7	84.0	77.0	83.0	67.4
UK	83.3	89.6	91.7	82.9	84.0	75.1	71.8	48.6

Source: Eurostat , LFS.

Note: Children include all those aged less than 15 as well as young people aged 15 to 24 if they are economically inactive and live with their father and/or mother (e.g. students at home). EU27: excluding Denmark and Sweden.

Table A1.2 - Employment rate by sex and nationality in EU MS (age group 20 to 64), 2010

EU27 MS	Men				Women				Gender Gap			
	Declaring country	Foreign country	Foreigners of which		Declaring country	Foreign country	Foreigners of which		Declaring country	Foreign country	Foreigners of which	
			Citizens of EU27 except decla- ring country	Citizens of count- ries outside the EU27			Citizens of EU27 except decla- ring country	Citizens of count- ries outside the EU27			Citizens of count- ries outside the EU27	Citizens of EU27 except decla- ring country
EU27	75.3	72.1	77.7	68.8	62.8	53.9	63.0	48.5	12.5	18.2	14.7	20.3
BE	74.4	65.8	71.2	53.5	63.1	48.2	58.4	28.1	11.3	17.6	12.8	25.4
BG	69.1	:	:	:	61.8	:	:	:	7.3	:	:	:
CZ	79.5	90.0	91.4	88.4	60.9	62.4	63.7	61.2	18.6	27.6	27.7	27.2
DK	79.5	71.6	79.2	66.3	74.3	58.1	74.1	50.6	5.2	13.5	5.1	15.7
DE	81.1	71.7	78.7	67.4	71.9	50.8	62.8	44.3	9.2	20.9	15.9	23.1
EE	69.7	59.7	:	59.5	67.6	56.2	:	55.8	2.1	3.5	:	3.7
IE	69.4	69.3	71.5	63.6	60.9	57.2	60.3	49.4	8.5	12.1	11.2	14.2
EL	75.6	82.4	81.4	82.6	51.5	54.5	59.6	52.8	24.1	27.9	21.8	29.8
ES	70.2	62.7	65.7	61.3	55.7	56.4	55.1	56.9	14.5	6.3	10.6	4.4
FR	74.2	67.8	76.2	62.8	66.4	43.8	61.4	34.6	7.8	24.0	14.8	28.2
IT	72.0	81.7	83.6	81.0	49.1	53.6	61.5	49.5	22.9	28.1	22.1	31.5
CY	84.4	74.4	83.2	56.3	66.7	74.5	66.8	82.3	17.7	-0.1	16.4	-26.0
LV	66.9	57.4	:	57.2	66.8	54.6	:	54.5	0.1	2.8	:	2.7
LT	63.7	:	:	:	65.2	:	:	:	-1.5	:	:	:
LU	77.0	81.8	82.2	77.3	59.8	64.5	66.7	45.2	17.2	17.3	15.5	32.1
HU	66.0	69.4	76.1	59.0	55.0	59.0	66.7	40.4	11.0	10.4	9.4	18.6
MT	77.8	71.4	:	:	41.1	49.4	:	:	36.7	22.0	:	:
NL	83.3	72.3	81.9	65.5	71.7	53.8	69.6	41.4	11.6	18.5	12.3	24.1
AT	81.0	74.7	80.7	71.2	71.2	58.7	67.3	52.7	9.8	16.0	13.4	18.5
PL	71.6	70.5	:	78.1	57.7	55.3	:	51.8	13.9	15.2	:	26.3
PT	75.3	77.9	78.9	77.8	65.8	62.4	61.9	62.5	9.5	15.5	17.0	15.3
RO	70.8	:	:	:	55.9	:	:	:	14.9	:	:	:
SI	73.9	76.8	:	76.3	66.8	40.9	:	40.0	7.1	35.9	:	36.3
SK	71.9	84.5	82.0	:	57.5	:	:	:	14.4	:	:	:
FI	74.7	67.3	76.5	61.3	72.1	49.8	69.1	39.0	2.6	17.5	7.4	22.3
SE	82.6	69.4	81.5	58.7	77.5	52.0	70.4	37.4	5.1	17.4	11.1	21.3
UK	79.4	79.7	85.5	74.8	68.6	61.0	70.5	52.9	10.8	18.7	15.0	21.9

Source: Eurostat, LFS.

Note: (:) = not available.

Table A1.3. Unemployment rate by sex and nationality in EU MS (age group 20 to 64), 2010

EU27 MS	Men				Women				Gender Gap			
	Declaring country	Foreign country	Foreigners of which		Declaring country	Foreign country	Foreigners of which		Declaring country	Foreign country	Foreigners of which	
			Citizens of count- ries outside the EU27	Citizens of EU27 except decla- ring country			Citizens of count- ries outside the EU27	Citizens of EU27 except decla- ring country			Citizens of count- ries outside the EU27	Citizens of EU27 except decla- ring country
EU27	8.7	16.4	19.6	11	8.7	16.2	19.1	12.2	0	-0.2	-0.5	1.2
BE	7	15.7	28	10.5	7.4	17.1	34.6	11.4	0.4	1.4	6.6	0.9
BG	10.6	:	:	:	9.2	:	:	:	-1.4	:	:	:
CZ	6.2	2.7	:	3.4	8.3	7.4	6.9	7.8	2.1	4.7	:	4.4
DK	7.2	15.2	19.1	:	5.5	13.1	15.7	:	-1.7	-2.1	-3.4	0
DE	6.8	14.3	17.7	8.9	5.9	12.6	15.1	9.2	-0.9	-1.7	-2.6	0.3
EE	16.5	30.6	31.1	:	11.7	27.6	28.2	:	-4.8	-3	-2.9	:
IE	16.2	19.6	17.7	20.3	8.4	13.4	13.7	13.4	-7.8	-6.2	-4	-6.9
EL	9.4	13.9	14.6	9.4	16.2	15.2	15.5	14.2	6.8	1.3	0.9	4.8
ES	16.8	31.7	34.2	26.1	18.6	26.7	27.1	25.7	1.8	-5	-7.1	-0.4
FR	8.1	15	20.2	6.6	8.7	19.9	27.1	10.3	0.6	4.9	6.9	3.7
IT	7	9.8	10.5	8	9	12.9	13	12.8	2	3.1	2.5	4.8
CY	5.1	10.4	15.6	8.6	6.2	6.6	2.7	10.9	1.1	-3.8	-12.9	2.3
LV	19.4	30.2	30.5	:	14.7	20.5	20.7	:	-4.7	-9.7	-9.8	:
LT	21.2	:	:	:	14.3	:	:	:	-6.9	:	:	:
LU	2.1	5.1	:	4.7	3.3	6.9	:	6	1.2	1.8	:	1.3
HU	11.5	:	:	:	10.6	:	:	:	-0.9	:	:	:
MT	6	:	:	:	6	:	:	:	0	:	:	:
NL	3.8	9.6	13.7	:	3.8	8.8	12.2	6	0	-0.8	-1.5	:
AT	3.9	7.9	10	4.4	3.4	7.8	8.5	7.2	-0.5	-0.1	-1.5	2.8
PL	9.2	:	:	:	9.9	:	:	:	0.7	:	:	:
PT	9.8	16.7	17.4	:	11.8	20.7	20.5	:	2	4	3.1	:
RO	7.9	:	:	:	6.6	:	:	:	-1.3	:	:	:
SI	7.4	10.7	11	:	6.9	:	:	:	-0.5	:	:	:
SK	13.9	:	:	:	14.2	:	:	:	0.3	:	:	:
FI	8.2	19.7	23.8	:	6.5	18.5	26.2	:	-1.7	-1.2	2.4	:
SE	7	16.7	25	8.5	6.4	19.6	30.9	9.8	-0.6	2.9	5.9	1.3
UK	7.6	7.9	9.7	6	5.6	8.9	11	7	-2	1	1.3	1

Source: Eurostat, LFS.

Note: (:) = not available. (a) year 2008

Appendix 2 – Additional graphs and Tables for Chapter 4 - Review of the BPfA indicators on reconciliation of work, family and private life

INDICATOR 2

Table A2.1 Expenditure on family/children function benefits in PPS per inhabitant, 2008

Country code	EU27	BE	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK
Total	523	597	139	293	1147	812	302	1038	367	386	667	320	495	198	292	2733	462	244	599	878	104	251	179	406	267	869	917	485
Cash benefits	355	484	108	256	453	586	288	930	252	166	532	183	425	165	231	2271	369	215	244	711	104	159	110	292	242	446	458	333
Income maintenance benefit in the event of childbirth	47	43	31	35	165	15	168	59	38	50	42	48	32	31	36	153	22	7	0	43	6	42	7	27	15	142	214	105
Birth grant	5	10	4	9	0	0	5	0	10	30	9	0	5	9	5	25	4	0	0	0	7	0	1	0	6	2	0	1
Parental leave benefit	26	0	24	155	4	74	17	0	14	5	31	0	8	69	110	101	99	0	0	0	27	0	31	81	68	55	0	0
Family or child allowance	257	430	45	34	276	475	76	557	139	46	441	113	221	43	69	1651	225	194	237	628	49	106	71	172	143	227	224	225
Other cash benefit	20	1	4	24	9	21	22	314	52	36	9	21	159	13	10	339	19	15	7	39	14	12	0	13	11	20	19	3
Benefits in kind	168	113	31	37	694	226	14	107	115	220	135	137	69	32	62	463	93	28	354	167	0	92	69	114	25	423	459	151
Child day care	81	19	10	0	471	127	0	0	42	149	0	44	0	16	14	374	18	1	152	119	0	65	65	107	0	283	305	84
Accommodation	19	10	1	24	159	0	10	102	10	25	0	21	0	14	18	9	27	7	0	37	0	9	2	4	14	83	84	47
Home help	10	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	203	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	25	3
Other benefits in kind	58	44	21	12	64	98	4	5	63	45	132	73	68	3	27	79	49	21	0	11	0	18	2	3	10	54	44	18

Source: Eurostat, ESSPROS

Note:

Income maintenance benefit in the event of childbirth: flat-rate or earnings-related payments intended to compensate the protected person for the loss of earnings due to absence from work in connection with childbirth for the period before and/or after confinement or in connection with adoption. The benefit may also be paid to the father.

Birth grant: benefits normally paid as a lump sum or by instalments in case of childbirth or adoption.

Parental leave benefit: benefit paid to either mother or father in case of interruption of work or reduction of working time in order to bring up a child, normally of young age.

Family or child allowance: periodical payments to a member of a household with dependent children to help with the costs of raising children.

Other cash benefits: benefits paid independently of family allowances to support households and help them meet specific costs, such as costs arising from the specific needs of lone parent families or families with handicapped children. These benefits may be paid periodically or as a lump-sum.

Child day care: shelter and board provided to pre-school children during the day or part of the day. The age limit for pre-school is defined by national legislation. Financial assistance towards the payment of a nurse to look after children during the day is also included here. Child day care services provided by the employer should not be taken into account.

Accommodation: shelter and board provided to children and families on a permanent basis (such as in nursing homes and foster families).

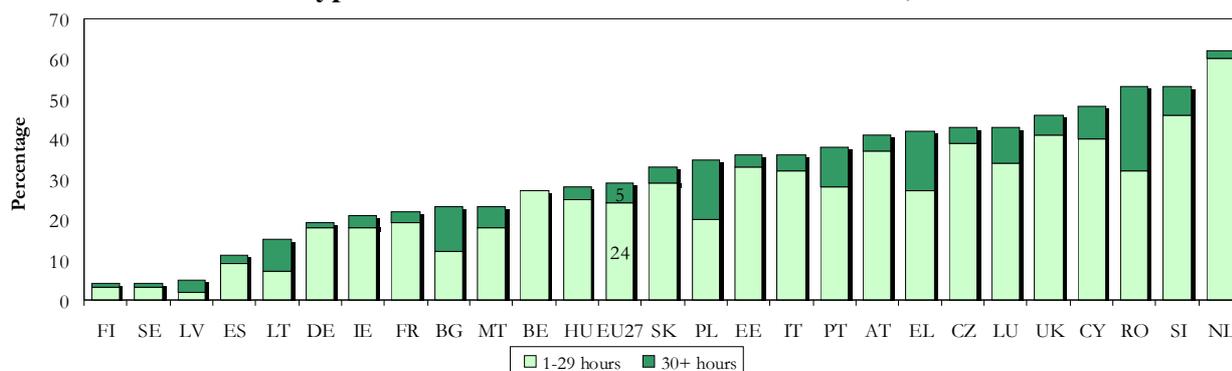
Home help: goods and services provided at home to children and/or to those who care for them.

Other benefits in kind: miscellaneous goods and services provided to families, young people or children (holiday and leisure centres), including reductions in prices, tariffs, fares and so on for children or large families, where expressly granted for social protection. This category also includes family planning services.

INDICATOR 3

Children in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours)

Figure A3.1. Proportion of children between 3 and the minimum compulsory school age in other types of childcare 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2009

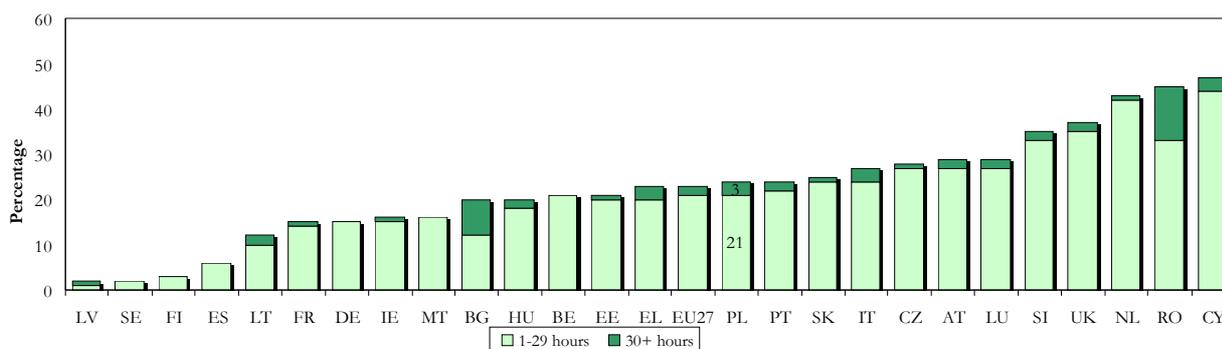


Source: EU SILC

Note: Data on Denmark are not available

Children in compulsory primary education (outside school hours)

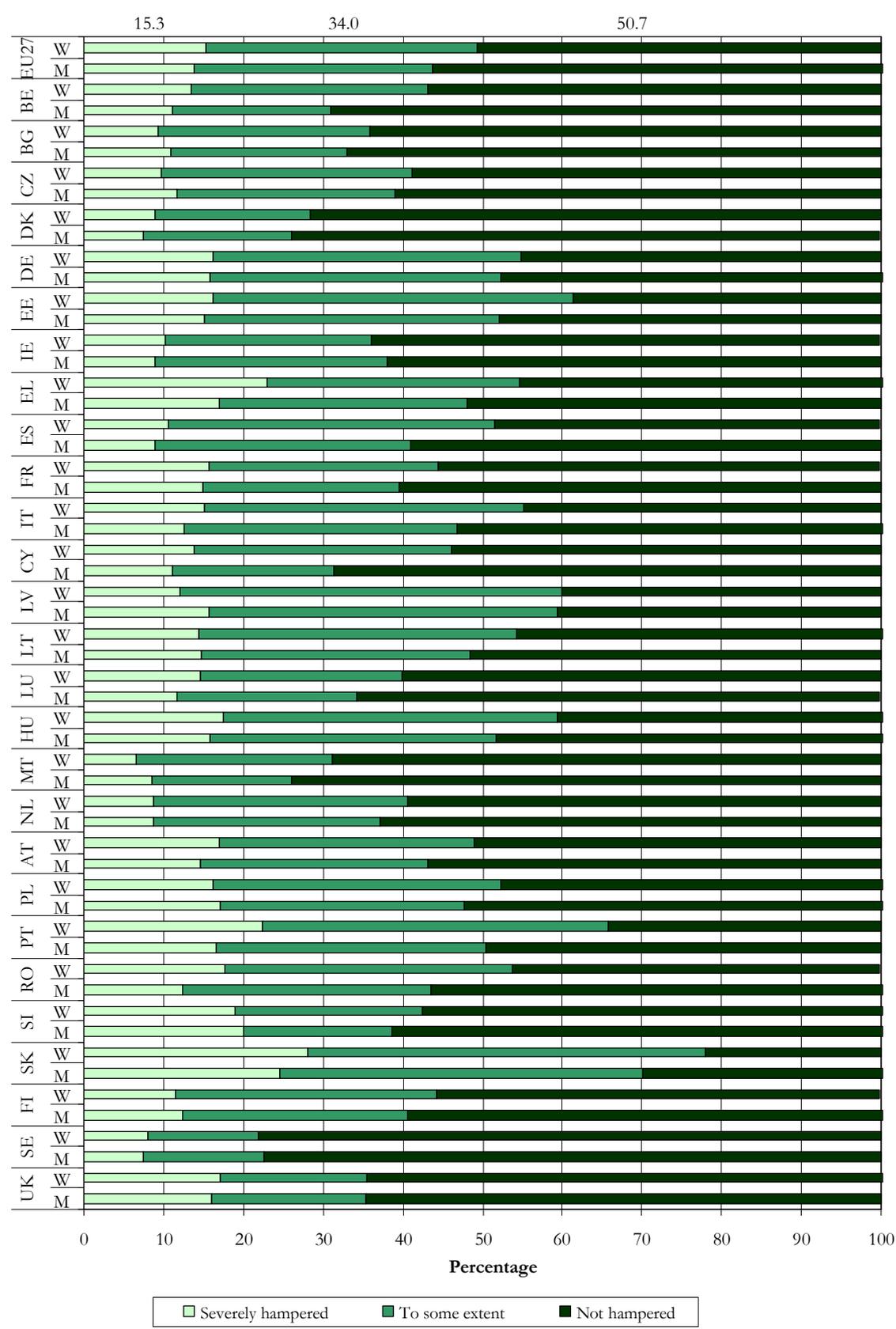
Figure A3.2. Proportion of children between minimum compulsory school age and 12 years in other types of childcare, 1-29 hours and 30+ hours, 2009



Source: EU SILC

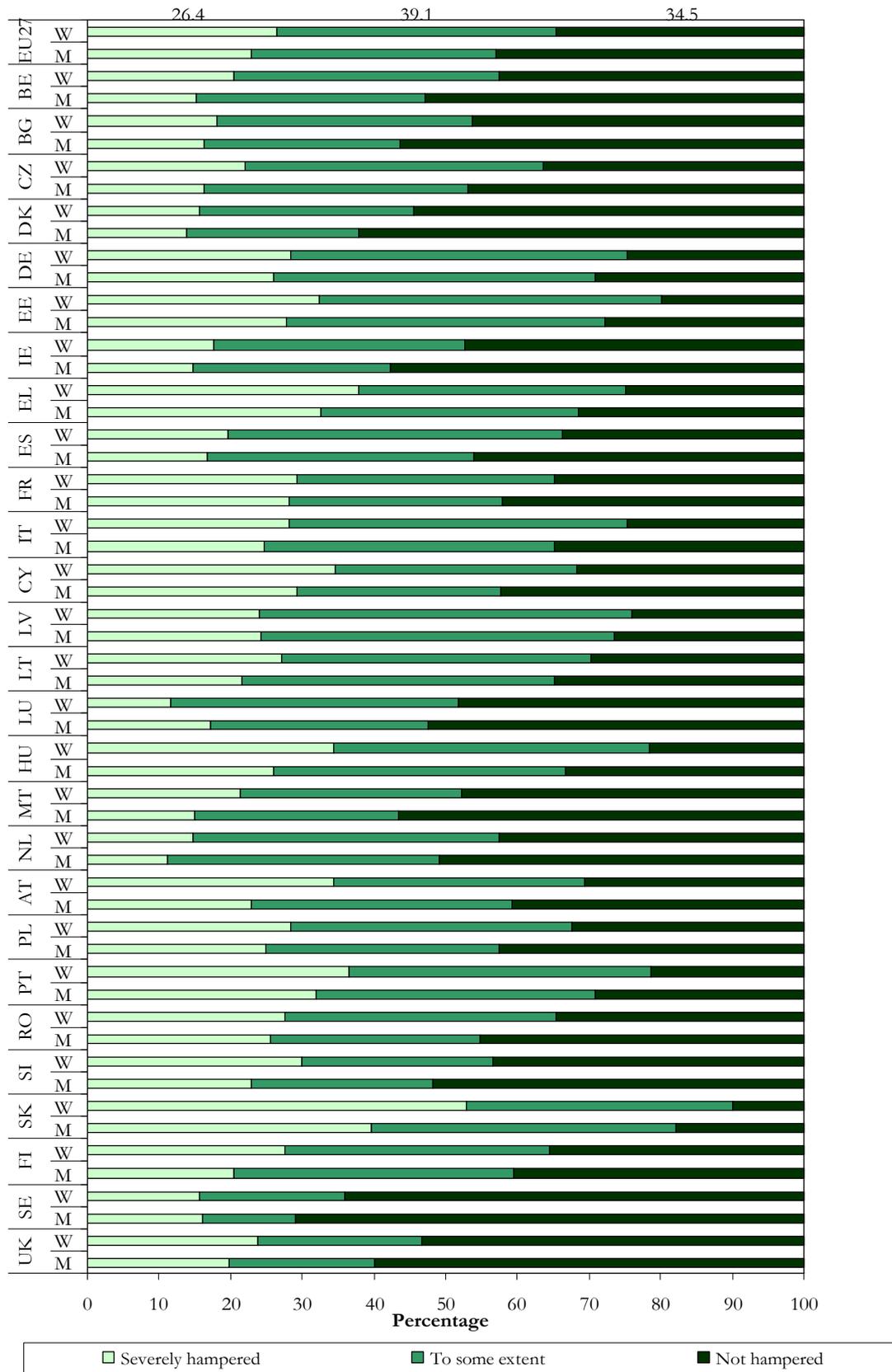
Note: Data on Denmark are not available

INDICATOR 5 - Figure A5.1. Self-perceived limitations in daily activities by sex (age group 65-74), 2009



Source: EU SILC Note: Activity restriction for at least the past 6 months

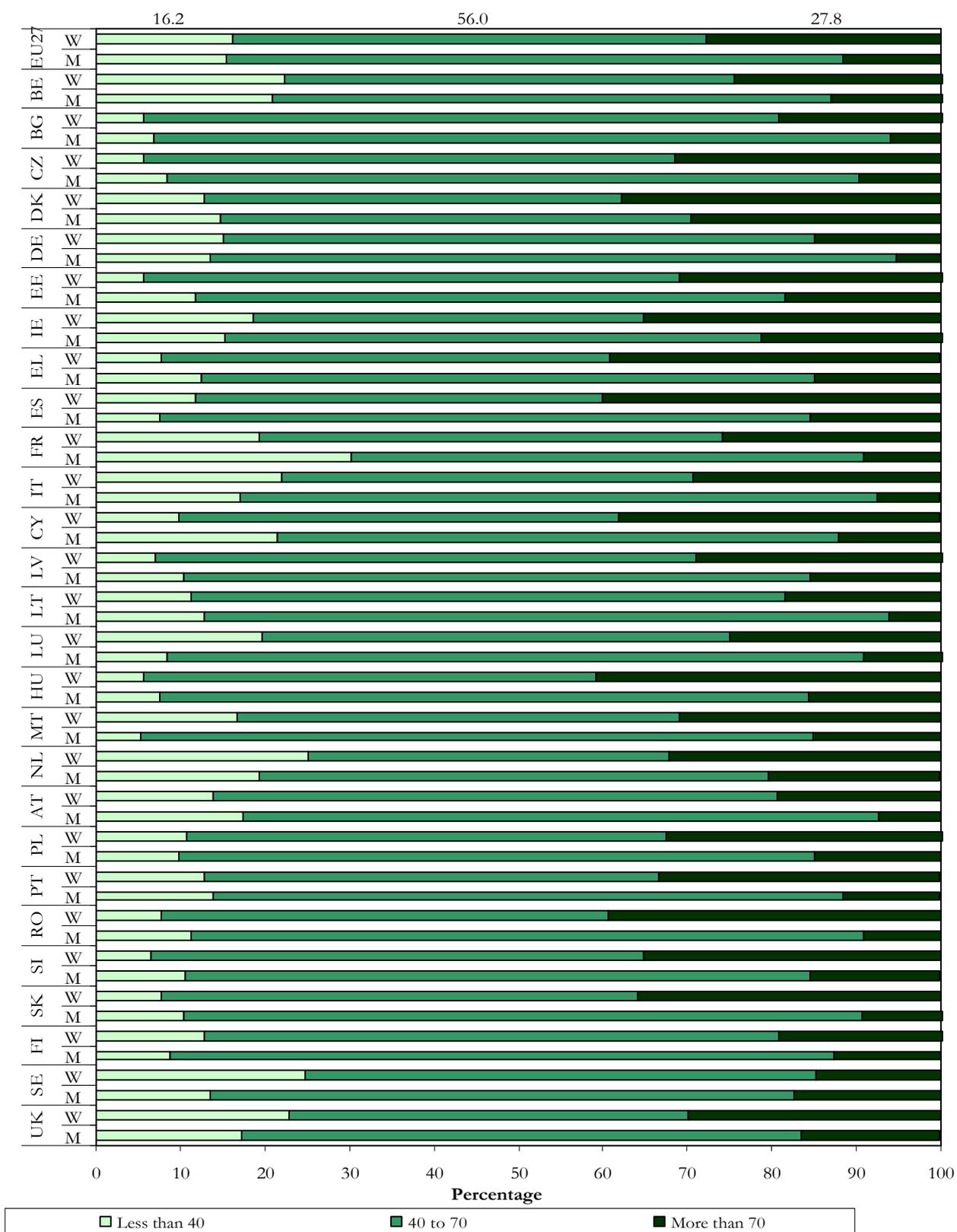
Figure A5.2. Self-perceived limitations in daily activities by sex (age group 75-84), 2009



Source: EU SILC Note: Activity restriction for at least the past 6 months

INDICATOR 6 and INDICATOR 7

Figure A8.1. Number of hours spent on paid and unpaid work per week (index), 2010



Source: ESWC

Appendix 3-

Indicator 4: Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life for both men and women

AT – AUSTRIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The **National Action Plan for equality of men and women in the labour market** was presented in 2010 with concrete steps up until 2013. It includes the general goal of achieving a greater sharing of domestic work and childcare, but does not explicitly mention paternity leave. The National Action Plan recognises the need to break down gender stereotypes regarding the distribution of domestic and caring responsibilities and proposes to do so by highlighting the impact of an unequal distribution, and by providing fiscal incentives for women to return to work. It also emphasises the need to increase the quantity and quality of the childcare infrastructure and to encourage employers to contribute to the achievement of the goals in this area by providing tax incentives. It also calls on employers to introduce more family friendly working practices available to both men and women and emphasises the importance of women having better access to in-work training.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Childcare services

Free access to kindergarten (half-day) in the final year before school was introduced. Free access to kindergarten is provided based on the obligation for all children to attend one year of kindergarten before entering compulsory education.

Childcare benefits

Reform of childcare benefits was introduced. In addition to the three different childcare benefit schemes already available, two schemes were introduced in January 2010. These new schemes are intended to allow parents to claim a higher benefit (80 % of the previous income) for a shorter period of time (12/2 months).

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Austria, p. 134.

BE – BELGIUM

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The **Action plans for gender equality of the Flemish and the French Communities** mainly address the issues of social inclusion, labour market participation, access to employment and reconciliation of professional and private life, in particular through the promotion of investment in childcare services. Moreover, the Flemish Community Commission in Belgium has increased the number of places reserved in crèches for children of first generation immigrants and the Flemish Action Plan for childcare has created more childcare places in Flanders and Brussels.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Maternity leave

Since 2009, there is the right to 15 weeks maternity leave : the female workers can decide to take up the last two weeks after returning to work and therefore being able to alternatively work some days and take some days of maternity leave in order to better reconciling work and family life with the new born. Since 1st July 2007, the duration of the maternity leave for self employed mothers has been extended from 6 to 8 weeks. They can choose, though, to take less than 8 weeks and to limit it to 6 or 7 weeks. Besides, the self employed women receive 105 vouchers in order to pay someone to be assisted in the household duties (105 hours) while working.

Paternity leave :

The father is entitled to 10 days leave in case of child birth within four months after the birth ; since the 20 May 201, the female partner/spouse of the mother can also benefit of this right.

Parental leave :

There is the right for each parent to 3 months paid leave (in once, or part-time or 1 day a week during 15 months) for each child up to 12 years old.

The updated information was provided by Belgium Institute for the Equality of Women and Men, September 2011.

BG – BULGARIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The National Strategy for promoting gender equality 2009 – 2015 aims at the effective implementation of state policy on gender equality and equal opportunities for men and women in order to ensure their full and active participation in all spheres of public life, balanced participation in the decision-making process, improved quality of life and a high degree of social cohesion. The strategy outlines specific objectives that need to be met in order to remove all obstacles to the implementation of *de facto* gender equality in the country.

The state policy on gender equality is implemented through *National Action Plans for Promotion of Gender Equality*. They aim at harmonizing the legislation and the case law in Bulgaria with the *acquis communautaire* and the good practices of the Member States when promoting gender equality. The activities laid down in the National Action Plans are implemented in the framework of the budget of the responsible minister or agency. When necessary and possible, financial support is provided from other sources as well.

The measures set in the Annual Action Plans contribute to the establishment of the necessary conditions for observance of the international standards for gender equality. The Annual Action Plans are set adopted by the Council of Ministers. A relevant report on the implementation of the Annual Action Plan is elaborated and approved by the Council of Ministers. Since 2005, the reports on the implementation of the Annual Action Plans were produced.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Paternity leave

In accordance with Directive 2006/54/EC in the field of employment and occupation, fathers have the right to 15 days' leave after the birth of a child and transferability of the paid leave for pregnancy and childbirth from the mother to the father when the child is between 6 months and one year old.

Maternity leave

The maternity leave is of 410 calendar days for each child, out of which 45 days have to be taken off prior to the child's expected birthday date. After the expiration of the leave period due to pregnancy and birth, ***the mother is entitled to additional leave for raising the child until the age of 2 (Art. 164, paragraph 1 of the Labour Code) With the consent of the mother, this leave can be given to father also in case the parents have a legal work contract.***

After maternity leave, women have the right to return to their previous job and to a position and conditions equivalent to those they had when going on maternity leave; also, they have the right to better working conditions should changes have been introduced while they were on maternity leave. *Any of the parents, if they work under a legal labour relation, after using the leave periods allocated, can still request unpaid leave up to 6 months for being able to raise the child, until she/he turns 8 years old. This situation applies in the conditions that the child is not accommodated in an establishment on full state support.*

Maternity Support (childcare)- National Programme in Support of Motherhood

The National Programme in Support of Motherhood is aimed at promoting employment among women and their vocational development through the provision of care for their children by unemployed persons. Persons hired under the programme take care of little children within the leave period under article 164, paragraph 1 of the Labour Code (leave for raising a child under the age of 2) and until the child reaches the age of 3. The programme aims at encouraging the reintegration of mothers with small children into employment by providing those mothers wishing to return to employment with the possibility of using an unemployed person or pensioner as a nanny employed by the labour office.

National Programme 'Getting back to work'

The goal of the programme is the qualification of registered unemployed persons and their engagement in the care of 1-3 years old children whose parents have a permanent job.

Paternity leave

Paternity leave provision was introduced through an amendment to the Labour Code as late as 2009 in the form of Article 163(7) of the Code which provides for 15 calendar days of leave (11 working days) from the day the new-born child is discharged from the maternity ward. In order to qualify, the father has to prove 8 months of continuous employment. Unemployed fathers are not entitled to paternity leave although it can be taken by adoptive fathers.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Bulgaria, p. 134.

More information at:

<http://www.mlsp.government.bg/equal/equalen/overviewm.asp>

The update of information was provided by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, the Directorate for Social Protection and Equal Opportunities, July 2011.

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The National Action Plan on gender equality for 2007-2013 was initiated by the National Machinery for Women's Rights and adopted by the Council of Ministers in 2007. At the end of 2009, a ministerial committee was appointed to monitor the implementation of the NAP. The NAP has six priority areas: employment, education, decision-making, social rights, violence and gender stereotypes, as regards the promotion of gender equality.

2. Policy initiatives enacted

Maternity leave

The amendment to the Law on Maternity Leave introduced in 2007 extends the maternity leave from 16 to 18 weeks. In 2008, another amendment was introduced that in cases of child adoption, the maternity leave extends from 14 to 16 weeks. In 2011, the same law was again amended and an extended period of maternity leave was introduced for the cases of premature birth or other health problems of the infant. The law also protects the employees from dismissal for a period of time starting from the beginning of the pregnancy until three months after the end of the maternity leave.

Parental leave

The Law on Parental Leave and Leave on Grounds of Force Majeure of 2010 (Amendment) provides that any employed parent who has completed a continuous period of employment of at least six months with the same employer has the right to take unpaid parental leave. The duration of the leave is thirteen weeks (3 months) for each parent and its purpose is to allow parents to care for, and participate in the upbringing of, their child. Even though parental leave is an individual, non-transferable right, fathers who have taken at least two weeks of parental leave are permitted to transfer two weeks of their leave to mothers. This measure was introduced in 2010 in a government effort to increase take-up rates by fathers. Another important amendment allows fathers to take parental leave directly after the birth of the child (and not only following maternity leave as was previously the case).

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Reconciliation of work, family and private life

Amendments to parental leave have been proposed and aim to extend the period within which a parent can take parental leave from 6 to 8 years; for parents of disabled children, the period is extended until the child reaches 18. Also, during 2010, a study on the topic of reconciliation of work and family life was carried out. Based on the conclusions of the study, a strategic plan addressing this issue is under development.

Childcare services

There are legislative proposal to subsidise pre-school childcare to assist mothers facing difficulties entering the labour market together with care for people with disabilities and for the elderly.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Cyprus, p. 136-7.

The updated information was provided by the Equality Unite, Ministry of Justice and Public Order, September 2011.

CZ – THE CZECH REPUBLIC

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

Priorities and Procedures of the Government for Promoting Equal Opportunities for Women and Men. From 2007 onwards there have been many changes in the institutional setting of the *Council for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men* (Council). The Czech Government has issued an action plan on equal opportunities every year since 1998.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Paternity and maternity allowance

The amount of sickness benefits is equal to 60% of reduced daily base assessment. The financial maternity allowance is 70% and 60% of ... in case of allowance for caring.

Cut in sickness benefits and paternity/maternity allowance (from 70 % to 60 %) to care for a child between the ages of 6 weeks and 6 months.

In case of maternity allowance, the length of support period is equal to 28 or 37 weeks.

It is possible to alternate the care of children between the mother and the father; both parents are entitled to receive the *financial maternity allowance* during this period and under conditions stated by the law on sickness insurance. The alternate care of the childcare start after the seventh week following the birth. In case the alternate care is applied, any financial allowance is transferred to the father and is paid from his sickness insurance (on condition that father meets all requirements for its pay).

Leave for care

The length of support of the allowance for caring is equal to 9 days, or also 16 calendar days (Law No. 187/2006). The period is counted since the first day of care.

Change from paid to unpaid leave (first 3 days) to care for a sick family member.

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Paternity leave

A proposal to introduce the right to one week of paternity leave taken within two months after the child's birth was presented to the Czech Parliament in 2007¹¹².

The information was overviewed and the update was provided by the Office of the Government of the Czech Republic, July 2011

¹¹² <http://www.allbusiness.com/labor-employment/compensation-benefits-employee/9564806-1.html>

DK – DENMARK

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The Minister for Gender Equality launched the latest national Action Plan with initiatives on Gender Equality in February 2011. The Plan stresses the importance of addressing gender stereotypes in a broad sense – for instance the plan features initiatives to combat the gender-segregated choice of education and career. It is considered most likely that a less gender-segregated labour market will lead to a more identical pattern of work for women and men, thus helping to achieve a more equal division of paid and unpaid work - and a better balance between work and family life for both women and men.

2. Day-care facilities for all children

All children in Denmark must be given the opportunity to attend a day-care facility. This therefore obliges the local council of the individual local authority to ensure the necessary number of places for the children in the local authority, referred to as guaranteed day-care availability. In Denmark 73 % of children under 3 years are cared for in formal childcare. This is the highest coverage rate in the EU. (Data from Eurostat for 2009.)

3. Men taking up more parental leave

The Minister for Gender Equality will collect best practice on private sector enterprises which have succeeded in encouraging their male employees to take up large shares of the parental leave. This best practice will be distributed to other enterprises.

4. Tax reduction for cleaning and babysitting

Since June 2011 all Danish adults are entitled to a tax reduction of DKK 15 000 (approximately EUR 2 000) a year to cover expenses related to, amongst other things, cleaning and babysitting.

Source: information provided by the Department of Gender Equality, June, 2011.

DE – GERMANY

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

A new report on gender equality, titled *New Pathways-Equal Opportunities. Gender Equality over Women's and Men's Life Courses* was adopted by the German Federal Government and published in June 2011. It assesses the existing frame of policies with respect to their effects on gender equality and suggests further steps to realise equal opportunities for women and men.

2 Policy initiatives enacted:

Parental leave

A parental allowance was introduced through an amendment to the law on parental leave in January 2007. The parental allowance is paid for the maximum period of 14 months if both parents reduce their income from work for not less than two months (partner months). In 2009, an amendment was introduced to this law by which grandparents are entitled to take up parental leave.

Childcare services

The amendment of the Law on Child Advancement (in force since January 2009) states that it is planned to increase the number of childcare spaces by 750 000 until 2013. The German Federal Government will contribute 4 billion euros through 2013 to cover the costs this will involve. On the reconciliation of the demands of work and life balance the following activities are being promoted:

- business programme 'Success factor family': organisation of public events, counselling, and other activities in cooperation with the social partners and business-related foundations;
- business-related childcare services: financed by the ESF, the programme supports new childcare facilities run, or subsidised, by businesses;
- local initiatives for families: supports local activities run by businesses, social partners, institutions, cities etc. with the aim of creating networks and activities for example in childcare, or family-friendly conditions etc.
- employment and family audit: management related audit serves as an instrument to achieve family friendly working conditions; it includes counselling activities.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Germany, p. 137.

Information updated and provided by the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, September 2011.

EE – ESTONIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

Estonia does not have a general action plan for gender equality but the topic is enclosed into the plan for working life. Several gender equality action plans are included into the Estonian European Social Fund Programmes. For the period of 2008-2010, the Ministry of Social Affairs coordinated a programme promoting gender equality funded through the European Structural Funds. The programme had four main goals:

- 1) to ensure compliance with legislation on gender equality;
- 2) to increase the awareness of employers and employees;
- 3) to foster the implementation of gender mainstreaming principles in the policy areas of employment and education; and
- 4) to decrease the negative impact of gender stereotypes.

The outcomes of this Programme are:

- a publication containing comments to the Gender Equality Act, targeted at legal professionals;
- a brochure summarising the content of the Gender Equality Act, targeted at general public;
- a compilation of analytical articles addressing a wide range of issues, including gender equality in working life, reconciliation of work and family life;
- an extensive gender pay gap study
- the third gender equality monitoring survey
- a media campaign.

Support to the work of the network created to promote gender equality in working life by encouraging co-operation and exchange of information and good practices among the relevant actors.

Offer gender equality sensitive training to consultants in order to provide know-how and support to employers on promoting gender equality in an organisation; developing and organising gender equality seminars for employers and representatives of employees; organise a conference called 'Caring Fatherhood'.

The system is described here: <http://www.ensib.ee/parental-benefit/>

Starting with 2011, the Estonian Ministry for Social Affairs is implementing the Estonian European Social Fund Programme for 2011-2013 in the area of gender equality. The following activities are planned:

- a pay gap conference,
- a workshop for teachers and therapists on supporting parents in their efforts to reconcile work and family life,
- a study of gender-based and sexual harassment in the workplace, a study of possibilities for greater flexibility in measures aimed at supporting reconciling work and family life,
- a study of the work and family life of non-ethnic-Estonian population,
- the fourth Gender Equality Monitoring survey,
- a media campaign to tackle gender stereotypes,
- trainings to legal professionals on implementation of the Gender Equality Act.

Additionally, supporting the work of the gender equality in working life network and gender equality seminars to employers and representatives of employees will be continued. Also, gender equality information on the website of the Ministry of Social Affairs and the website of the Gender Equality and Equal Treatment Commissioner will be updated and rendered more user-friendly.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Paternity leave

Due to budgetary restrictions, payment of paternity leave (10 working days) compensations is suspended starting with January 2009 until December 2012.

3. Policy initiatives announced:

A draft Development Plan for Children and Families 2012-2020 has been prepared and is expected to be approved in 2011. One of its goals is to support creating equal opportunities for the reconciliation of work, family and private life for women and men and to support the development of childcare services. The planned activities include creation of employee and family- friendly employers' certificate, promotion of co-operation between local governments, co-operation with the private sector to achieve greater access to high-quality, diversified and flexible childcare.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.2 Examples of policies unfavourable to gender equality ("Lows"), Estonia, p. 151.

The updated information was provided by the Ministry of Social Affairs, Gender Equality Department, September 2011.

ES – SPAIN

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

Strategic Plan of Equal Opportunities 2008-2011 (SPEO)

This plan was established to implement the Constitutional Act on Equality 3/2007 laying down the legal premises required to advance toward effective equality in all area of social, economic, cultural and political life. The Plan specifies the objectives, areas and measures on which public authorities must focus their attention and also, ensure due coordination among the different levels of government (central, regional, and local) and the various social organisations.

The Plan is inspired by two basic principles: non-discrimination and equality. It also elaborates on four governing principles: citizenship, empowerment, gender mainstreaming and innovation around twelve key lines of action: political and social participation; economic participation; co-responsibility; education, innovation, knowledge; health, image; diversity and social inclusion; violence; foreign and development cooperation policy and guarantee of the right to equality.

Information available at: www.migualdad.es

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Paternity leave

The Law No. 2/2008 increases paternity leave to twenty days in case of families with three or more children, including the new born, and also if in the family there is a disable person. In case of multiple birth, for each sibling, from the second onwards, or if one of them is disabled, two additional days are added to the leave. The coverage of paternity leave from the present fifteen days to four weeks was extended by the adoption of Law No. 9/2009 that is foreseen to enter into force on 1st January 2012.

Pregnant women in at-risk work

The latest change in the legislation allows pregnant or nursing women to change their job if there is a risk to the foetus.

Parental benefit

The Law No. 39/2010 includes a new benefit for parents who have to ask for a 50% reduction of working hours, in case both of them are working, in order to be able to care for minors affected by cancer or any other severe illness that requires long-term hospitalization.

Childcare services

New childcare facilities for children between 0 and 3 were considered and EUR 1.087 million was approved for the creation of an additional 300 000 places at public kindergartens for children between 0 and 3 until 2012.

In 2010, the provision of the Framework Law on Education guaranteeing free infant education for children aged 3-5 years old was guaranteed for the second time, having been allocated EUR 382 million.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Spain, p. 138

The information was checked and updated by the Ministry of Health, Social Policies and Equality, State Secretary for Equality, July 2011.

FI – FINLAND

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The main objective of the **Action Plan for Gender Equality 2008-2011** is to establish equal rights, obligations and opportunities in all fields of life for women and men. The Plan has set the following gender equality policy objectives: gender mainstreaming, reducing the gender pay gap, the promotion of women's career development, the promotion of the awareness of gender equality in schools, reducing gender segregation, improving the reconciliation of work and family life, reducing violence against women, strengthening resources in equality work and producing a report on the achievement of gender equality in Finnish society.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Family leave

Reforms in the family leave system. From the beginning of 2010, two additional weeks for fathers who use the last two weeks of parental leave instead of the mother.

Care allowance

The partial care allowance was increased from EUR 70 to EUR 90 and extended to cover the self-employed/entrepreneurs.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Finland, p. 138-9.

FR – FRANCE

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

An inter-ministerial Action Plan for gender equality is under preparation and due to be enforced starting with 2011. This plan was announced by the Ministry for Solidarity and Social Cohesion in June 2011, when the latest publication presenting the situation of gender equality in France in several sectors of the society was launched: *Rapport sur l'égal accès des femmes et des homes aux responsabilités professionnelles et familiales dans le monde du travail* (2010), prepared by Brigitte Grécy.

The above mentioned *Rapport* (2010) was presented and discussed during a conference that took place in June 2011 and that focused on the reconciliation of work and family life topic, organised by the Ministry of Solidarity and Social Cohesion. The conclusions of the conference were added to the Report and emphasis the professional and wage equality between women and men as a goal of the equal share of family responsibilities. Several working roundtable were organised in order to address topics like: addressing gender stereotypes, and the reconciliation of work and family responsibilities.

Representatives of the employers and employees were present to this event. The conclusions will be used in the forthcoming social dialogue programmes, due to be released in late autumn regarding the topic of reconciliation of work and family life, working conditions and the equality between women and men.

2. Policy initiatives enacted

Paternity leave

Since 2002, fathers in France have been entitled to paternity leave of 11 consecutive days following the birth of their child. In the event of a multiple birth, fathers can take 18 days. Parental leave allows fathers to get involved in the process of caring for their new-born child.

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Paternity leave

There are legislative proposals to modify parental leave in order to shorten it, to make it favourable and interesting for both parents to share it, and to make it better paid.

Sources:

Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009. Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), France, p. 139.

Grésy, Brigitte (2009): *Rapport préparatoire à la concertation avec les partenaires sociaux sur l'égalité professionnelle entre les femmes et les hommes*, p.43.

The updated information was provided by the French Directorate General of Social Cohesion, European and International Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Solidarity and Social Cohesion, September 2011.

GR – GREECE

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

National Programme for Substantive Gender Equality 2010-2013 of the General Secretariat for Gender Equality consists of a group of planned actions, governed by the fundamental principles of gender equality.

The four strategic goals of the Programme are:

1. Protection of women's rights and the focus of the intervention towards women's groups that face multiple discrimination.
2. Prevention and combating of all forms and types of violence against women.
3. Support for women's employment and their financial independence.
4. Use of the cultural creations in order to highlight the goal of gender equality.

More information at: www.isotita.gr

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Childcare services

The latest legislative changes permit free childcare services for working mothers as the number of subsidised places in private or public nurseries has been increased. It is estimated that between 2010 and 2013, over 100 000 mothers will benefit from these childcare services.

Free childcare services were made available for unemployed mothers, based on a valid unemployment card: the total exemption from nursery fees applied to employed mothers has been extended to unemployed mothers.

All day school

All-day primary school is available everywhere and it offers children the opportunity to remain at school until 16.15. It is organised for more leisure, creative activities for the children.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Greece, p.138.

The updated information was provided by the Greek General Secretariat for Gender Equality, September 2011.

HU – HUNGARY

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The governmental body to form, mainstream and implement the policy on gender equality - the Directorate of Gender Equality - has begun the preparation of the **National Strategy for Gender Equality**, a long-term strategy (for the period 2010-2020) supplemented by a two-year National Action Plan. The first Action Plan (for 2010-2011) will present the main initiatives to be taken by the Government and other bodies (and the budget required). The new national strategy aims to map the problems of migrant women on the Hungarian job market and enhance their employment opportunities.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Family leave

Legislative changes were enacted to reform the childcare leave system. The system of childcare benefits has changed considerably. The period of eligibility for GYES has been reduced from 3 to 2 years for children born after 30 April 2010, while in the case of the insurance-based GYED, the eligibility criteria have been tightened. As a result of the measure, the number of people eligible for GYED has declined as has the average period of its use. In January 2011, a change of the legislation enters into force and the eligibility for GYES was extended back to 3 years for the parents of the children born between 30 April 2010 and 1 January 2011.

3 Policy initiatives announced:

Part-time work

Parents returning after childcare leave are entitled to part-time work in the public sector.

Childcare services

The capacity of crèches and family day-care services will be expanded to 6 600 new places by 2013 with the support of EU funding.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Hungary, p. 139.

The updated information was provided by the Hungarian Department for Equal Opportunities, Ministry of National Resources, September 2011.

IE – IRELAND

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The National Women's Strategy (NWS), launched in April 2007, sets the priorities in relation to the advancement of women in Irish society for the period 2007 - 2016. The Strategy contains objectives and actions grouped under three key themes:

- 1) equalising socio-economic opportunity for women;
- 2) ensuring the wellbeing of women; and
- 3) engaging women as equal and active citizens.

The NWS is structured around twenty key objectives. For this seven year period, two hundred actions are planned in order to implement the key objectives.

2. Policy initiatives implemented:

Childcare subsidies

Starting with 2010, the Early Childhood Supplement (ECS) is abolished. This measure was introduced in 2007 and it amounted to EUR 1000 for each child under 6 years. In 2008, it was reduced to EUR 900 for children under five and a half years.

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Childcare services

The development of facilities and an increase in their number for pre-school education, for children of 3 - 4 years old, is envisaged. The programme needs further development.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.2 Examples of policies unfavourable to gender equality ("Lows"), Ireland, p. 153.

IT – ITALY

1. General Action Plan for gender equality ‘Italy 2020: Programme of action for the inclusion of women in the labour market’.

There are five lines of action in this programme:

- 1) to support the family nursery through the experience of so-called “*tagesmutter*”; women paid for looking after children in their own home;
- 2) the creation of registers of especially trained carers for the elderly and baby sitters, both Italian and non-nationals;
- 3) training programmes for female workers wishing to re-enter the labour market;
- 4) the promotion of women’s telecommuting;
- 5) vouchers to purchase care services, such as recreation centres and summer camps.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Plan on the Reconciliation between life and work

The Plan with a budget of 40 million euros was adopted and it is implemented through an agreement between the central government and the Regions: all 20 Italian Regions are carrying out interventions aiming at strengthening and implementing childcare services as well as measures to increase women’s employment.

The following are the main measures financed: tools directly conceived for persons, such as the vouchers for crèches and vouchers for care services to be assigned to low income persons; benefits for paternal leaves; measures addressed to organisations, as the Gender Social Pacts (local agreements between institutions, private enterprises, social and entrepreneurial parties and the educational system to promote new work arrangements based both on reconciliation and balanced care sharing between sexes); vocational training, with highly qualified training methodologies, addressing women not anymore employed for reconciliation reasons (women who left their occupation to take care of their children, elder parents, disabled relatives, but also for single unemployed women with children and for female workers after their parental leaves); projects introducing part-time and work arrangements facilitating reconciliation to support female workers within enterprises still affected by the economic crisis.

Programme – Objective to increase and qualify female occupation, to overcome gender pay and career gaps, to create, develop and strengthen female enterprises and to create network projects

The Programme provides for the financing of *positive actions* that aim to promote the presence of women in leadership and management through the implementation of specific training for the acquisition of decision-making skills. The central idea of the Programme is to enhance the occupational performance of women in all its aspects, foreseeing also the re-organization of work arrangements in order to facilitate women's reconciliation between work and private life. A particular attention is given also to the promotion of the professional and personal life quality of female migrants workers.

Positive actions supporting reconciliation of work and family life

Legislation (Law No. 53/2000), aimed at supporting and financing positive actions favouring family and work reconciliation at the workplace was partly modified in June 2009, to widen the range of *positive actions* promoting reconciliation (including initiatives for self-employed women) and to increase the type of organisations that can apply for these funds and to increase the visibility of good practices at the company level in the area of reconciliation (currently Law No.69/2009 of 19.6.2009). Furthermore, in March 2011, the Government and the social partners signed an

Agreement aimed at promoting the reconciliation of work and family life by modulating the flexibility of working hours and creating a synergistic effect, at all levels, including legislative initiatives, social policies and work contracts. The document also stresses that companies' policies of reconciliation can benefit from tax measures related for the wage tax reduction in productivity. Moreover, the financing of *positive actions* for women is foreseen by the Law n.125 of 1991 which has the main aim to promote female occupation, to remove any obstacles and to concretely realize equality between women and men in the labour market.

Childcare services

In 2007 the government approved a three year plan for developing childcare services for children between 0 and 3, especially in Southern regions for an overall financial commitment (by the central government as well as regional funds) was large, amounting at about 730 million euros. At present, the national estimated rate is around 24.8 %, considering public and private childcare services.

A 100 million euro supplementary resources has been allocated for 2010.

More information available at:

http://www.politichefamiglia.it/media/64823/sintesi_nidi_2_20cop.pdf

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Reconciliation - Structural Funds

In the National Strategic Framework 2007-2013, €2.3 billion have been allocated to promote the inclusion of women in the labour market. Among the actions to be funded, reconciling work and family responsibilities are high on the agenda. In particular, the Department for Equal Opportunities is elaborating an actions system, financed through ESF resources, aimed at realizing part-time, teleworking and job sharing, organization of time, parental leaves in the Southern Regions (Campania, Calabria, Sicily, Apulia). At the same time, through ERDF resources, technical assistance and support is offered to implement such actions in the same Southern Regions.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Italy, p.140, .Box 5.2 Examples of policies unfavourable to gender equality ("Lows"), Italy, p. 153.

The updated information was provided by the Italian Department of Equal Opportunities, September 2011.

LT – LITHUANIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The **2010-2014 National Programme for equal opportunities between women and men** sets out actions promoting women's labour market participation. In particular, it aims to improve the participation of women and men after parental leave, improve the situation of women in rural areas, improve the possibilities for the reconciliation of work and family responsibilities, decrease the gender pay gap and integrate gender equality issues into social dialogue and partnership.

2. Policy initiatives announced:

Reconciliation

Plan for creating conditions for better reconciliation of work and family life especially for the self-employed.

Childcare services

Ensuring accessible and affordable childcare facilities is envisaged in the new legislative proposal that aims to develop a model of improvement of living and educational conditions for children starting from birth and finishing with entry to compulsory education.

Childcare benefits

A new childcare benefit is planned.

Paternity leave

In 1 July 2006, the paternity leave provisions were first introduced. Until 1 January 2008, only fathers legally married to the mother of the child could be granted the paternity leave payment. Since 1 January 2008, this condition does not apply any longer and thus the pool of eligible fathers has expanded significantly.

Parental leave

The rules regulating the length and compensation of such leave have changed several times since 2000 in response to the situation of public budgets and policy decisions. There was a gradual increase in the duration and compensation of parental leave until 2008. In the aftermath of the economic crisis in 2008-2009, the level and duration of payments have been scaled back.

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Lithuania, p.141

LU – LUXEMBOURG

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The Gender National Action Plan for the period 2009-2013 set the main goals for labour and employment, the reconciliation of professional and family life, economic and political decision-making, the change of roles and stereotypes (including in the media), and combating violence inflicted on women and girls and domestic violence.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Childcare support

In 1 March 2009, service vouchers were introduced, allowing a number of childcare hours per week that are free (3 hours/week) or at reduced cost (21 hours/week at EUR 3 max and up to 60 hours/week at EUR 7.5/hour).

Source: Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Luxembourg, p.141

LV – LATVIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

There are three main gender-relevant policy documents:

- 1) **Programme for gender mainstreaming from 2007 to 2010:** has six main policies among which the most relevant is concerned with improving possibilities for the reconciliation of work and private life
- 2) **Concept paper on gender equality implementation**
- 3) **National Strategy Report on Social Protection and Social Inclusion 2008 – 2010.**

2. Policy initiatives enacted

Paternity and maternity leave

Prior to 1 January 2009, maternity benefit was paid at 100 % of socially insured wages, but paternity benefit at 80% of social insured wage. From 1 January 2009, and for almost two years until 3 November 2010, paternity and maternity benefits were paid at 100% of socially insured wages. From 3 November 2010 and until 31 December 2012 onwards maternity and paternity benefits will be reduced to 80 % again and benefit payments will only be made up to a defined ceiling.

Parental leave

On 1 January 2008 a parental benefit was introduced for working parents (new calculation method based on the amount of social insurance contributions) and paid up to 1 July 2009 at the full amount of 70 % of social insurance contributions to both parents taking childcare leave as well as to those continuing to work while receiving the benefit. From 1 July 2009 the amount of parental benefit for working beneficiaries was reduced to 50 % (from the 70 % cited above) of the average wages on which insurance contributions were paid.

The information was updated and provided by the Ministry of Welfare, Division of Equal Opportunities Policy, July 2011.

MT – MALTA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The social partners published the fourth **Gender Equality Action Plan 2009-2010** that applied only to the field of employment and training. This action plan identifies the following policy areas:

- i) equal economic independence for women and men and
- ii) equal pay for work of equal value.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Maternity leave

Maternity leave on full pay increased from 13 to 14 weeks.

Parental and paternity leave

There is a collective agreement (Public Service Collective Agreement 2005 -2010) covering the public sector providing a more generous leave allowance for both parental and paternity leave (rather than birth leave).

Source:

Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Malta, p.142.

NL - THE NETHERLANDS

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The Dutch Government includes the rights of lesbians, gays, bisexual and transgender¹¹³ persons within the frame of gender equality policy. Therefore, there are the following contributions to the gender equality perspective: *making choices in freedom and safety, calling on the empowerment and talent of people, increasing safety and participation, culture change, strengthening the LGBT and gender equality infrastructure, and drawing attention to the international initiating role of the Netherlands.*

The equal rights of homosexuals and transgender people

1. Line of action: legal parenthood and the rights of same-sex couples
2. Line of action: the equal treatment of LGBT people

Safety and empowerment of LGBT people and women

1. Line of action: young people: the power of social media and empowering youth
2. Line of action for local authorities: safe suburbs
3. Line of action: safe schools
4. Line of action: empowerment on combating domestic and honour-related violence

Social acceptance of LGBT people

1. Line of action: Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs)
2. Line of action: life stance and ethnicity
3. Line of action: open up for discussion in the Caribbean Netherlands
4. Line of action: transgender people

¹¹³ Transgender is a collective term for people for whom the gender identity does not correspond to the sex on their birth certificate. In other words: you are born male or female but you do not identify with that sex or behave as such. This group includes transvestites, transsexuals and transgender people. The estimation is that 0.5% of Dutch men and women identify more with the other sex than with their own. However, the chances in the Netherlands of a child later turning out to be transsexual is lower; for boys 1:3500 (0.029%) and for girls 1: 6700 (0,015%) (Olyslager & Conway, 2007, source: study by Paul Vennix).

International LGBT and gender equality policy

1. Line of action: the rights of LGBT people in foreign policy
2. Line of action: equal rights of LGBTs in Europe
3. Line of action: international gender equality

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

National job creation measures

Two programmes will be developed: the Talent programme and the Empowerment programme. The Talent programme focuses on the participation of women at all levels and in all sectors of the labour market and comprises three lines of action: 1. line of action: more women at the top; 2. line of action: flexibility in working hours; 3. line of action: ambitions of young people. The Empowerment programme is focused on the training and labour participation of low-skilled women and has two lines of action: 1. line of action: fewer functionally illiterate women; 2. line of action: more women in employment.

The information was checked and updated by the Dutch Directorate for LGBT and Gender Equality, Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, September 2011.

PL – POLAND

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The Government programme for equal treatment (covering all spheres of discrimination, including gender discrimination) is to be prepared by the end of 2012. The first priority area of the EC Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010 – 2015 referring to economic independence for women and men, access to the labour market and employment is considered to be the most important one in this area in Poland. Therefore, the Polish Government has focused its activities in the area of gender equality during its Presidency of the Council on increasing women's participation in the labour market and in decision-making processes, reconciling the professional and family roles of men and women and preventing violence against women, including domestic violence.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Reconciliation

The creation of a model for reconciling work, family and private life is envisaged and will be part of the systemic project, the National Roadmap for Reconciliation. The national Roadmap is consistent with the policies adopted at EU level and is based on research, analysis, and best practices.

Paternity and Maternity leave

Starting with January 2010, several new improvements were introduced in relation to maternity leave:

- maternity leave was extended from 18 to 20 weeks.
- an additional optional maternity leave was introduced. It will be up to 6 weeks for one child and up to 8 weeks for more than one child.
- paternity leave was introduced. It is one week, and starting in 2012 it will increase to two weeks.
- biological and adoptive parents have the same rights to additional maternity and paternity leave, in line with respect for the equality of rights.

- during parental leave, employees have the right to work part-time for up to 12 months if they chose to do so. Employees taking parental leave are protected against firing by the law.
- the contribution base for persons on parental leave will be increased: from the minimum wage (from January 2009 to December 2011) to the average monthly wage, from the previous 12 calendar months of working preceding the parental leave.
- an extension of the period for which sickness allowance can be received by pregnant women, from 182 to 270 days.

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Childcare services

Regulating care facilities for small children (between 0 and 3).

In 2011, the Day Care Law was introduced. The initiative simplifies the regulations for setting up care facilities for young children and opens up the possibility of having diversity in the form the day care takes. It also encourages companies to provide day care for employees' children; at the same time it aims to encourage the formal employment of day-carers and nannies. A Social Benefit Fund can provide financial support for establishing day care centres, kindergartens and other forms of pre-school education at workplaces.

Reconciliation

In order to promote reconciliation of work, family and private life, and to facilitate women's participation in the labour market, a systematic project entitled Reconciliation of professional and family roles of women and men for the period 2008 to 2013 started to be implemented. It aims mainly to diminish the scale of discrimination against women with children on the labour market. The project aims at the standardisation and implementation of innovative solutions at the workplace to promote the reconciling of work, family and private life, that have been noticed both at the national and European level. It aims to include more social partners, such as local public employment services, employers' organisations and trade unions in order to disseminate good practices or solutions. A national media campaign will support dissemination and spread information about the project.

Paternity leave

The project Gender mainstreaming as a tool for change in the labour market, 2010 -2012, will promote and disseminate information on the newly introduced paternity leave.

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Poland, June 2011.

PT – PORTUGAL

1. General Action Plan for Gender Equality

In the area of gender equality, there are three framework documents (National Plans) for the period 2011-2013: a) In December 2010, Portugal adopted **the IV National Plan for Equality-Citizenship and Gender Equality** (2010-2013). b) the IV National Plan against Domestic Violence and c) the II National Plan against Human Trafficking.

In order to make available the resources needed for the implementation of these policies, the budget for the promotion of gender equality for the period 2007 – 2013 reached 83 million euros, distributed to seven different areas of actions.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Paternity leave

New paternity leave regulations came into force in 2009 with the amendment of the Labour Law in February 2009, and introduced major changes in leave policy. The law replaced “maternity leave” with “Initial Parental Leave” and paternity leave with “Fathers-Only Parental leave”.

Paternity leave was supplemented in 2009 with a further 15 days of voluntary paternity leave, also paid at 100 % of previous wage for employed fathers with a sufficient contributions record. The aim of the 2009 changes was to encourage the take-up of paternity and parental leave by fathers. Several other provisions were introduced in 2009 in order to encourage fathers to take paternity and parental leave and to share leave entitlements with the women/mothers:

- the right to three days of leave of absence for fathers in order to attend pre-natal medical consultation.
- an increase from 5 to 10 working days of mandatory paternity leave around the day of birth of the child, half of it to be used immediately after the birth.
- 100% remunerated leave of 10 working days to be used by the father simultaneously with the maternity leave after the 10 initial days of mandatory paternity leave.

Parental leave

The same legislative changes that introduced the measures to encourage fathers to be more involved in child care allow the right to 120 days fully remunerated or 150 days remunerated only at 80% when parents do not share the parental leave or share it for less than a month. In case the fathers take up the parental leave, it is fully remunerated for the 150 days and at a rate of 83% for 180 days. It remunerates through a social instalment 3 additional months for each of the parents corresponding to an extended parental leave, with a financial support of 25% of the gross remuneration if used immediately after the initial parental leave. The extended parental leave can be taken either by the father or by the mother, provided that they do not take it simultaneously.

Childcare services

Public investment in the provision of care services (children, elderly, and other dependents) has been put in place. Thus, the network of local services offering childcare and care for the elderly and other dependent persons has been upgraded in terms of accessibility, quality, and equity in territorial distribution. In 2006, two programmes were launched in order to increase the availability of care infrastructure: the Expansion Programme of the Social Equipment Network (PARES) and the Support Programme to Investment in Social Equipments (PAIRES). PARES aims at supporting the enlargement, development and consolidation of the equipments and social answers' network for children, elderly and people with disabilities. In two years, it has achieved an increase from 5% to 34.9% in the coverage rate of kindergarten structures in the national continental territory for children aged between 0 and less than 3 years. Also, the childcare services for children aged between 3 and 5 increased, as the latest data (2008) show that the coverage rate increased to 86% for the 4 years old and to 96.3% for the five and over five years old.

Source:

Villa, P. and Smith, M. (2010): *Gender Equality, Employment Policies and the Crisis in EU Member States*. Synthesis Report 2009, Box 5.1 Examples of policies favouring gender equality ("Highs"), Portugal, p.143. The updated information was provided by Portuguese Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality, September 2011.

RO – ROMANIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

Decision no. 237/24.03.2010 approving the **National Strategy for equality between women and men** for the period 2010 to 2012 and **Action Plan for implementing the National Strategy** for equality between women and men for the period between 2010 and 2012.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Reconciliation

Promoting the balance between family and work, by the child allowance providing financial support to families with small children since 2008.

Parental leave

In December 2010, the Romanian Government approved new provisions on parental leave as a part of a wider package of measures to tackle the budget deficit (Law 118/2010 regarding necessary measures to restore budgetary balance, published in Official Monitor no. 441 of 30 June 2010).

3. Policy initiatives announced:

Childcare services

Provisions have been planned to improve social services for small children in order to support working mothers.

SI – SLOVENIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The National Programme for Equal Opportunities of women and men 2005-2013 aims at boosting horizontal gender mainstreaming. Still, some specific areas of intervention are addressed: to increase the number of women among the self-employed and entrepreneurs; to decrease the vertical and horizontal segregation; and the gender pay gap. One of the significant areas for improving gender equality is the family policy and policies promoting reconciliation of work and family life.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Childcare services

Since September 2008, there is a public financial support for co-financing payments for child day care for parents who have more than one child enrolled in the kindergarten. In this situation, the parents pay the fee only for one child (the oldest) and no other fee for the other children.

The updated information was provided by the Slovenian Office of Equal Opportunities, September 2011.

SK – SLOVAKIA

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The National Strategy for Gender Equality 2009 – 2013 followed by the **National Action Plan** for Gender Equality 2010 – 2013. The following areas were selected as those which needed more attention and a stronger participation of key bodies: economic and social areas and health care; families and state family policy; the area of political and public life, participation and representation; the area of research, education, schools, the media and culture.

2. Policy initiatives announced:

Parental leave and childcare

There has been an increase in the benefit for parental leave up to the level of the minimum wage. At the same time, there have been changes in the conditions for parental leave and for entitlement to childcare allowances: wage-earning activity for parents on parental leave is not possible, so parents have to decide between parental leave in order to care for their child personally or taking up work. If the parent decides to work, he/she is entitled to receive a childcare allowance at the maximum of 25 % of the parental leave contribution or the reimbursement of costs of childcare services up to the value of the parental allowance.

Maternity leave

Lately, social insurance for maternity leave has been introduced, that allows the mother to receive unemployment benefit; after the maternity leave period, and if the mother is still employed, she is entitled to unemployment benefit.

SE –SWEDEN

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The Action Plan on gender equality policy has two principal aims: to combat and transform systems that preserve the gender-based distribution of power and resources in society, and to ensure that women and men enjoy the same power and opportunities to shape their own lives.

The policy focus is set out in four sub-goals:

- 1) Equal distribution of power and influence.
- 2) Economic equality between the sexes.
- 3) Equal distribution of unpaid care and household work and
- 4) Men's violence against women must stop.

Strategy for gender equality in the labour market and in the business sector (2009)

Based on a general perspective, the strategy seeks to coordinate and develop gender-equality measures targeting working life, business, education policy and social policy. The measures for gender equality in these areas have the following aims: to counteract gender segregation in the labour market and the business sector; to promote gender equal conditions for entrepreneurship; gender equal participation in working life and gender equal working conditions.

2. Policy initiatives enacted:

Childcare

Swedish municipalities are obliged to provide subsidized childcare to all children aged 1-5. The fee for childcare per child is a fixed amount.

Parental leave

Gender equality bonus

The gender equality bonus is to improve the conditions for gender equality in both parental leave and participation in working life. The gender equality bonus is to be an incentive for parents to share parental leave as evenly as possible between themselves. It will counter unjustified pay differentials by facilitating for parents to share parental leave more equally, and strengthen incentives to return to work.

Tax-credits for household work

Tax-credits for household work facilitates the reconciliation of work, family and private life by making it possible to reduce women's and men's amount of unpaid workload.

More information available at: <http://www.regeringen.se/sb/d/12092/a/129907>

Earned income tax credit

In order to increase incentives to work, the Swedish Government has introduced an earned income tax credit. It makes it more profitable to work, both for employees as well as for self-employed persons. Women have lower wages and work part-time to a larger degree than men.

The income tax credit might therefore have a relatively higher impact on women's work and income, and it can contribute to increased economic incentives to go from part-time to full-time employment. In addition, the earned income tax credit makes it more profitable for parents to share the parental leave more equally between themselves.

The updated information was provided by the Division of Gender Equality, Ministry of Education and Research, September 2011.

UK - UNITED KINGDOM

1. General Action Plan for gender equality

The UK Government's Equality Strategy – **Building a Fairer Britain (2010)** and the **Gender Equality Strategy: a strategic framework for action to promote gender equality for women and men 2006-2016 for Northern Ireland**. The UK Government's Strategy is based on five related supporting principles: i) Creating equal opportunities for all; ii) Devolving power to people; iii) Transparency; iv) Supporting social action; v) Embedding equality. Delivery of the Strategy is overseen by an inter-ministerial group on Equality, chaired by the Minister for Women and Equalities.

2. Policy initiatives implemented:

Maternity leave

'Additional Paternity Leave' was introduced which means that mothers can transfer a part of their maternity leave to fathers.

Paternity leave

Since April 2010 there has been a new entitlement (not compulsory) to Additional Paternity Leave, which means that for parents of children expected from 3 April 2011, if a woman returns to work after six months' maternity leave, subject to certain qualifying conditions, the father will be able to take the remaining six months' entitlement – three months paid at the statutory rate of GBP 124.88 a week, and three months unpaid.

Childcare

Extending job-seeking requirements combined with targeted training and enhanced childcare support for single parents and maintaining and extending free early education and care for children aged 2 to 4 which will help women who are mothers support their children's development. In 2010 and 2011, 20 000 disadvantaged 2 year olds benefit from free early education and (subject to Parliament) from 2013 all disadvantaged 2 year olds (130 000) will benefit from this entitlement. All 3 and 4 year olds are entitled to 15 hours a week over 38 weeks a year of free early education.

The updated information was provided by the UK Government Equalities Office, July 2011.

Appendix 4

Main sources of data for labour market outcomes and the indicators for reconciliation of work, family and private life

Description of the main characteristics of databases reviewed:

- The **European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)** provides the main aggregated statistics on labour market outcomes. The EU-LFS is a quarterly household sample survey carried out in the MS of the European Union, Candidate Countries and EFTA countries (except for Liechtenstein). It is the main source of information about the situation and trends on the labour market in the European Union. Starting from 1999, every year the survey has included an ad hoc module on specific topics. In 2005 and 2010, the module was on reconciliation of work and family life. Data for the 2010 ad hoc module are not yet available on the website. Data are downloadable from the Eurostat Data Navigation Tree:

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database

- The **European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)** is an instrument seeking to collect up-to-date and comparable cross-sectional and longitudinal multidimensional micro-data on income, poverty, social exclusion and living conditions. It contains, among other things, information on wages, incomes, working hours and use of childcare. This instrument is based in the European Statistical System (ESS). The EU-SILC project was launched in 2003 in six Member States (Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and Austria), as well as in Norway. The starting date for the EU-SILC instrument was 2004 for the EU-15 (with the exception of Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, which were allowed to postpone its implementation until 2005), as well as for Estonia, Norway and Iceland. The 10 new EU Member States started in 2005. Aggregate data are downloadable from the Eurostat Data Navigation Tree:

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database

- The **Establishment Survey on Working Time and Work–Life Balance (ESWT)** is a large-scale survey carried out at the level of individual businesses in 2004-2005. When it was conducted it covered 21 EU Member States: 15 Member States and six of what were then new EU Member States: Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Poland and Slovenia. The survey was conducted in more than 21 000 establishments, covering both the private and public sectors. Data obtained from the ESWT are representative for all establishments with 10 or more employees in the abovementioned countries. In total, 21 031 personnel managers were interviewed, along with 5 232 employee representatives from the same establishments.

- The **European Company Survey (ECS)** was carried out in 2009 as a follow up survey to the first company survey known as the European Establishment Survey on Working Time and Work-Life Balance. The European Company Survey (ECS) examines a range of issues, such as working time, work-life balance, and the development of social dialogue in companies. The ECS 2009 provides data on 30 countries: the 27 EU Member States, Croatia, Turkey and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM). The first results were published in December 2009. Unfortunately, not all the information included in the ESWT is also available in the ECS.

- The **European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS)** is carried out every five years by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound), one of the first European Union bodies to be established to work in specialised areas of EU policy. To date the survey, which interviews both employees and self-employed people on key issues related to their work and employment, has been carried out five times. The latest survey was conducted from January to June 2010, with almost 44 000 workers interviewed in the EU27, Norway, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey, Albania, Montenegro and Kosovo. Themes covered today include employment status, working time duration and organisation, work organisation, learning and training, physical and psychosocial risk factors, health and safety, work-life balance, worker participation, earnings and financial security, as well as work and health.

- The **Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE)** is a multidisciplinary and cross-national panel database of micro data on health, socio-economic status and social and family networks for more than 45 000 individuals. The main aim of SHARE is to create a pan-European interdisciplinary panel data set covering persons aged 50 years and older. Twelve EU Member States are currently participants (Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, and Sweden) plus Switzerland. The Czech Republic, Poland and Ireland joined SHARE in 2006 and participated only in the second wave of data collection in 2006-07. The survey's third wave of data collection, SHARELIFE, collected detailed retrospective life-histories in thirteen countries in 2008-09. The survey will follow a common set-up across all countries with the goal of collecting data that are strictly comparable to allow cross-country research.

- The Mutual **Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC)** provides detailed, comparable and regularly updated information about national social protection systems in English, French and German. MISSOC publishes comparative tables on social protection covering: 31 countries: the 27 EU Member States plus Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland; 12 main areas of social protection: financing, healthcare, sickness, maternity, invalidity, old-age, survivors, employment injuries and occupational diseases, family, unemployment, guaranteed minimum resources and long-term care; and more than 300 detailed categories.

- The **European System of Integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)** is a common framework developed in the late 1970s by Eurostat and the EU MS providing a coherent comparison between European countries of social benefits to households and their financing, thus making an international comparison of national administrative data on social protection possible. Under ESSPROS, which is based within the European Statistical System (ESS), expenditure on social protection is classified by type, indicating the nature of, or the reason for, the expenditure: social protection benefits; administration costs; transfers to other schemes; other expenditure. Data are downloadable from the Eurostat Data Navigation Tree: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database

- **ESSPROS Qualitative Information.** The publication of ESSPROS qualitative information relates to a description of social protection systems in Europe by scheme. The tables are compiled from qualitative information supplied by the national statistical offices or the ministries in charge of social protection statistics.

- The **European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS)** is carried out every four years by Eurofound. The latest survey was conducted in 2007, covering 25 EU Member States and three candidate countries, namely Turkey, Macedonia and Croatia. It includes questions on how often individuals are involved in any activities outside paid work (i.e. caring for children, housework, caring for elderly, disabled relatives) and how many hours and days individuals are involved in those activities. Many of the questions asked in the first EQLS in 2003 were asked again, on such issues as employment, income, education, housing, family, health, work–life balance, life satisfaction and perceived quality of society. Data from EQLS and other complementary sources are also fed into Eurofound’s electronic database of statistical quality of life indicators (EurLIFE).

- The **Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS)** contains harmonised information on the use of time by each member of the household. The list of domestic activities available in HETUS is fairly comprehensive. Unfortunately, this source only collects information about 15 MS and refers to 2007 as the latest year of update of the available information.

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