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Subject : **Review of the implementation by the Member States and the EU institutions  
of the Beijing Platform for Action**  
– **Reconciliation of work and family life**  
= **Draft Council Conclusions**

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Delegations will find in the Annex an evaluation report drawn up by the French Presidency on the indicators in respect of the "Reconciliation of work and family life", adopted by the Council under the previous French Presidency in 2000<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> Doc. 13481/00.

**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 included in the set of  
conclusions adopted by the Council under the French Presidency in 2000<sup>2</sup>**

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<sup>2</sup> See 13481/00.

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## Introduction

The theme of balancing the time spent on the various aspects of a person's life – working time, family and domestic time, social time, leisure time and personal time – is becoming a major issue in Europe.

This is a key element in the context of the new social, economic and demographic challenges sweeping through employment in Europe and the questions of equality between women and men: a return to economic growth and the fight against unemployment, which remains high, involve greater job creation, for which women are the primary motor. In spring 2006, the European Council emphasised that "*gender equality policy is vital to economic growth, well-being and competitiveness*". And yet more and more areas of tension are emerging. In terms of employment, first of all, although it appears essential to promote women's lasting participation in the labour market, this integration is still marked by gender inequality: professional segregation, unequal pay and, above all, the development of underemployment, observed particularly in certain female-dominated low-skilled sectors such as retail, cleaning and personal care. Secondly, the demographic issue has become critical: fertility rates in all the Member States are below the population renewal threshold, set at 2.1 children per mother in developed countries, although certain countries such as France and Ireland are not far from this figure. The issue is thus to resolve a dilemma that has already been overcome in certain European countries: women's employment is not incompatible with an increase in fertility; on the contrary, the countries where women work the most are those in which the fertility rate exceeds the average (Scandinavian countries, France and Ireland) and conversely (e.g. Poland and Greece). Similarly, the development of couples in which both partners work and of single-parent families (where the "head of the family" is for the most part a woman) throughout Europe involves a growing tension – particularly for women whose working lives are not accompanied by an effective rebalancing of domestic tasks. Finally, in social terms the risks of exclusion and poverty are growing in Europe, particularly among the elderly (especially women) and isolated mothers. The backdrop to all these challenges is the issue of work-life balance.

## *European policy on work-life balance*

The relationship between family and working life has been an important element of European policy for over ten years, reflected in resolutions, directives and important recommendations. These measures have often been preceded by agreements between the European social partners, such as the agreements on part-time working, parental leave, childcare and, more recently, one of the points in the framework of actions on gender equality signed by the European social partners (2005). It should also be remembered that a working group of the European social partners was set up in November 2007 to evaluate progress in reconciling work with family life on the basis of a questionnaire sent to all the partners affiliated with the ETUC, BUSINESSSEUROPE, the UEA-PME and the CEEP.

Here is a brief review of a few highlights in the implementation of European policy:

- The Extraordinary European Council on Employment (Luxembourg Summit) in November 1997 confirmed the Council's desire to reinforce equality of opportunity between women and men in its resolution on employment policy. "*The Member States must combat discrimination between men and women, **take appropriate steps to enable men and women to reconcile their professional and family lives** and facilitate the reintegration of men and women into work*" (European Council Resolution, 1997). Starting in 2002, this approach was taken further by imposing quantified targets (such as reaching a women's employment rate of 60 % by 2010, **and childcare for at least 90 % of children aged between 3 and mandatory school age and at least 33 % of children aged under 3** – Barcelona Summit, 2002).
- The resolution by the Council of Employment Ministers in June 2000, during the previous Portuguese Presidency of the EU, on balanced participation by men and women in both professional and family life is a particular high point in Europe's involvement in the issue. It states: "*The principle of equality between men and women makes it essential to offset the disadvantage faced by women with regard to conditions for access to and participation in the labour market and the disadvantage faced by men with regard to participating in family life, **arising from social practices which still presuppose that women are chiefly responsible for unpaid work related to looking after a family and men chiefly responsible for paid work derived from an economic activity.***"

- In fact, **all the various community action programmes** in favour of equal opportunities for men and women have emphasised this theme. For example, the fifth action programme for gender equality (2001-2005) widens these objectives further: "*achieving equality in economic life, in participation and reproduction, in social life, in civic life; equality in role allocation and the elimination of stereotypes*".<sup>3</sup>
- At the same time, **the gender equality roadmap** (2006-2010) sets out six priority areas, including "*reconciliation of private and professional life*". The roadmap confirms the importance of policy in this area (in terms of services for children and elderly dependent people, leave arrangements and flexible working options, etc.). It emphasises that: "*the fact that far more women than men make use of such arrangements creates a gender imbalance which has a negative impact on women's position in the workplace and their economic independence*".
- The Member States also demonstrated their continued will to move forward on equality by signing the 2006 **European Pact for Gender Equality**<sup>4</sup>, which reaffirms the guarantee of a better balance between work and private life.
- Finally, in its 2007 report on equality, the Commission emphasises: "*The fight against stereotypes should be intensified (...) and should be aimed, in particular, at men and companies*".

In November 2000, following the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995, the French Presidency of the European Union put forward **Council of the European Union conclusions** introducing nine indicators for monitoring work-life balance<sup>5</sup>.

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<sup>3</sup> Quoted by M.T. Letablier (2001) "L'égalité entre les sexes, un enjeu européen" (Sexual equality, a European issue), *Quatre pages du CEE*, No 46.

<sup>4</sup> European Council 23-24 March 2006.

<sup>5</sup> European Union Council conclusions of 28 November 2000.

The nine indicators are the following:

1. *Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) within the meaning of Directive 96/34/EC as a proportion of all employed parents*
2. *Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave*
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)*
4. *Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life*
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.*
6. *Normal opening hours of public services (e.g. local authority offices, post offices, crèches, etc.) during the week and on Saturdays*
7. *Normal opening hours of shops during the week and at weekends*

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 adults.*
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).*

***The approach adopted in this report:***

France will hold the Presidency of the Council of the European Union from 1 July to 31 December 2008. In this context, the SDFE is responsible for coordinating a qualitative and quantitative report on the basis of the indicators established in 2000 on the theme of work-life balance.

Initial data collection work was carried out in 2000, using a questionnaire sent to all the Member States. The main headings of the questionnaire related to:

- The legal framework in force concerning work-life balance: length of leave, payment terms
- Statistical data about employment, demographics, leave, arrangements for childcare and elderly dependent people, etc.
- Actions and experiments undertaken: school opening times, other services available (administration, shops, etc.)

This major data collection exercise came up against several obstacles, relating mainly to:

- Data that were often disparate and partial, making comparative analysis difficult
- Late submission of data
- Lack of common terminology: the Member States did not always give the same meanings to the principal terms, such as school age, pre-school age, dependent elderly people, etc.
- Targeting mistakes: some departments that received the questionnaire were not the best-placed departments to answer it.

The survey results were completed with data from previous studies and information from European networks (gender and employment, childcare arrangements, etc.) and written up in a report by Rachel Silvera, presented during the French Presidency of the European Union in 2000 and published in 2002<sup>6</sup>.

This report is the result of new research with the following aims:

- To update the nine indicators selected in 2000, providing the most recent harmonised data for the 27 Member States (rather than the previous 15)
- To enhance this work with contributions from European studies carried out since (see the bibliography and the tables in the appendix)
- To analyse the evolution in the performance of these indicators on the basis of data culled from expert reports and European exchange networks and to engage in further critical reflection about the indicators, which require the use of other complementary data in their interpretation.

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<sup>6</sup> The report was produced under the French Presidency of the European Union in 2000. It was published following the adoption of the EU Council conclusions in November 2000: R Silvera, (2002), *Articuler vie familiale et vie professionnelle en Europe, un enjeu pour l'égalité* (Combining family and working life in Europe, an issue of equality), Service Droits des femmes et de l'égalité, la Documentation française.

## I. REVIEW OF THE NINE WORK-LIFE BALANCE INDICATORS

Based on existing Europe-wide statistical tools (see the various existing statistical sources in the appendix), we can add to and partly update the indicators selected in 2000.

*Indicator 1: Proportion of employed men and women on parental leave*

and

*Indicator 2: Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave*

### A. Evolution of the statistical data available since 2000

In the published report (Silvera, 2002, pp. 50-52) drawn from the questionnaire sent to Member States (EU-15), the responses about the use of parental leave were very incomplete: five of the fifteen countries could not give any information on these two indicators, and only four gave full responses (see table A.2 in the appendix, p. 30).

Since the report's publication, the European Commission and the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (via the EIRO network<sup>7</sup>) have carried out new work in this area. The data below is more complete, though we are still a long way from being able to fill in the tables completely.

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<sup>7</sup> This European foundation, known as the Dublin Foundation, was created by the European Commission. EIRO (European Industrial Relations Observatory) is a European network monitoring industrial relations set up by the Dublin Foundation.

**Table 1. Use of parental leave (PL) (and/or parental allowance) – data updated 2003-2005**

Western European countries	Latest available year	Rate of feminisation of PL	Women taking PL as a proportion of all eligible mothers	Men taking PL as a proportion of all eligible fathers
Germany	2007		86,3 %**	13,7 %**
Austria	2001-2003	99%*	95% of mothers*	2.2% of fathers*
Belgium	2003	86%*	6.7% of parents	
Denmark	2003	93%*	95-100% of mothers*	5% of fathers*
Spain	2003	97.9%*		
Finland	2003	95.7%		
France	2003	98%	About 33% of mothers	1% of fathers
<i>Greece</i>		>99%*	Very low, even for mothers, except in the public sector*	
Ireland	2003	84%*	40% of mothers (2001)*	5% of fathers (2001)*
Italy	2003	93%	75%	
Luxembourg	2003	96%		
Netherlands	2003	57%*	40% of mothers	13% of fathers
Portugal	No data available			
United Kingdom	2003	63%*	Very low for both parents	
Sweden	2003	84%	95-100% of mothers*	78% of "fathers' months" (but 15% of total leave)

**Eastern and central European countries**

Country	Latest year available	Rate of feminisation of PL	Women taking PL as a proportion of all eligible mothers	Men taking PL as a proportion of all eligible fathers
Cyprus	2003		low	
Estonia	2003		High for mothers	
Hungary	2003	98%*		
Latvia	2003			
Lithuania	2003	99%		
Malta	2003	Majority of mothers		
Poland	2003	98%	low	
Czech Republic	2003	99%	High for mothers	
Slovakia	2003	97.5%	99.5%*	
Slovenia	2003	98.1%	98.5%*	

Sources: European Commission, 2005; \*: Math, Meilland, EIRO (2004)

\*\* In relation to the number of births, 2007.

## B. Analysis of parental leave and evolution in its use

Following the 1996 European Directive, all employed parents have a right to at least three months' unpaid leave for the birth of each child. This leave is separate from maternity leave for mothers and from paternity leave where it exists; maternity leave varies between 14 and 20 weeks depending on the country, and is always paid (at 60 to 100 % of prior salary). In certain countries, maternity leave is integrated into parental leave (as in Sweden) or may be shared with the father (Spain).

This overview of the European situation reveals wide diversity in parental leave (in the strict sense, excluding maternity and paternity leave) in terms of both duration and payment. We must make it clear that there are no harmonised data in this area, which makes the monitoring exercise difficult. Parental leave varies from 13/14 weeks (the minimum) in the United Kingdom and Ireland to three years in ten EU-25 countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Spain). It is unpaid in seven countries (Spain Greece, Portugal, United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Cyprus); paid at a low rate in seven more (in the form of a fixed allowance subject to certain conditions, depending on the number of children, as in France with the "complément de libre choix" or free choice of activity benefit (previously APE), or in Germany, Austria, Belgium, Poland, Czech Republic and Slovakia); and paid for the whole duration or a defined part of the parental leave as a percentage of previous salary in a few countries (Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Germany and Luxembourg but also Slovenia and Lithuania) (see table A.3 in the appendix, pp. 31-32.) (see table A.3 in the appendix, pp. 31-32).

Comparing the data from 1998 to today, we can refine the analysis:

- **Regardless of the system in place, parental leave remains very female-dominated, at more than 90 %** in most countries except the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (where the leave period is very short). **The longer the leave period and the lower the pay, the less it will be taken up by mothers, and even less by fathers.** The Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries, where more fathers take up this leave, illustrate the point. However, even in these countries fathers do not take parental leave in its entirety: in Sweden, for example, in 2003, 78 % of fathers had to a some extent used the parental insurance benefit (including the "dad's two months". In 2003, 17,2 % of all days available of the parental insurance benefit (480 days) were used by men. In 2007, this figure was 20,8 %.

- More and more countries are setting up **incentives for fathers**. In Austria, in Germany and Italy, the leave period is extended if part of it is taken by the father. In Portugal and Hungary, paternity leave is five days paid. Parental leave (a year) is not paid; only the fifteen days reserved for the father are paid, and are lost by the family if the father does not use them. In Spain paternity leave is paid and is 15 days (Organic Law 3/2007). This law also establishes that in 6 years this paternity leave will be gradually extended in a total of four weeks; besides, part of the maternity leave itself can be taken by the father instead (ten weeks out of the total 16). In France, on the other hand, has extended the paternity leave period to 11 consecutive days. In place since 2002, this measure has been welcomed with real enthusiasm, demonstrating that these issues are evolving all the time. Parental leave is also well developed in the Nordic countries (particularly Finland). In Lithuania paternity leave exclusively for fathers has been introduced in 2006. The duration of the paternity leave is one month. It is fully compensated (100% of salary).
- **The changes in the data show slight progress in awareness of parental leave:** of the EU-15 countries, only Portugal does not provide any data. With regard to the ten new Member States, for which the data are still partial and fragile, the same picture is apparent: a high level of female domination and, depending on the system, high take-up by mothers (and very low by fathers).

The fact remains that parental leave still predominantly concerns women, owing to their lower pay, the persistence of traditional models of family roles and the obstacles put in place by companies which do not always encourage fathers to use these measures. Apart from the financial issue, this distancing from the world of work, even with individual guarantees, goes a long way towards explaining the low numbers of fathers involved, for whom identity at work remains central – as it is for certain women, particularly in management posts. How can a real career be resumed after a complete break of more than a year? These provisions can thus contribute to professional segregation, a segmentation of the labour market and the reinforcing of social inequalities – even for women, as in the French case, where many women in precarious circumstances have "chosen" the "complément de libre choix", amounting to about €500 (half the minimum wage),

making it more difficult for them to return to work. Similarly, a study of the Swedish situation made a link between the duration of parental leave, which remains female-dominated, and professional segregation (choice of the public sector, reduced access to management jobs for women (Marc, Zazjdela, 2007)).

We can nevertheless consider that the choice of a full-time professional career, leaving little time available for children or a personal and social life, is not an ideal either. In reality, it is the very model of working time – in which performance is measured by presence and availability – that needs to be questioned for everyone if we are to achieve the necessary forms of family or other leave and flexible hours to suit the demands of families and individuals and compatible with a new model of management within companies. From this angle, a shorter period of parental leave (about six months per parent, for example), well paid and shared by both parents, seems to provide a better response to the need for a satisfactory work-life balance for everyone.

**But in global terms, the comparison between the situation when the nine indicators were launched and their current evaluation indicates that improvement has been slight: parental leave has developed little and remains very female-dominated and the statistical data available are still inadequate.**

***Indicator 3: Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group (...)***

**The development of childcare provision** is another, complementary, solution, which may be better suited to improving the work-life balance for all. Unfortunately, the data available is far from being either uniform or complete (varying with different national systems, the ages of children accepted and the childcare methods available). However, clear progress since 2000 can be seen.

#### **A. Evolution of the indicator since the data collected in 2000**

The answers to the questionnaires sent out in 2000 proved insufficient, and other sources were used (such as Deven, Moss, 1997) to achieve a fuller picture, although it was still far from being harmonised (see table A.5 on p. 34 in the appendix). A survey harmonised across Europe now exists, covering all the Member States.

The survey certainly has its limits: for example, we know from national sources that the French data underestimate childcare. This is because the distinction between "formal" and "informal" childcare is sometimes difficult to define. The data only cover formal childcare, which supposes that the parents are in contact with a public or private provider. We can see that in the French case the indicator underestimates the importance of childminders (the main method of childcare provision in France, unlike other countries), because most are paid directly by the parents despite being State-registered (leading to the underestimation of children covered in France – see Eurostat note 7 below the table). For the other countries, our information<sup>8</sup> suggests that this underestimation is less significant, because most childcare provision involves an intermediate structure (often the town council), even when the childcare is provided in the parents' home (as in the Nordic countries). We are therefore obliged to rely on this data, because for the moment this is the only source based on a single survey across all the countries which also provides an indication of childcare hours. Other data, which are less complete and reliable (national reports supplied by the experts of the European Commission's gender and employment network, see table A.7 on p. 36 in the appendix), was also collected.

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<sup>8</sup> Information from Janneke Plantenga, coordinator of the European Commission's gender and employment network, who is preparing a summary report on childcare in Europe (not available as of June 2008).

**Table 2: Children covered by childcare provision outside the family (less than or more than 30 hours per week) as a proportion of all children of the same age**

		age 0-2 inclusive			age 3 to mandatory school age		
<b>Member States</b>		1-29 h.	>30h.	<b>Total</b>	1-29 h.	>30h.	<b>Total</b>
Germany	DE	11 %	7 %	<b>18 %</b>	66 %	27 %	<b>93 %</b>
Austria	AT	3 %	1 %	<b>4 %</b>	55 %	16 %	<b>71 %</b>
Belgium	BE	17 %	23 %	<b>40 %</b>	36 %	62 %	<b>98 %</b>
Denmark	DK	7 %	66 %	<b>73 %</b>	16 %	80 %	<b>96 %</b>
Spain	ES	20 %	19 %	<b>39 %</b>	47 %	44 %	<b>91 %</b>
Finland	FI	5 %	21 %	<b>26 %</b>	21 %	56 %	<b>77 %</b>
France	FR	14 %	17 %	<b>31 %</b>	52 %	42 %	<b>94 %</b>
Greece	EL	2 %	8 %	<b>10 %</b>	41 %	20 %	<b>61 %</b>
Italy	IT	10 %	16 %	<b>26 %</b>	24 %	66 %	<b>90 %</b>
Ireland	IE	13 %	5 %	<b>18 %</b>	80 %	13 %	<b>93 %</b>
Luxembourg	LU	14 %	17 %	<b>31 %</b>	42 %	16 %	<b>58 %</b>
Netherlands	NL	41 %	4 %	<b>45 %</b>	82 %	7 %	<b>89 %</b>
Portugal	PT	1 %	32 %	<b>33 %</b>	9 %	66 %	<b>75 %</b>
United Kingdom	UK	28 %	5 %	<b>33 %</b>	65 %	24 %	<b>89 %</b>
Sweden	SE	17 %	27 %	<b>44 %</b>	34 %	58 %	<b>92 %</b>
<b>New Member States</b>							
Bulgaria	BG	.	.		.	.	
Cyprus	CY	7 %	18 %	<b>25 %</b>	50 %	37 %	<b>87 %</b>
Estonia	EE	6 %	12 %	<b>18 %</b>	7 %	78 %	<b>85 %</b>
Hungary	HU	2 %	6 %	<b>8 %</b>	21 %	58 %	<b>79 %</b>
Latvia	LV	2 %	14 %	<b>16 %</b>	4 %	56 %	<b>60 %</b>
Lithuania	LT	0 %	4 %	<b>4 %</b>	9 %	47 %	<b>56 %</b>
Malta	MT	5 %	3 %	<b>8 %</b>	32 %	25 %	<b>57 %</b>
Poland	PL	0 %	2 %	<b>2 %</b>	7 %	21 %	<b>28 %</b>
Czech Republic	CZ	1 %	1 %	<b>2 %</b>	28 %	39 %	<b>67 %</b>
Romania	RO	.	.		.	.	
Slovakia	SK	1 %	4 %	<b>5 %</b>	10 %	63 %	<b>73 %</b>
Slovenia	SI	3 %	26 %	<b>29 %</b>	15 %	66 %	<b>81 %</b>

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC 2006 data.

## Notes provided by Eurostat:

- 1) The "formal arrangements" correspond to answers 1 to 4 of the EU-SILC survey (pre-school or equivalent, mandatory school, childcare outside school hours, council crèches or other childcare centres (kindergartens, etc.) including childcare in the home inspected or organised by a private or public body
- 2) Only childcare of more than an hour a week is counted
- 3) Some children do not use childcare provision if their parent is on parental leave for a younger child
- 4) The children's age is calculated as at the survey date, except for Ireland and Finland, where the age is calculated as at 31/12/2004
- 5) Certain countries, such as Belgium, do not collect data for children aged 12 or over at the time of the survey
- 6) Cyprus, Latvia, Portugal, Slovakia: no information collected for children born between 31/12/2004 and the survey date
- 7) France: children cared for by childminders paid directly by their parents, with no intermediate structure, are not included in the table
- 8) Ireland: for all age groups, childcare of 1 to 29 hours is overestimated and that of 30 hours is underestimated owing to a measurement error

## Analysis of childcare provision and evolution

- **The first observation arising from the comparison of the tables from these two periods is the definite progress in statistical coverage: only Bulgaria and Romania have not yet provided data, and this will be rectified soon.**

- Secondly, the comparison **for children aged 2 and under** is very interesting: since 2000 major progress has been made in the countries in which childcare for the very young was almost non-existent. These countries are the United Kingdom (increasing from about 2 % to 20-30 %), the Netherlands (from about 10 % in 1998 to 40 % now) and, above all, the southern countries (Spain from 2 to 39 %, Italy from 6 to 25 %). On the other hand, a certain stability can be seen in the countries where these rates were already high (the Nordic countries, except Denmark which is still showing progress, and France and Belgium, although we believe the survey data underestimates the reality for France, probably closer to 45 %, which seems to be less true of other countries). All the figures seem to suggest a threshold at around 40-50 % which is difficult to overcome in childcare for very young children. **Seven countries of the 27 now satisfy the Barcelona criterion (over 33 % of zero to three year-olds receiving childcare)**, but we should separate the zero-one year-olds from the one-three year-olds because we know that public childcare for babies is very underdeveloped. On the other hand, little or no progress can be observed in Austria and Greece. **In the new Member States, the situation is problematic**: except in Slovenia, which cares for 24 % of young children, the rates are below 10 % in most of these countries.
  
- However, **more than ten countries provide group childcare for 90 % of children aged three to six, and seven more have figures between 70 and 90 %**. This coincides with the maturity of long-term parental leave and the development of pre-school provision. Two issues remain to be tackled, however: the time allowed by school hours is low overall, particularly in public systems (around four to five hours a day in Germany or the Netherlands, for example, owing to part-time operation; this is less true in private centres offering longer hours). Strategies such as one parent working only part-time, families helping each other or calling on other complementary individual childcare arrangements become necessary for those who want a real full-time career. In these cases, problems arise with the quality of these services, the well-being of the children (sometimes outside the home for many hours a day, passing through the hands of two or three successive childcare providers during the day) and the cost borne by the family.

## Childcare provision outside school hours

The definition of indicator 3 also covers times outside school hours. Few studies deal with this aspect. The only comparison possible is to use the European Union's statistical data on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) (Table 2).

According to the SILC data, for children under three, only seven of the 23 countries (which supplied data) provide childcare of less than 29 hours a week. Therefore, where childcare provision exists (which is not the case everywhere), it tends to cover a wide range of hours (provision of more than 30 hours is compatible with professional activity for both parents, which is why this criterion was chosen).

For over-threes, things are similar: ten countries favour childcare provision of less than 29 hours. Note that in certain countries (Germany, Austria, the Netherlands and Ireland) a large majority of children receive childcare for short periods (but we do not have details of actual times).

***Indicator 4: Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life***

No information was given for indicator 4 in previous work. Of the nine indicators, this is the only one proposing a qualitative approach based on the Member States implementing policies in favour of work-life balance. This is why we relied on work by experts in the European Commission's gender and employment network, who produced national reports in 2006 entitled "*Reconciliation of work and family life*". The use of this single source to analyse this indicator introduces a bias in that it consists of work carried out by national experts, rather than information provided directly by the Member States. The following boxes therefore summarise both existing measures and analysis by expert specialists in this topic. Of the 27 Member States, two countries (Estonia and Poland) have not yet submitted their reports, and are thus not included in the table below.

In these reports we have tried, on the basis of presentations of the various measures dealing with the issue of work-life balance, to extract the strategies put in place by the Member States, the main measures taken and finally the planned directions for future work.

**The strategy:** here we identify the explicit or implicit strategy underlying the provision put in place and the policies put into practice. Certain countries have a clearly identified strategy, generally seeking to improve gender equality policy (creating an integrated leave system: Netherlands, Denmark, Finland, etc.). In other countries, the strategy is based on the underlying principle that women are the "pillar" of family responsibilities (Italy, Austria, Ireland, etc.), and for a third group the issue is tacked on to other preoccupations considered to be more urgent, such as women's access to employment (Latvia, Hungary, Bulgaria, etc.).

**Principal measures:** here we identify the most significant measures, rather than presenting an exhaustive survey: measures which sometimes lead to a withdrawal of mothers from the employment market (Malta), measures which emphasise a voluntary policy (Finland, Denmark, etc.) or a lack of measures to remedy the inadequacy of childcare infrastructure (Bulgaria, Romania).

**The directions for work** refer to either an evaluation of the length of maternity or parental leave (Germany, France, Denmark, Finland, etc.), the need to raise the issue with companies (Portugal, Luxembourg, etc.) or new ideas (Belgium – a time savings account; France, Spain – involving fathers).

Global policies here are approached principally through the availability of childcare for very young children, arrangements for flexible hours and financial incentives.

**Table 3: Analyses of global policy in each country**

<p><b>GERMANY</b></p> <p><b>Strategy</b></p> <p>1. While in eastern Germany nearly half of all children under three are cared for in crèches or by day mothers and fathers, in western Germany only about one-tenth of children of the same age is cared for externally. The sustainable expansion of day care, especially for children under three years, is therefore crucial for the reconciliation of work and family life as well as for early advancement of children. The German federal government, federal states and local authorities therefore set the common average target rate of 35 percent day care quota for children under three, including a legal claim, to be achieved by 2013. This rate complies with European average on the one hand and corresponds to the needs of parents and children in Germany on the other hand.</p> <p>2. With the action programme “Vocational Reintegration as a Perspective” the German government wants to reintegrate women into the labour market after a prolonged family-related leave of absence.</p> <p><b>Principal measures</b></p> <p>1. The expansion of day care, especially for children under three years, tailored to the special needs of parents and children by quantity and quality, will improve the reconciliation of work and family life considerably. Beside, it is an essential step on the way to equal opportunities for all children. Therefore, the German federal government focuses on varied and family-oriented day care facilities.</p> <p>2. The government promotes initiatives and measures, which enable an easier reintegration, strengthen the awareness of the employers that women after a family break have a good potential to work for at least another two decades and could be a solution for the high skills shortages and gain men for the campaign to support their female partners in reintegration</p> <p><b>Directions for work</b></p> <p>1. Within the next five years, the German federal government, federal states and local authorities invest about 12 billion Euros in the expansion of day care for children under three. This investment includes in particular the creation of significantly more crèche facilities, the recruitment and training of day mothers and fathers as well as initiatives for more quality in child day care.</p> <p>In order to support a family-friendly working environment, a co-operation between the government, business and trade unions aims to turn family-friendliness into a business case and a hallmark of German economy.</p> <p>2. The efforts to improve the reintegration of women are of great importance within the context of equal rights policy in a lifelong perspective. The intention is an equal access to the labour market for women, to achieve a reduction of the gender pay gap in the long-run and to contribute for a better financial and social assurance of women</p>
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<p><b>AUSTRIA</b></p> <p><b>Strategy</b></p> <p>Since 2000, the government's family policy has emphasised financial advantages in the area of leave. Parental leave is long, while childcare provision for children under three is relatively undeveloped. This does not necessarily encourage young mothers to remain in the job market.</p> <p><b>Principal measures</b></p> <p>While the childcare system for three to six year olds is satisfactory, provision for under-threes and school-age children is inadequate.</p> <p>Since the 2002 reforms, two different methods of support coexist: parental leave and a childcare benefit (new measure). Parental leave for each child can last up to two years, and the childcare benefit extends this leave by a further year (until the child's third birthday). The orientations set at federal level run the risk of leading certain provinces or towns to reconsider their childcare policies for young children (under three), which have lower priority.</p> <p><b>Directions for work</b></p> <p>Central innovations in the actual legislative period have contributed to make the compatibility of family and work life in Austria easier. Since Jan 1 2008, there is an amendment to the childcare benefit: parents can choose between three different possibilities:</p> <p>Childcare benefit new: Alternative 15 plus 3 (new): 800 euros/months up to the 15-th life month of the child if only one parent is in charge of the child. In case that two parents are in charge of the baby, the length is extended at most up to the 18-th life month.</p>
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Alternative 20 plus 4 (new):

Who covers childcare benefit up to 20-th life month of his child, receives 624 euros/month. In case that both parents take care of the baby, the length is extended at most up to the 24-th life month.

Alternative 30 plus 6:

As before there are 436 euros monthly if only one parent gets the childcare benefit. In case that both parents take care of the baby, the length can be extended at most up to the 36-th life month of the child.

The new childcare benefit brings another advantage: the limit for additional income was raised to 1,600 euros and is now uniformly for all recipients 16,200 euros/year. The parents who would like to maintain the contact with the company also during the maternity leave, have the possibility to remain employed within the raised limit for additional income, now.

In addition, the reorganisation of the limit for additional income and the different options for the drawing of the childcare benefit should raise the incentive for fathers to take part increasingly in the family work.

The expansion of the institutional care offers for children up to school entry as well as the education for day mothers and day fathers is supported.

## **BELGIUM**

### **Strategy**

A varied system of measures covers almost all needs (public childcare, parental leave and financial support).

### **Principal measures**

A high level of coverage encourages public childcare from birth to three years of age. A system of free nursery schooling is open to almost all children.

### **Directions for work**

A time savings account system is currently being examined.

## **BULGARIA**

### **Strategy**

Due to the traditional family model children under three years of age are brought up in family environment. All insured mothers are entitled to long paid pregnancy/maternity leave (90% of last wages for 45 weeks) and leave for upbringing of the child (the minimum wage up to two years of the child/, depending meanwhile to a certain extent on the intergenerational solidarity in the family. At the same time, more and more Family Centres for Children are being opened, for mothers who want to go to work and need part- or fulltime care for their children during the day. The childcare is provided by qualified former unemployed women.

### **Principal measures**

*In Support of Motherhood* programme, which is part of the active labour market measures for reconciliation of work and family life, envisages opportunities for mothers who wish to get back to work (after the expiration of the pregnancy/maternity leave) to choose an unemployed person from the Labour Office to take care (at the home of the mother/child) of her child for the period up to 3 years of the child. The expenses for the unemployed person (wages and social insurance contributions) are on the account of the state budget.

### **Directions for work**

Legislative opportunities and awareness raising among fathers to get more involved in the upbringing of their children, including through the existing opportunities to take instead of the mother the paid leave for upbringing of the child, the envisaged paternity leave to help the mothers during the first 15 days after the birth, etc.

## **CYPRUS**

### **Strategy**

Equality at work is a very recent preoccupation.

### **Principal measures**

. Thirteen weeks' unpaid parental leave are available for each parent, but cannot be transferred from one to the other. Little data is available.

### **Directions for work**

The creation of paid paternity leave may help influence mentalities in both the domestic and professional spheres. To achieve this, men should continue to be involved in these issues (parental leave) and a culture of equality should be developed in national political debate.

## **DENMARK**

### **Strategy**

Funding childcare for young children is a public responsibility. Most childcare providers receive public finance.

### **Principal measures**

Towns that are not able to offer childcare facilities for children aged between nine months and six years risk having to pay financial compensation to parents (2005). Family leave (maternity, paternity, parental) is among the most generous and flexible in Europe (the parental leave allocated to each parent was extended from ten to 32 weeks in 2002). Family allowances are paid according to the age and number of children.

### **Directions for work**

A public debate is beginning about the "parental leave trap" and in particular the negative effects of extending its length.

## **SPAIN**

### **Strategy**

The work-life balance law (1999) introduced a number of measures relating to both leave and childcare. This law was modified by the Organic Act 3/2007 of 22 March for the effective between women and men which extends paternity leave and improves notably maternity leaves.

### **Principal measures**

Childcare for children under three is built into the education system, but the hours are not compatible with the needs of working parents and the costs are high. Maternity and paternity leave are paid. Fathers have their own paternity leave and can claim a part of the maternity leave (up to ten of the 16 weeks allowed). With regard to financial support (tax relief, family allowance). Measures have been taken by law 35/2007 which establishes tax benefits and financial aids for birth and adoption.

### **Directions for work**

Paternity leave will be extended gradually extended to a total of four weeks within the six years in order to further involve fathers in care for young children and developing experiments in "spatio-temporal policy" similar to the concept of "bureaux des temps" or "time offices".

## **FINLAND**

### **Strategy**

Finland was one of the first countries to develop provision (childcare structures, family leave, family allowances), and is evolving towards greater involvement of fathers in family care.

### **Principal measures**

Legislation covering childcare structures, family leave and family allowances is well developed.

### **Directions for work**

It is important for family well-being and happiness that fathers take on greater responsibility for domestic work, and particularly looking after children. This poses the question of parents' time budgets.

## **FRANCE**

### **Strategy**

The State has long played a central role in the offer of services relating to young children. France is known for the quality of its childcare system for children aged three to six (nursery schooling). Policies promoting equality and the balance between work and private life are among the reasons for a high level of employment among women and one of the highest fertility rates in Europe.

### **Principal measures**

A wide variety of childcare arrangements is available for children from birth to three (crèches, childminders, etc.), although not all requirements are covered. Free nursery schooling integrated into the education system takes care of children aged from two and a half to six years. There is a wide variety of measures relating to leave options: maternity leave, paternity leave, three years' parental leave, etc. Parents can receive an allowance for bringing up their children (the "complément de libre choix d'activité"), which has been very successful with mothers living in difficult circumstances who have withdrawn from the labour market and are having problems returning to it.

### **Directions for work**

The State and certain local authorities have engaged in spatio-temporal policies (experiments with "time offices"). The establishment of paternity leave aims to consolidate the involvement of men in family responsibilities. The goal is to encourage businesses (management, staff and staff representatives) to get involved in proposing new practice with regard to parenting.

## **GREECE**

### **Strategy**

Childcare provision includes public crèches and nurseries operated by local councils and private crèches, which leads to a decentralisation of the public system. Capacity and daily opening hours are currently being extended.

### **Principal measures**

The cost of childcare is high for parents, and varies from one area to another and from one private provider to another.

The most widespread childcare arrangement is still to call on the grandparents. Maternity leave is 17 weeks in the private sector and 5 months in the public sector. Family allowances, set at a low level, give little incentive.

### **Directions for work**

A series of measures are taken in the new Code on civil servants (law 3528/2007) in order to support women in their efforts to combine work and family. Furthermore, for the first time fathers employed in the civil sector are eligible for parental leave.

## **IRELAND**

### **Strategy**

Public policy provides for maternity leave, parental leave, carer's leave (and carer's benefit), force majeure leave and adoptive leave to help with work/life balance, especially for parents.

The Agreed Programme for Government includes a commitment to work with the social partners to promote the greater availability for family-friendly work practices. There is a National Framework Committee for Work/Life balance which is charged with supporting the development of family friendly policies at the level of the enterprise.

Ireland has significantly increased the supply of crèche-based childcare services since 1999 grants were also available to assist community-based providers with a strong focus on disadvantage. Capital grants are continuing under a current Exchequer-funded programme, which also provides grant aid to allow community childcare providers to charge reduced fees to disadvantaged parents. In addition to the subsidised childcare referred to above, all parents of pre-school children receive an annual payment of €1,100 towards the higher child care costs associated with pre-school children. This supplements Child Benefit which has increased very significantly over the past ten years as a direct payment to parents to help them meet the cost of the child care arrangements for their children. Parents receive Child Benefit for all children up to their 16<sup>th</sup> birthday, and up to their 19<sup>th</sup> birthday where they are in full-time education (subject to a residence requirement).

### **Principal measures**

Most childcare services are provided either by close relatives, paid or unpaid, or by the private market (professional childminders, crèches, etc.). The system is the most expensive in Europe. Parental leave – for both parents – is the least generous in Europe in both duration and payment (14 weeks unpaid leave), and is largely taken by mothers. Paternity leave is not established in law.

**Directions for work**

Early-years care requires the development of new resources. In 2007, the National Women's Strategy 2007-2016 was published with the aim of creating an Ireland where all women enjoy equality with men and can achieve their full potential, while enjoying a safe and fulfilling life. The Strategy has three key objectives :

- . Equalising socio-economic opportunity for women
- . Ensuring the well-being of women and
- . Engaging as equal and active citizens and aims to address all issues impacting upon women's lives.

**HUNGARY****Strategy**

Women usually work only full-time, there are not many part-time possibilities, with few corresponding encouragement to men to take on a share of the domestic tasks. But mothers of young children as yet have few childcare options under age of 3 of the child.

**Principal measures**

Most children aged three go to nursery school. Childcare fee is provided on the basis of social insurance system (70 % salary with ceiling) until the age of 2 of the child. If the mother is not eligible for this benefit or the age of the child is over 2, universal child care allowance is provided until the age of 3 years of the child. Universal child raising support is provided for parents raising three or more minor children (among them the youngest child is 3-8 years old). Both are equivalent to the amount of the minimum old age pension. Mothers may spend three years on parental leave without losing the connection with their employers. The "young child expenses" allowance is paid on the basis of a social insurance system. Fathers have 5 exclusive days, paid.

**Directions for work**

Developing the "family kindergartens" system.  
Care for elderly people is also becoming a critical problem.

**ITALY****Strategy**

The current system, based on family allowances, does not provide enough incentive for women to return to work. There does not seem to be any clear strategy in this area.

**Principal measures**

The childcare options for children under three are very limited, may have consequences on the level of women's employment, more particularly for leading mothers (particularly those who do not have a close family network to call on) to leave the job market. The same is true for those who cannot use public or private services (crèches and childminders) owing to the high costs. In addition, the rigid opening hours of these services do not make it easy to organise time.

**Directions for work**

The goal is to promote women's employment, which has already registered an increase (1995-2005), and develop integrated measures related to work's organisation, parental leave and child care services. In particular, initiatives at the local level may be stressed : they encourage the conciliation between family life and professional obligations, in order to promote equality and to encourage coordination between the opening times of services, shops and businesses to help people, and particularly women, to organise their time.

**LATVIA****Strategy**

Clearly established right for both parents to childcare leave and the corresponding allowance. Relatively sufficient kindergarten availability for children aged from 3 to mandatory school age.

**Principal measures**

The number of places for children aged less than a year and between one and two years is very limited, better availability for older children.

The opening hours of public facilities not yet sufficiently extended.

Each parent entitled to 18 months childcare leave until the child's age eight years. A paternity leave of 10 days introduced.

**Directions for work**

Broadening of kindergarten availability to families, especially, for smaller children and developing of alternative childcare facilities.

## LITHUANIA

### Strategy

The accent is on policies to improve working conditions and allow for flexible working hours.

### Principal measures

The system is based primarily on benefits and leave, with little focus on childcare: family allowances, tax system (tax deductions for childcare costs, relief for accommodation expenses, etc.), protection for pregnant women, maternity leave (70 days before child birth) parental leave, paternity leave, etc

### Directions for work

The 1998 law on equal opportunities for women and men do not cover reconciliation issues, particularly with regard to the active role of men in reconciling family life with work. In 2006, one month length fully paid paternity leave for fathers has been established by the Labour Code.

## LUXEMBOURG

### Strategy

The government's policy includes a number of financial incentives.

### Principal measures

The number of crèche places and time slots have greatly increased in the last few years. Mothers mostly take parental leave full-time, while fathers take it in part-time form. There are various financial support options in addition to maternity and parental leave: a child-rearing allowance, a fixed child-rearing payment, "année-nourrissons" or "infant years", family allowance and child tax credit, all subject to conditions.

### Directions for work

The goal is to work on employers' negative perceptions of parental leave, which can lead to discriminatory practice.

## MALTA

### Strategy

The women's employment rate is particularly low, while that of men is one of the highest among the 27 EU countries.

### Principal measures

The childcare infrastructure for the very young (birth to three years) is almost non-existent, but parents cannot count on grandparents to back them up as they themselves are unavailable owing to work.

Nursery school for three to five year-olds does not offer flexible enough hours to satisfy the needs of parents working full-time.

### Directions for work

There is a need for accessible childcare centres for young children and school hours compatible with working hours.

## NETHERLANDS

### Strategy

An integrated leave system (the "*life course scheme*") targets the combination of professional and family responsibilities. It involves sharing responsibility between all parties involved (State, parents, employers).

### Principal measures

Childcare facilities for young children (birth to three years and three to six years) have developed greatly since 1990. However, informal provision via families is still used (grandmothers, friends).

The "*life course scheme*", has been introduced in Netherlands. In many cases, parental leave is paid for (specific about this are made in collective labour agreements). It is based on a time savings account. Compared with services and the leave system, financial support is underdeveloped. In addition, part-time working is almost the norm among women.

### Directions for work

The role of employers in providing support to their staff in combining their professional and family responsibilities is well established. A debate is unfolding on the usefulness of purely financial measures (tax credits for parents, various benefits), which are not viewed as instruments in work-life balance policy but rather as additional income. Experiments in organising time are taking place at local level.

## **PORTUGAL**

### **Strategy**

Until now, work has concentrated on childcare provision.

### **Principal measures**

Childcare facilities are clearly inadequate and are considered costly by parents owing to low salaries (particularly women's salaries). Paternity leave is five days paid and is mandatory. Grandparental leave also exists for working parents of very young parents.

### **Directions for work**

The aim is to combine efforts made by various actors concerned by the issue of reconciliation between work and family life and to develop different types of measures.

## **CZECH REPUBLIC**

### **Strategy**

A policy to encourage the harmonisation of work with family life is being put into action.

### **Principal measures**

The network of nursery schools, far from being cut back, has been improved and developed to offer parents more choice. The crèche network is much sparser than the nursery school coverage. Times have been made more flexible. Parents pay in proportion to their income.

### **Directions for work**

Businesses must create a framework and a context to enable employees to combine work with family life.

## **ROMANIA**

### **Strategy**

The strategy is to develop childcare options for young children through public institutions and to provide families with financial support (family allowances, etc.).

### **Principal measures**

Paid maternity leave is 18 weeks, and paid parental leave can extend to the child's second birthday. Following parental leave, women are guaranteed the right to return to their previous job.

### **Directions for work**

A programme to improve the social protection system for children is in progress. The same is true for the health system for women (birth and post-natal care).

## **UNITED KINGDOM**

### **Strategy**

The UK aims to make up for lost time in the field of childcare for young children: improving existing facilities and setting up new measures (increasing the number of places to 1 million for 1.5 million eligible children).

### **Principal measures**

The duration and pay of maternity leave were improved in 2003. Two weeks' paternity leave with payment at a fixed rate was established in the same year. A family allowance was provided for all families in 2005.

### **Directions for work**

The New Childcare Sufficiency Duty on local authorities will ensure that there is sufficient childcare for working parents, which came into force on 1 April 2008, will be key to ensuring that parents are able to work and that children can enjoy the clear benefits of early years and childcare provision.

## **SLOVAKIA**

### **Strategy**

The issue of sharing family responsibilities entered public debate in the 1990s. Choosing the model of the two-income family is a question of survival for most families.

### **Principal measures**

The number of crèches and kindergartens for very young children has fallen owing to a number of closures. These services require highly skilled staff, involve high costs and call for a significant financial contribution from the parents.

Maternity leave in Slovakia lasts for 27 weeks. From the end of maternity leave there starts parental leave, which lasts till the child reaches 3 years. During parental leave parents receive parental allowance. Parental allowance is an iteration family allowance for parents to provide adequate care for the child up to 3 years. Parental allowance can be also given to working parents, who have provided child care by different person, or have provided child care in a facility, which does not receive any state allowance. In the past 2 years parental allowance *increased* for the 2 times. In present days there is being prepared a draft of a new social allowance, namely child care allowance. As of January 1, 2009, parental allowance will be given only to parents, who provide child care personally. Employed parents will receive child care allowance to cover part of documented expenses for providing child care by different person or in the child care facility.

### **Directions for work**

The work life policy needs to be supported. It is necessary to involve companies in the reconciliation of work, private and family life and to emphasize social responsibility.

## **SLOVENIA**

### **Strategy**

Through its young-children policy, Slovenia aims to help parents improve the quality of family life and create the best conditions for children to develop physically and mentally.

### **Principal measures**

The provision of childcare services for young children by the public authorities is a long-standing tradition in Slovenia. It is complemented by private initiatives which widen parents' choice. Children under a year old are not eligible for this provision, which only covers children aged one to six (until mandatory school age).

Maternity leave, parental leave (well paid) and paternity leave are "rights" financed by the State.

### **Directions for work**

Companies must be encouraged to put in place policies that favour families.

## **SWEDEN**

### **Strategy**

Family policy should strengthen parents power their lives and increase families freedom of choice. Family policy should also make it easier for both parents to combine working life with family life, especially when the children are small. The conditions for gender equality should be improved.

### **Principal measures**

Parental leave is generally taken in the first year by mothers and then by fathers (part of the leave is lost if it is not taken by the father). More and more fathers are taking parental leave, and this is particularly true for fathers with a high level of education.

### **Directions for work**

Work-life balance policy is a necessary but not a sufficient condition: what now needs to be debated is the scarcity of long-term employment contracts. How does this scarcity affect women, men and families; what are its effects on equality in the workplace and the equitable distribution of family responsibilities?

We can see that all the countries that have prepared a report can be placed on a continuum, ranging from Member States, which are extending or improving existing policy (Scandinavian countries, etc.), to the countries for which the issue of equality at work is a relatively new concern, where the emergence of a culture of equality is evolving more quickly (predominantly the new entrants), via the countries that are half-way along the route and apparently accelerating their progress (Italy, Spain, etc.).

Some countries' reports raise the ambiguity that characterises the relationship between parental leave and employment for the mothers of young children: on the one hand, the existence of generous leave provision in terms of both duration and pay can help increase the human capital in the long term, but on the other hand we know that a long absence from the labour market does not add the value to a professional career that makes it easy to remain in the job market with a good level of pay and consequently a guaranteed pension.

With indicator 4, the purpose of which includes interpreting global employment policy, we have also tried to bring out information about the opening hours of public services and shops, information which was supposed to be covered by indicators 6 and 7, for which we were unable to find available summary information.

We note that the issue of the opening hours of public services and shops is being looked at using a spatio-temporal approach that originated in Italy. The aim was to co-ordinate opening hours better across individual districts in order to make life easier for users in work, and particularly women. This led certain countries to initiate new ideas and experiments in terms of organisation and process. The Netherlands, for example, has sought to transform "mono-functional spaces" into "multi-functional, multi-user spaces": a school, taking children aged from under a year up to twelve, aligns itself with office hours while transforming itself into a centre which can house other services intended to respond to the community's needs (support services, childcare services outside school hours, etc.), becoming the "beating heart of the town".

These experiments seem to be multiplying at local level, but unfortunately remain difficult to read from a European viewpoint as yet. Programmes of this kind can be found in particular in Germany, Spain, France, Italy and the Netherlands.

**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 (...)**

## **A. Evolution of the data available since 2000**

In the previous report, the information about this indicator did not allow for a breakdown by gender or detailed age range - the over-65 category was the only one listed. The many sources used (OECD, EEC, specific questionnaire sent to Member States) and the reference periods (1985 to 1994) made it difficult to read the data in a useful way (see table A.8 on p. 39 in the appendix). The report pointed out the lack of information about this population category, despite the fact that the predicted ageing of the European population calls for an information system to be set up to inform the public measures such a situation requires. The report also emphasised the central role of mothers and daughters in caring for children and dependent elderly people, making it all the more important to develop support structures.

Since then, more detailed methodological research has been carried out by a European Commission working group (EUROSTAT) on the subject of population and social conditions. This work was done in July 2003, looking at "comparable statistics in the area of care of dependent adults in the EU".<sup>9</sup>

This data reconciliation and comparison work was carried out on the basis of surveys conducted between 1997 and 2001, but only covers seven countries. Table 5 illustrates the difficulties inherent in such an exercise: the data sets do not cover the same period or the same reference population (the German data covers *people needing* long-term care, while the Luxembourg data is for *beneficiaries* of long-term care).

Despite these inconsistencies, and even if the data is not always recent, the conclusions seem interesting: the survey describes about 7 million dependent adults in Europe (EU-25). Regardless of the limits of such an exercise, one constant factor is clear: dependency increases with age. But recourse to institutions remains low (about 10 %) except in Luxembourg (45 %).

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<sup>9</sup> The research initially reviewed the terminology in use in the different countries, emphasising the first problem: the terminology specific to each country describes situations differently, which obviously makes any attempt at comparison difficult. Next, the sets of statistics were reconciled, making clear at every stage the limits of the exercise, and finally recommendations were proposed.

**Table 4: Data on dependent people broken down by housing type and age group**

	France		Germany		Luxembourg		Netherlands		Austria		Sweden		Great Britain	
Reference population of the survey	Total population		People requiring long-term care (15 years and over)		Beneficiaries of long-term care (40 years and over)		Total population (65 years and over)		Total population		Total population		Total population (65 years and over)	
Survey year	1998		1999		2002		1999		2000		2000		2000	
Housing type	P	I	P	I	P	I	P	I	P	I	P	I	P	I
<b>All ages</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>98</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>4</b>
Age 60-65	99.3	0.7	78.0	22.0	73.4	26.6	99.8	0.2	98.8	1.2				
Age 65-70			79.1	20.9			99.1	0.9	98.1	1.9	98.6	1.4	99.6	0.4
Age 70-75	97.9	2.1	77.8	22.2	65.4	34.6	97.0	3.0	96.1	3.9			99.4	1.0
Age 75-80			72.8	27.2			90.6	9.4	92.5	7.5	95.3	4.7	97.4	2.6
Age 80-85	87.8	12.2	68.4	31.6	47.6	52.4	77.8	22.2	87.0	13.0	89.1	10.9	93.0	6.6
Age 85-90			63.4	36.6			61.7	38.3	79.0	21.0	75.9	24.1	84.0	16.0
Age 90+	69.3	30.7	56.7	43.3	35.9	64.1	49.1	50.9	70.8	29.2	53.7	46.3	69.0	31.0

Source: EUROSTAT, comparable statistics in the area of care of dependent adults in the EU

**P: Private housing I: Institution**

**Interpretation note:** In France, of everyone aged 70 to 80, 2.1 % live in institutions; this is the case for 34.6 % of people in Luxembourg in the same age range.

**Table 5: Percentage breakdown by sex of dependent people aged over 75 living in institutions, with help in the home other than the family or cared for by the family<sup>10</sup>**

	2002			2003			2004			2005			2006		
	Total	Men	Women												
<b>Denmark</b>															
1	6.4			5.9			5.9			4.5			3.83		
2	50.2			49.6			48.3			49.1			50		
<b>France</b>															
help in the home										9	6	11			
care institutions										7	4	3			
<b>Finland</b>															
6	5	3.3	5.7	4.7	3.1	5.4	4.5	3.1	5.3	4.3	2.9	5	4.2	2.8	4.8
7	2.8	1.8	3.3	2.6	1.7	3.1	2.5	1.7	2.9	2.5	1.6	2.9	2.4	1.5	2.8
8	12.1	8.6	13.3	11.7	8.9	13.1				11.8	9	13.2			
9	3.4			3.5			3.6			3.7			3.7		
10	5.3			5.5			5.5			5.4			5.6		
<b>Sweden</b>															
3		3	6												
4		7	7												
5		2	8												

Source: national data (NRPs) updated in October 2007

notes:

- 1 in specialist institutions
- 2 people aged over 80 receiving help in the home
- 3 people aged 65-84 receiving public sector support
- 4 people aged 65-84 cared for by the other member of the household
- 5 people aged 65-84 cared for by family or friends
- 6 people aged over 75 living in a retirement home
- 7 people aged over 75 hospitalised for treatment for at least 90 days (first data from 2004)
- 8 people benefiting from treatment in the home
- 9 people receiving benefits during the year
- 10 intensive nursing care (night and day) in the home

This table is taken from the "*indicators for monitoring the Employment Guidelines including indicators for additional employment analysis, 2008 compendium, last update 10/03/2008*".

**Interpretation note:** in Finland in 2006, 4.2 % of dependent people aged over 75 lived in retirement homes.

**This second table corresponds almost word-for-word with indicator 5,** but unfortunately it is still very sparsely filled in.

Only four countries supplied data:

<sup>10</sup> Data for Germany:

	2002			2003			2004			2005			2006		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women									
Germany															
Outpatient care <sup>10</sup>	12,8	10,7	13,7	12,4	10,3	13,3	12,4	10,2	13,3	12,2	10,1	13,2	12,0	9,9	13,0
Inpatient care	7,7	3,6	9,4	7,6	3,6	9,4	7,6	3,6	9,5	7,6	3,6	9,5	7,6	3,7	9,6

Table from "*Indicators for monitoring the Employment Guidelines including indicators for additional employment analysis, 2008 compendium, last update 10/03/2008*".

For Denmark, the data for the period 2002 to 2006, not broken down by sex, counts people living in institutions on one hand and people receiving help in the home (half of all dependent people) on the other.

For France, the data concerns people living in institutions (7 %) and people benefiting from help in the home (9 %) for the year 2005.

Finland is the only country with complete data broken down by sex concerning the whole period: this seems to reflect its relative head start in anticipating society's ageing (about 16 % of dependent elderly people benefit from public support).

For Sweden, the data broken down by sex related to the year 2002: people aged 65-84 living in institutions or receiving help from a household member or relative.

No doubt the table would benefit from being filled in for all the Member States, which would provide a better response to the goal of indicator 5, to find out the involvement of the public authorities and of families in supporting dependent elderly people. These few details show that, apart from the financial help in Denmark, public intervention is weak, which implies that families have an essential role<sup>11</sup>, even if they do not always take charge of those elderly people living at home.

In recent years the issue of the ageing population has become a major concern for the Member States, leading them to set up an information system to provide better data on the over-50 population.

The SHARE survey (*Survey on Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe*) coordinated by the OECD and initiated in 2002 is repeated every two years. This is an international, multidisciplinary operation which aims to study the population aged 50 and over. The over-75 population can now be studied separately.

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<sup>11</sup> We know from other studies, and especially qualitative surveys, that it is women, as daughters or daughters-in-law, who provide this help.

This survey is a first to the extent that it uses an opinion poll method to survey households in quantitative terms. It looks at the issue of population ageing from three complementary angles: the economic angle, the health angle and the social network angle, of which the family network is by far the most important. It is concerned with three stages of ageing: before, after and settling into retirement. It is this last category that draws most attention from families, and it is this information that enables indicator 5 to be clarified and completed.

The first data to be published does not cover all the European countries. However, the survey is promising in that its aim is to cover all European countries and go even further.

The data is thus not always completed from the same initial angle (i.e. from the viewpoint of children, and especially daughters and daughters-in-law caring for their parents or parents-in-law), but it is still relevant to the purposes of the indicator. It should be noted that throughout Europe the majority of dependent people are women (especially in the over-85 age group).

Table 6 unfortunately only covers six countries, which shows that support from the family circle is common (around 80 %), even if this support is from a distance (i.e. it is provided by a family member who does not live with the dependent person, particularly in the Netherlands and Sweden).

Table 6

## Proportion of dependent elderly people supported by their families

In %

	Germany	Spain	France	Italy	Netherlands	Sweden
Dependent elderly people cohabiting with another person	54	68	60	63	42	37
Dependent elderly people living alone with help from family living elsewhere	29	16	26	24	37	42
Total dependent elderly people supported by their families	83	95	96	87	79	79

*Interpretation: in Germany, 83 % of dependent elderly people are supported by their families in one form or another; 54 % cohabit with someone and 29 % live alone but receive help from family living elsewhere.*

*Scope: households of people aged over 65 suffering from severe incapacity or light to moderate incapacity, excluding couples in which both partners are dependent, weighted data.*

*Source: SHARE survey, 2004.*

Table taken from R Fontaine, A Gramain, J Wittner, 2007.

Table 7

## Rate of inter-generational cohabitation of children with a dependent parent, whether alone or with a partner

In %

	Daughters			Sons			All children		
	With partner	Alone	p* (1)	With partner	Alone	p* (1)	With partner	Alone	p* (1)
Germany	2	9	0.15	5	9	0.37	4	9	0.11
Spain	6	37	< 0.01	16	14	0.78	11	29	0.02
France	5	8	0.56	1	9	0.15	3	9	0.17
Italy	9	30	0.08	22	29	0.56	19	26	0.10
Netherlands	2	2	0.80	3	4	0.70	3	3	0.92
Sweden	1	1	0.82	1	0	0.32	1	1	0.76

1. P-value for the rates according to the matrimonial situation of the dependent parent.

*Interpretation: in Germany, 2 % of daughters cohabit with a dependent parent if the parent has a partner, and 9 % if the parent has no partner. The probability of making a mistake in concluding that these proportions are different is 15 %.*

*Scope: children of dependent elderly people aged over 65 with three or fewer children, excluding couples in which both partners are dependent, weighted data.*

*Source: SHARE survey, 2004.*

Altogether, the involvement of children is higher when the parent has no spouse. Note that in Spain and Italy this involvement is very high (in line with the traditional family model). Italian sons are almost as involved as daughters.

## **B. Analysis of data on care for elderly dependent people**

Since 2000, the demographic issues facing Member States have led to a burgeoning of research work into ageing with a particular focus on the population of elderly dependent people.

This work has contributed to a better understanding of the tensions that exist, primarily for women, between a professional career and caring for parents or parents-in-law, although this was not necessarily the primary objective of the research. These tensions are a new phenomenon, in that previously the main problem had been balancing work with childcare.

Moreover, policy for elderly people losing their independence aims to keep people at home as much as possible (Germany, Austria, Denmark, Finland, Netherlands, United Kingdom) and to establish family leave (Denmark, Netherlands) (table A.9, p. 40, in the appendix).

It would be advisable to use this indicator to monitor the impact of these measures on women's professional circumstances, with particular regard to family leave: will its use affect mainly women, and will it consolidate the fact that among family care providers, women are the first in line?

<p><b><i>Indicators 6 and 7: Normal opening hours of public services and shops (such as local authority offices, post offices, crèches, etc.) during the week and on Saturdays</i></b></p>
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In 2000, the purpose of these two indicators was to report on the flexibility of hours available to employees, and particularly parents, to carry out administrative and family tasks (such as shopping) in addition to their work. When these indicators were updated, we became aware of experiments in this field (Germany, Spain, France, Italy, Netherlands etc.) looking at the organisation of "town times" (see indicator 4). But this data is very scattered and no summary work exists as yet on which we can draw. In other countries, the opening hours of services and shops are decentralised and depend on local policies. There is thus no data to cover these two indicators. The partial data collected in the 2000 questionnaire is given in the appendix (tables A.10 to A.12, pp. 41-43).

**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 dependent (...)**

AND

**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 (...)**

#### **A. Evolution of the indicators since 2000**

The question of "time budgets" obtained some of the most incomplete results when the 2000 questionnaire was sent out. Few countries answered our questions completely (allocation of work time and domestic and family time, particularly for working parents) and the quality of the responses was unconvincing (see the data in the appendix, tables A.13 to A.15, pp. 44-45).

Since our questionnaire, surveys of time budgets have gradually been put in place, but have not yet been able to supply complete, harmonised data for all the countries. There is no obligation on the Member States to conduct this type of survey, although the European Commission does encourage their development<sup>12</sup>.

It should be recalled that the two indicators in question cover **"tied" time**, i.e. all the time devoted to work, including travelling time, but also domestic activities and tasks involved in parenting for **working parents living with a partner** (indicator 8) and **working single parents** (indicator 9).

Most of the data published by Eurostat (2006) corresponds only partially to these criteria: we have harmonised data for 14 countries on the time spent on work, but without details of the family situation (see appendix, table A.15 on p. 45).

A harmonised Europe-wide database of "time use" now exists, operated by *Statistics Sweden*, which gives a better approach to these two indicators. (<https://www.testh2.scb.se/tus/tus/>).

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<sup>12</sup> Guidelines designed to harmonise European surveys of time use were adopted in 2000 but were not followed by all countries.

The following data was constructed on the basis of this database. The intention is to approach the concept of tied time (including travelling time) for working couples (rather than all employees) according to the age of the children. The purpose of indicator 8 was to account for the time devoted to children up to the age of twelve. But the data available breaks down the children's ages into the age groups of zero to six and seven to 17, which seems to us much less relevant (since children have little autonomy between six and 12, requiring a high degree of availability from the parents). We can however consider that the following data is the best match we have for the two indicators. Although information has been given for indicator 9 on single-parent families, note that the data on single fathers is often unavailable or not significant (reduced sample size).

**Table 8: Indicator 8: Working time, travelling time and domestic time (i.e. tied time) for working couples, broken down by sex, in 14 European countries**

Hours and minutes per day

		Men		Women	
		People (all ages) living with a partner with young children (aged 0-6)	People living with a partner with children aged 7-17	People (all ages) living with a partner with young children (aged 0-6)	People living with a partner with children aged 7-17
<b>Belgium</b>	Work	04:27	04:55	03:36	03:07
	Travelling	01:37	01:44	01:47	01:33
	Domestic work	02:39	02:09	03:51	04:34
	Tied time	08 :43	08 :48	09 :14	09 :14
<b>Bulgaria</b>	Work	06:25	05:59	04:20	05:27
	Travelling	01:17	01:17	01:00	01:08
	Domestic work	01:37	01:47	4:41	3:41
	Tied time	09 :19	09 :02	09 :01	09 :16
<b>Estonia</b>	Work	06:03	06:21	05:28	05:25
	Travelling	01:16	01:13	01:13	01:08
	Domestic work	02:13	02:02	04:46	04:03
	Tied time	08 :31	08 :36	<b>11 :28</b>	10 :36
<b>Finland</b>	Work	05:13	05:07	03:38	04:16
	Travelling	01:18	01:22	01:12	01:12
	Domestic work	02:20	02:21	05:06	03:41
	Tied time	08:51	08 :50	09 :56	09 :09
<b>France</b>	Work	05:15	05:19	03:52	04:06
	Travelling	01:13	01:15	01:09	01:06
	Domestic work	02:31	02:15	03:55	04:14
	Tied time	08 :59	08 :49	08 :56	09 :26
<b>Germany</b>	Work	04:52	05:18	02:25	03:23
	Travelling	01:25	01:28	01:32	01:20
	Domestic work	02:55	02:09	05:07	04:07
	Tied time	09 :12	08 :55	09 :04	08 :50

<b>Italy</b>	Work	06:12	05:53	03:16	04:23
	Travelling	01:33	01:37	01:22	01:27
	Domestic work	02:01	01:31	06:04	04:54
	Tied time	09 :46	09 :01	10 :42	10 :44
<b>Latvia</b>	Work	07:08	06:51	05:02	06:05
	Travelling	01:32	01:28	01:16	01:25
	Domestic work	01:19	01:40	04:08	03:02
	Tied time	09 :59	08 :59	10 :26	10 :32
<b>Lithuania</b>	Work	06:59	06:45	05:24	05:54
	Travelling	01:28	01:22	01:14	01:14
	Domestic work	01:51	01:27	04:37	03:38
	Tied time	10 :18	09 :34	11 :15	10 :46
<b>Poland</b>	Work	06:17	05:57	04:08	04:58
	Travelling	01:22	01:22	01:14	01:13
	Domestic work	02:40	02:07	05:36	03:59
	Tied time	10 :19	09 :26	10 :58	10 :10
<b>Slovenia</b>	Work	05:47	05:17	03:34	04:59
	Travelling	01:21	01:18	01:11	01:16
	Domestic work	02:43	02:13	05:54	04:04
	Tied time	09 :51	08 :48	10 :39	10 :19
<b>Spain</b>	Work	05:52	05:54	03:49	04:18
	Travelling	01:26	01:21	01:22	01:20
	Domestic work	02:22	01:37	03:49	04:18
	Tied time	09 :40	08 :52	09 :00	09 :56
<b>Sweden</b>	Work	05:00	05:12	03:00	04:15
	Travelling	01:26	01:45	01:24	01:29
	Domestic work	03:26	02:35	05:07	03:56
	Tied time	09 :52	09 :22	09 :31	09 :40
<b>United Kingdom</b>	Work	05:51	05:43	03:19	03:56
	Travelling	01:35	01:36	01:37	01:35
	Domestic work	02:41	02:10	05:21	03:56
	Tied time	10 :07	09 :29	10 :17	09 :27

Source: Harmonised European Time-Use survey, conducted by L. Aujean, European Commission, data supplied in 2007

**Table 9: Indicator 9: Working time and domestic time (i.e. tied time) for working single-parent families, broken down by sex, in 14 European countries**

Hours and minutes per day

		<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>
		<b>Single people (all ages) with children aged &lt; 18</b>	<b>Single people (all ages) with children aged &lt; 18</b>
<b>Belgium</b>	Work	05:38	03:36
	Travelling	01:37	01:47
	Domestic work	02:13	03:51
	Tied time	09:28	09:14
<b>Bulgaria</b>	Work	--	05:26
	Travelling	--	01:09
	Domestic work	--	03:23
	Tied time	--	09:58
<b>Estonia</b>	Work	--	05:42
	Travelling		01:12
	Domestic work	--	03:40
	Tied time	--	10:32
<b>Finland</b>	Work	--	04:08
	Travelling		01:21
	Domestic work	--	03:47
	Tied time	--	09:16
<b>France</b>	Work	N S	04:32
	Travelling	N S	01:09
	Domestic work	N S	03:54
	Tied time	N S	09:35
<b>Germany</b>	Work	04:22	03:50
	Travelling	02:03	01:31
	Domestic work	02:32	03:47
	Tied time	08:57	09:08
<b>Italy</b>	Work	06:00	04:43
	Travelling	01:27	01:30
	Domestic work	01:40	04:13
	Tied time	08:07	08:26
<b>Latvia</b>	Work	--	05:37
	Travelling		01:30
	Domestic work	--	03:16
	Tied time	--	09:22
<b>Lithuania</b>	Work		05:56
	Travelling		01:34
	Domestic work		03:11
	Tied time		10:41

<b>Poland</b>	Work	N S	04:50
	Travelling	N S	01:21
	Domestic work	N S	04:09
	Tied time	N S	10:20
<b>Slovenia</b>	Work	--	04:17
	Travelling		01:10
	Domestic work	--	04:26
	Tied time	--	09:43
<b>Spain</b>	Work	N S	04:31
	Travelling	N S	01:21
	Domestic work	N S	04:06
	Tied time	N S	09:58
<b>Sweden</b>	Work	04:23	04:13
	Travelling	01:33	01:47
	Domestic work	03:03	03:46
	Tied time	09:02	09:46
<b>United Kingdom</b>	Work	N S	03:36
	Travelling	N S	01:43
	Domestic work	N S	04:14
	Tied time	N S	09:33

Harmonised European Time-Use Survey, conducted by L. Aujean, European Commission. N S: sample not significant, data supplied in 2007.

## B. Analysis of time use

We can begin by qualifying the interpretation of this data. As several specialists in social time have pointed out (J. P. Rouch, 2006), time-budget surveys are principally based on an approach which presupposes from a methodological viewpoint the existence of "a single temporal model, which is linear, quantitative and compartmentalised". Rouch insists that activities are superimposed, and that an objective measurement of duration, leaving aside the way the time is experienced, is limited. A person's different activities are not necessarily compartmentalised; sometimes it is possible to carry out several activities at the same time (e.g. household task and cultural activity). The most useful aspect of the data corresponding to these indicators, however, is the comparison between men and women and between countries. Certain macro-social mechanisms can be identified, such as inequalities in the distribution of domestic work.

The survey of time allocation between European men and women (Eurostat, 2006) confirms the unequal sharing of domestic and family tasks. For people aged 20 to 74 in all circumstances, in all countries, more time is spent on domestic tasks by women. Major differences exist: in Sweden, they carry out about 50 % more domestic tasks than men, while in Italy and Spain the differential is 200 %. It could be thought that men make up for this lack of domestic time by investing more in the professional sphere. But this is far from the case: if we count all the tied time - i.e. domestic and working time - there are only three countries where the figures are equivalent for men and women (Sweden, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands). **In other words, even when part-time work and parental leave reduce women's professional activity, social time remains unbalanced: men retain more "free" time, time for themselves, regardless of social models.** On the other hand, what varies is the time spent on domestic tasks, elastic time which reflects cultural models: in the southern countries and most of the new Member States, women devote over five hours a day to domestic tasks (and particularly meal preparation), while this time is less than four hours a day in the northern countries.

Interesting information also emerges from the situation of working couples with or without children and single-parent families:

- The presence of children, particularly young children, increases tied time (i.e. total working and domestic time) for everyone except for French fathers of young children. The figures differ according to sex: for women with children, the effort is greater than for men (a large increase in domestic time of up to two hours), except in Germany, where tied time falls for mothers. This general increase in tied time for mothers is reflected in a significant drop in work time with a corresponding large rise in domestic time (in Poland, for example, domestic time rises from three hours 46 minutes to almost seven hours of domestic time with the arrival of young children). With children aged seven or over, the effect fades and domestic time tends to fall. In fathers, work time increases in seven cases of the fourteen studied when children are born.
- Curiously, tied time in single-parent families is no higher than for couples. The sample sizes certainly make this data fragile (particularly for single fathers), especially as we do not distinguish the ages of the children (up to 18). We often observe that work time for single mothers falls in relation to mothers living with a partner, and the opposite for single fathers. On the other hand, we do not see a strong increase in domestic time, which is especially surprising for single mothers (but this could be explained by the age of the children).
- **Here we can only emphasise the importance of encouraging all the Member States to conduct this type of survey with data that takes the family situation into account, since only 14 countries supply this type of data.**

## II. NEW LINES OF ENQUIRY

New lines of enquiry appear in two forms: firstly, on the very structure of the indicators, and secondly, on the opening of new issues:

- As in 2000, we had great difficulty in obtaining certain data: either the themes are not at all or only marginally tackled in certain countries (dependent old people, childcare facilities, use of parental leave, time use surveys, etc.), or these data are not harmonised and depend on national surveys that are difficult to compare (see the national data collected in the appendix). Hence it is important to contemplate new perspectives to ensure that the chosen indicators are monitored more efficiently: by launching new European surveys or by requesting the Member States to provide data notably on dependent old people and the time-budget, when the surveys exist only in part. Furthermore, in the light of this research, we suggest that the structure of the 9 indicators designed in 2000 be changed as follows:
  - For indicator 3 (childcare facilities), the SILC survey should widen the notion of "formal arrangements", without limiting these childcare facilities to the existence of intermediary structures.
  - Remove indicators 6 and 7 on the opening times of shops and services and widen the scope of indicator 4 (on the experiments with time in town).

Finally, we should note that these indicators have certain limits: in the context of the Beijing action programme, they become relevant only when examined in the light of other data on gender that allows for a more complete analysis: for example, the indicator on the childcare facilities is relevant only if one specifies the still significant role of mothers in childcare, which limits their access to the labour market. Similarly, the indicator on dependent old people (few data available) can be relevant only if one takes into account the data on the involvement of women in caring for dependent old people.

- This study offers new lines of inquiry. Different complementary themes emerged during our research:
  - Firstly, **the involvement of companies** in the work-life balance seems to us to be essential. Numerous European studies have highlighted the complementary resources that companies can provide to facilitate it. The Dublin Foundation set up a *European Establishment Survey on Working Time and Work-Life Balance* (ESWT) 2004-2005.

This survey covered 21,000 establishments in 21 European countries. It focuses on all the working time arrangements offered (flexitime, part-time, non-standard working hours, parental leave, etc.). For example, a study on parental leave in European companies (Anxo et alii 2007) shows that half of companies have no employees on parental leave due to various obstacles: financial obstacles (when the leave is unpaid), negative attitudes to taking leave, etc. Similarly, the motivation of fathers to take this leave depends on the rate paid and on the possibility of flexibility in taking it (taking periods of leave rather than continuously, etc.). Another study on part-time work shows that, from the point of view of companies, different approaches are adopted (seeking a low-cost management system or responding to the requests of employees). In most cases, promotions of part-time employees are not identical to those of full-time employees (61 % of managers and 49 % of employee representatives regard the careers as identical). Similarly, only 9 % of establishments offer reversible part-time work (return to full-time work).

- Secondly, the indicators presented here do not incorporate **the notion of life cycle**. Yet, a survey on the quality of life (Dublin Foundation) shows different choices and practices in time arrangements according to gender as well as according to the stages of the life cycle. Thus, young people are above all involved in the transition between training and employment and seek arrangements between these two poles (student job, etc.), particularly when their initial training is long. Here, part-time work tends to develop as a transition both for girls and boys. The second stage, known as "the rush hour of life", is the key period for managing the problems in the balance between family life (from young children to dependent old parents) and professional career. Solutions are examined in this report (shorter or longer leave, care facilities, part-time work, etc.). These studies show that part-time work remains largely a woman's choice in this stage of life, although it often involves less independence, particularly in financial terms and in terms of pension rights. We should point out that this debate appears also in countries where part-time work is a norm (Netherlands). Finally, the last stage corresponds to the transition periods between working and retirement. Retirement, more or less late in life according to the country, can be progressive (with transitional part-time work).

But the conclusion of this report is to advocate a better distribution of working time throughout the life cycle (earlier entry, later retirement), with "breathers" in working time – i.e. breaks – at key moments when family obligations are at their most pressing. To this theme is added the still very rarely applied idea of lifelong training for all, qualified and non-qualified, men and women.

### **III. BY WAY OF CONCLUSION: EUROPEAN SOCIAL MODELS OF THE WORK-LIFE BALANCE IN A CHANGING SITUATION**

Since 2000, the indicators on the balance between family life and work have evolved considerably: firstly, they now provide more data and, secondly, the policies themselves have evolved (development of childcare facilities and parental leave, etc.). The harmonisation of the data supplied and the answers of all the Member States to the European questionnaires (for example, on dependent old people) are far from being complete. Moreover, as in every comparative exercise, variances in the definition of the concepts used and in their interpretation appear because of differences in cultural references. Hence, precautions must be taken with their interpretation.

The analysis developed in this report highlights the significance of standard models, already presented in the report in 2000, in terms of "social gender contracts"<sup>13</sup>. These social models seem on the whole to resist the impact of European policies, even though some developments stand out: some countries have developed a genuine policy of gender equality and work-life balance aimed at enabling parents to fulfil themselves both in their professional and family life (Scandinavian countries where the employment rate and fertility rate of women are relatively high). Progress has continued to be made in this group of countries since 2000; other countries focus their effort more on women only (with an average employment rate and quite low fertility rate), even though their access to the labour market has increased for economic or social reasons (via part-time work, and/or better-paid parental leave) ("continental" countries like Germany and Austria where family

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<sup>13</sup> In reference to the research developed notably by A. Fouquet, A. Gauvin, M.T. Letablier (1999), "Des contrats sociaux entre les sexes différents selon les pays de l'Union européenne" (Different social contracts between the sexes in the countries of the European Union), in Conseil d'analyse économique, *Egalité entre femmes et hommes: aspects économiques*. Gender social contracts are forms of social construction of gender relations in and outside of work.

obligations are essentially carried out by women although their professional activity is increasing). In a third group of countries, the state intervenes either not at all or only marginally in this area for various reasons (budget constraints, family-centred or free-market models, etc.): family solidarity plays a central role here, but it goes with a low involvement of women in professional life and a particularly low fertility rate (certain Southern or island countries and most of the new Member States are in this group). Lastly, a "hybrid" group combines these different elements, depending on the situations and sometimes to the detriment of some women in these countries (France, Belgium, Netherlands, Slovenia, etc.).

Of course, this typology is simplistic: some countries are now changing fast (Portugal and Slovenia notably) or are difficult to classify, and none of them represents an ideal of equality, even though some of them offer better conditions for a balance between work and private life for all.

Furthermore, we observe that the national public measures adopted to improve the work-life balance correspond in reality to choices in favour of equality. These measures are far from being neutral: collective childcare facilities are more favourable to the full-time professional activity of mothers, while leave periods, or even part-time work, have effects on women's careers and retirement, especially since these interruptions are long. This is the case also when guarantees are given to employees as part of these schemes (for example, the possibility of returning from part-time to full-time work in the Netherlands, maintenance of sufficient pay in the Scandinavian countries, etc.), although these measures are very largely aimed at women and less developed in the case of qualified jobs. In fact, it appears incompatible today to have a genuine professional career and benefit from these measures. **Hence, this report tends to underline the contradictions of certain schemes which, under the pretext of "reconciliation" (for mothers only?), may reinforce the discrimination suffered by women.**

So what challenges must be met to change this to a win/win situation?

The prospects for improvement cannot be limited to the application of European directives, even though this framework remains extremely important. **We need to find sources of compromise between the players in Europe and in each Member State:**

- **The state**, of course, must everywhere continue its investment effort in childcare facilities and in funding the cost of this care, facilitating simultaneously access to leave and time arrangements for *all* parents.
- **Companies** are still reluctant to develop "family-friendly" measures. They need to be shown that measures in favour of equality between women and men and promoting parental leave are both a source of performance for the company (less absenteeism, lower staff turnover, loyalty of the workforce, etc.) and one of the elements of its corporate social responsibility.
- **Trade-union organisations** must likewise examine these questions as part of their remit and negotiate measures favourable to all, while regarding equality between women and men as applying in the workplace and the company as well as outside the work context. The application of the framework of actions between the social partners<sup>14</sup> must be pursued and lead to the organisation of negotiations on equality within each Member State. While efforts in this area have also been real, we are still a long way off: very often, women remain under-represented at negotiation tables, and the themes tackled are far from meeting their expectations as they do not systematically tackle the question of the work-life balance for *everybody*. So we need to reinforce the social dialogue on these issues at both European and national level.
- **Families**, lastly, within which gender representations need to evolve, by enhancing the family and domestic role of fathers, and also by enabling mothers to take on their full family and professional responsibilities and obtain real economic and social independence.

As we can see, the challenges are numerous and sometimes there are tensions over the choices made, according to the social models. Can we envisage the **formal gender equality** enshrined in numerous European directives and resolutions ultimately leading to **real equality**? The development of **work-life balance measures for all** is one of the major answers to this recurring question.

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<sup>14</sup> The framework of actions for equality between men and women was signed in 2005 by CES, UNICE (now Business Europe), CEEP and UEAPME.

#### IV. Methodological and statistical appendices

**Table A.1. Data on employment 2006 and fertility 2005 in Europe**

		Employment rate of women 2006	Employment rate of men 2006	Unemployment rate of women 2006	Unemployment rate of men 2006	Rate of part-time work among women 2006	Rate of part-time work among men 2006	Fertility rate 2005
<b>Southern countries</b>	Spain	53.2	76.1	11.6	6.3	23.0	4.3	1.35
	Greece	47.4	74.6	13.6	5.6	10.5	2.8	1.33
	Italy	46.3	70.5	8.8	5.4	26.6	4.9	1.31
	Portugal	62.0	73.9	9.0	6.5	16.9	8.2	1.4
<b>English-speaking countries</b>	United Kingdom	65.8	77.3	4.9	5.7	42.5	10.8	1.78
	Ireland	59.3	77.7	4.1	4.6	32.7	7.1	1.98
<b>Western countries</b>	Germany	62.2	72.8	10.1	10.3	46.2	9.5	1.33
	Austria	63.5	76.9	5.2	4.3	41.5	7.4	1.4
	Belgium	54.0	67.9	9.3	7.4	41.9	7.5	1.62
	France	57.7	68.5	9.9	8.4	31.0	5.6	1.94
	Luxembourg	54.6	72.6	6.2	3.5	39.7	2.2	1.69
	Netherlands	67.7	80.9	5.0	4.1	74.9	23.7	1.69
<b>Nordic countries</b>	Denmark	73.4	81.2	4.5	3.3	36.5	13.6	1.78
	Finland	67.3	71.4	8.1	7.4	18.7	8.9	1.8
	Sweden	70.7	75.5	7.3	6.9	40.3	11.7	1.76
<b>Eastern and central European countries</b>	Cyprus	60.3	79.4	5.4	3.9	10.4	4.2	1.43
	Estonia	65.3	71.0	5.6	6.2	11.6	4.3	1.3
	Hungary	51.1	63.8	7.8	7.2	5.7	2.7	1.31
	Latvia	62.4	70.4	6.2	7.4	9.2	5.4	1.31
	Lithuania	61.0	66.3	5.4	5.8	10.3	6.5	1.27
	Malta	34.9	74.5	8.9	6.5	25.3	4.1	1.46
	Poland	48.2	60.9	14.9	13.0	12.4	6.8	1.25
	Czech Republic	56.8	73.7	8.8	5.8	8.7	2.3	1.28
	Slovakia	51.9	67.0	14.7	12.3	4.7	1.1	1.26
Slovenia	61.8	71.1	7.2	4.9	12.1	8.2	1.26	
<b>European Union (27)</b>		<b>57.2</b>	<b>71.6</b>	<b>9.0</b>	<b>7.6</b>	<b>31.4</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>1.51</b>

Source: Eurostat, surveys on the workforce

Additional national (non-harmonised) or detailed<sup>15</sup> data

*Indicator 1: data on the use of parental leave*

**Table A.2. Use of parental leave (PL) (and/or parental allowance (PA)) – data from 2002 report (1998-1999)**

Country	Last year available	PL feminisation rate	Share of women on PL out of all mothers eligible	Share of men on PL out of all fathers eligible
Germany	1998: PA	98%	95%	1%
Austria	1998	98.5%		
Belgium	1998:PL unpaid 1998:PL paid	95.5% 86% (career break)	15% of working population	(including men at end of career)
Denmark	1998	93%	About 6% of working women	
Spain	1998	99.8%		
Finland	1998	63%	28.2%	60% on paternity and parental leave (especially paternity)
France	1997: PA 1998:PL	99% 99%	10% 47%	
Ireland	No data available			
Italy	1998	99.1%		
Luxembourg	1999	93.7%	3.6%	0.14%
Netherlands	1998	57%	Paid:69% Unpaid:20%	Paid:44% Unpaid:7%
Portugal	No data available			
United Kingdom	No data available			
Sweden	1998:PL 1998:PA	83%	80?? 3%	1.9% (?) 0.3%

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera, 2002

<sup>15</sup> The tables with grey backgrounds correspond to the data collected in 2000 when France held the Presidency of the European Union, and published in Silvera, 2002.

**Table A.3. Data on family leave**

		<b>Duration of maternity leave</b>	<b>Duration and remuneration of parental leave</b>	<b>Duration and use of paternity leave</b>
<b>1.1 Southern countries</b>	Spain	16 weeks (100%)	3 years unpaid	2 days
	Greece	17 weeks (100% ceiling)	7 months unpaid (3,5 month for each parent) (monoparental : 6 months) public sector : 2 years unpaid; for the 3rd child : 3 months remunerated.	2 days
	Italy	5 months (min 80%)	11 months (if the father takes 3) 30% of salary	Right to maternity leave (death, divorce)
	Portugal	17 weeks (100%)	1 year unpaid (15 days paid reserved for the father and non-transferable)	5 days paid
<b>English-speaking countries</b>	United Kingdom	26 weeks (6 weeks at 90%; 20 at €150 (+ 26 weeks unpaid if 1 year in job)	13 weeks unpaid	2 weeks 63% (2003)*
	Ireland	26 weeks attracting payment and a further 16 weeks unpaid. Payment : . Largely full pay in the public sector (for 26 weeks) . Private pay –either employer (discretionary) or . Social Welfare – 80 % of earnings subject to minimum of € 221,80 per week linked to National Minimum Wage and to maximum of € 280 per week form social welfare. If the mother dies the father is entitled to her maternity leave.	14 weeks unpaid (per parent) until a child is 8 years old or 16 years old in the case of a child with disabilities.	There is no statutory requirement to provide paternity leave although it is available in the civil service 3 days per child and many employers in the private sector also provide it.
<b>Western countries</b>	Germany	14 weeks (100%)	3 years (including maternity leave) cash benefit and amounts to a minimum of 67% of the net income of the parent claiming the benefit, at least 300 Euro/month and at the most 1800 Euro/month for 12 (or 14) months	No paternity leave
	Austria	16 weeks (100%)	2 years paid in the form of a fixed amount	No paternity leave
	Belgium	15 weeks (30 days at 82% the rest 75%)	3 months per parent (+/- €550 /month)	2 weeks 58,2% (1995)*
	France	16 weeks 100% (ceiling)	3 years unpaid (but €485 allowance from 2 <sup>nd</sup> child on)	11 successive days 65%*
	Luxembourg	16 weeks (100%)	6 months per parent paid at minimum wage (€1,692/month)	2 days
	Netherlands	16 weeks (100% ceiling)	13 weeks per parent, unpaid	2 days 95-100%*

<b>1.2 Nordic countries</b>	Denmark	18 weeks (100% ceiling)	8 months per parent (paid 90% of the salary for 8 months)	2 weeks 59%*
	Finland	17.5 weeks (66% on average)	3 years (6 months at 66% of the salary; the rest at €350/month)	3 weeks 66%*
	Sweden	12 weeks (80%)	About 18 months (incl. 2 months for fathers, non-transferable) (16 months at 80% of salary; the rest at €6.50/day)	2 weeks 73%

<b>1.3 Eastern and central European countries</b>	Cyprus	16 weeks (75%)	6 months unpaid	
	Estonia	18 weeks (100%)	8.5 months (100% of salary with ceiling)	
	Hungary	24 weeks (70 %)	until the child's 2 <sup>nd</sup> birthday (for insured parents, 70 % of salary with ceiling), after that period universal benefit until the child's 3 <sup>rd</sup> birthday (amount of the minimum old age pension). The non-insured parents may take universal benefit until the child's 3 <sup>rd</sup> birthday, i.e. for 36 months.	5 days (100%)
	Latvia	112 days (56 days of pregnancy leave before delivery, 56 days of childbirth leave after delivery). Additional 14 days if woman's pregnancy-related medical care was commenced at a medical prophylactic institution up to the 12th week of pregnancy and was continued during the entire period of pregnancy. (approx. 100 % actual wage replacement)	Within child's first year of life 70% of previous average wage of the benefit recipient that is subject to insurance contributions (approx. 100% actual wage replacement, but maximum amount cap of EUR 558. Minimum allowance for socially insured persons EUR 80, non-insured persons entitled to flat benefit of EUR 71). From child's 1st to 2nd birthday – flat benefit for all carers of EUR 43 monthly. Altogether, 18 months of parental leave are available to each parent until child reaches 8 <sup>th</sup> birthday.	10 days, must be used within first two months after birth. Use in 2005 – 25,5 % of all fathers.  In 2008 : 14 days
	Lithuania	18 weeks (100%)	3 years : 1 <sup>st</sup> year paid 100% of salary, 2 <sup>nd</sup> year paid 80 % of salary, 3 <sup>rd</sup> year unpaid	One month paid (100%)
	Malta	14 weeks (13 at 100%, 14 <sup>th</sup> unpaid)	6 months unpaid	
	Poland	16 weeks (100%)	3 years (€436/month for 18 months extended to 24 months if the father takes part)	Right to 2 weeks of maternity leave
	Czech Republic	28 weeks (69%)	3 years (€113/month)	
	Slovakia	28 weeks (55% ceiling)	3 years (€95/month)	Right to maternity leave if mother is ill
	Slovenia	15 weeks (100%)	9 months at 100% of salary and it may be used either by the mother or the father	2 weeks 100 % salary

Sources: European Commission, 2005; \*: Math, Meiland (2004).

**Table A.4. Use of parental leave**

Germany	There are no data available on parental leave. But 86,3% of mothers and 13,7% of fathers make use of the new parental allowance. Most of the parents take 12 months (86,6% women, 12,9% men) but the men use predominantly one to two months (67%). The vast majority of mothers interrupt their employment just for short times. Nearly every second mother (43%) says she returns to employment after one and a half years. 60% of mothers want to return to work again after three years and 73% of mothers after six years.
Austria	In 2003, 27,854 women and men received parental leave allowances on top of childcare allowances. In 2004 this figure dropped to 2,145.
Belgium	Since the introduction of parental leave in Belgium, the number of people taking it has increased. In 2004 only about 6.7% of parents used their entitlement to parental leave. 43% of women in Flanders interrupt their career to have more time available for their children, compared to 17% of Flemish speakers, because in Flanders, a benefit is added for people who reduce their work time. The 20% reduction is the form preferred by both men and women, in private sector.
Bulgaria	Since 1991, the number of working days paid for pregnancy and maternity leave has diminished. This trend is the result of the drop in the number of births and the overall reduction in maternity leave taken.
Cyprus	Employees do not take up parental leave frequently, mostly due to the fact that it is unpaid leave. Take up rates are even lower for men, because due to culture and prejudice they are still considered to be the main source of the family income (although the bread-winner model is fading) and therefore, loss of income is a disincentive in taking parental leave.
Denmark	It is premature to provide statistics because, according to the new law on maternity, paternity and parental leave adopted in 2002, the mother and father can postpone part of the leave. However, we can point to an increase in the number of people taking maternity, paternity and parental leave between 2002 and 2004. Furthermore, the average duration of leave has increased (especially among mothers). Women still make up the vast majority (94.2% in the second half of 2004). Only 6% of fathers of children born in 1995 took up the old form of parental leave and there seems to be clear evidence that the new system has changed this figure.
Spain	The total number of persons taking parental leave per year represents only one third of the total number of children born in the same year in Spain. The percentage of fathers taking a share of the maternity leave is low, but increasing very slowly (from 0.9% in 2000 to 1.5% in 2003). In 2003, only 3.6% of leave was taken by men. There are no data on the duration of leave.
Estonia	The majority of women take parental leave as full-time out of employment. The take up rate of men is very small.
Finland	On average, the total family leave of men represents only about one tenth of that of women. Differences are visible between sectors. From 2002 to 2003, the number of fathers taking full-time parental leave more than doubled. Two thirds of these men also took advantage of the system of 'bonus days' introduced in 2003. Mothers still have the principal responsibility for caring for children; 95.7% of all parental leave days are taken by women. In 2003, 34,770 men took the standard paternity leave of 18 days.

France	55% of eligible mothers receive the allowance for parental leave (former APE) compared to 1% of men with this right. However, the take-up rate for paternity leave (11 days) is higher at 65%.
Greece	The rate of men and women taking leave is very low. The rate varies according to the size of the company and the presence of trade unions. The right to a career break after maternity leave (which has existed since 1999 for parents working in the public sector) has become very popular among working mothers.
Hungary	The number of women who take leave is considerably higher than the number of men. Women executives take considerably shorter leave than white-collar or blue-collar employees (3-9 months compared to 36 months).
Ireland	Less than 7% of the workforce was entitled to parental leave in 2001. In Ireland, the utilisation rate is low (5% of men take up this right, 14% of women). 38% of women entitled to maternity leave take it, 15% of men entitled to paternity leave take it.
Italy	Three mothers out of four take parental leave. About half of them take parental leave during the first three years of the child's life. Only 7% of fathers take parental leave during the child's first two years. Longer, unpaid leave is an option open only to women. Unlike in the public sector, the rate is extremely low in large private companies.
Latvia	Data on use of parental leave are not available.
Lithuania	Women represent the absolute majority of those taking parental leave in Lithuania. In 2002, 99% of all parents taking this leave were women.
Luxembourg	The total number of beneficiaries of parental leave increased constantly over the period 2000-2004. Although the share of men increased to 17% in 2004, parental leave is taken more frequently by women. Women more often take full-time leave, while men take part-time leave. In 2004, 96.2% of beneficiaries of the first parental leave are women, while men are three times more numerous than women in taking the second parental leave. In Luxembourg, it is easier to take parental leave in large organisations, in civil service and the sectors where women predominate.
Malta	Informal data suggest that, in contrast with parental leave, maternity leave is still used to the full. The parental leave is usually taken by the mother. The leave duration depends on the entitlements granted by the company.
Netherlands	The average rate is 27% in the Netherlands. In 2003, the rate for women was 42% compared to 16% for men. On average, men take 8 hours per week over 10 months. However, women take up to 12 hours per week over 8 months. In the non-profit sector, the rate of use of parental leave is higher than in the other sectors, especially (relatively) among men.
Poland	Between 1993 and 2000, the number of people taking parental leave dropped from 366,100 to 138,800. This drop is partly the result of the decline in the number of births. The difficult situation of the labour market and the low level of the parental leave allowance also play a part. Only about 2% of fathers in Poland take parental leave.
Portugal	In 2003, women took 15 times more leave than men. The rate for mothers in Portugal is higher and women tend to take longer leave than men. The trend among men to take more leave has become more visible, but only among men who are the only ones entitled to leave. When both men and women are entitled to leave, men tend not to take up this option.

Czech Republic	More than 99% of those taking parental leave in the Czech Republic are women. The majority of women stay in the home with their children up to the age of 2 or 3 years (this is also linked to the difficulty of finding a place in a crèche). On average, women take parental leave for two years, while the average duration of men's parental leave is less than a year. Each year, fewer than a thousand men take parental leave.
Romania	In Romania, parental leave is taken principally by women, with very few men using it.
United Kingdom	The rate of uptake of the paid part of maternity leave is high, but the rate drops for the additional unpaid period of maternity leave. In 2002, the rate of uptake of paid paternity leave was very high. When we compare the quantity of parental leave taken by all the parents entitled to this leave, it is probable that the rate for fathers is lower than that for mothers and the overall rate remains low.
Slovakia	15,000 Slovak mothers took maternity leave in 2002 and 49,800 men and women took additional parental leave in the same year.
Slovenia	The rate of uptake of maternity leave is very high in Slovenia because it is compulsory. Most of parental leave time is used by women. In 2003, only 1.9% of fathers took the parental leave they were entitled to. However, 90% of them took advantage of their right to paid paternity leave (on average 8 days).
Sweden	The proportion of fathers among those receiving an allowance for parental leave increased to 42% in 2002. However, fathers accounted for only 15.5% of the total number of days of parental leave. The average leave of men was 28 days in 2002. There is very little difference in the take-up rate for leave between employees of the private sector and the public sector. In Sweden, there are considerable regional differences.

European Commission (2005), *Reconciliation of work and private life: a comparative review of thirty European countries* (national reports prepared by the EU Expert Group on Gender, Social Inclusion and Employment).

**Indicator 3: childcare facilities**

**Table A.5. Public childcare facilities for children aged 0 – 3 years and from + 3 years to mandatory school-age in 1998 (regular and principal)**

Source	Children aged 0-3 years			Children aged 3 – 6 years (approx.)	
		Silvera questionnaire	Deven et alii	Silvera questionnaire	Deven et alii
Germany 1994	Former East Germany	41.3%	41.3%	96%	100%
	Former West Germany	2.2%	2.2%	73%	85.2%
	Austria	3.8%	3%	78.5%	75%
	Belgium	17.8%	30%	90%	95%
	Denmark	55%	48%	91%	82%
	Spain		2%		84%
	Finland	33.6%	21%	78%	53%
	France	41%	23%	100%	99%
	Greece		3%		70%
	Italy		6%	97.7%	91%
	Ireland		2%		55%
	Luxembourg		11%	44.9%	
	Netherlands	12.3%	8%		71%
	Portugal	34.2%	12%	34.2%	48%
	United Kingdom		2%		60%
Sweden	33.5%	33%	68%	72%	

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002 and Deven, Moss (1997).

**Table A.6. Childcare arrangements at public crèches - data 2000**

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

	children between 0 and 3 years	children between 3 and 6 years			
	Childcare times	1. EXPERIMENTS on the opening hours of crèches	Childcare times	Childcare arrangements	Entry age for pre-primary school
GER	NA	NA	Between 4 and 6 hours in former E Germany. Between 6 and 8 hours in the new states. A child spending more than 4h in an establishment receives lunch.	Since 1999, all children between 3 years old and school entry age are entitled to a place in kindergarten. This right is guaranteed, on average the percentage in childcare is about 90%.	ND
AUS	No break for lunch.	NA	NA	NA	NA
BEL	7am-6.30pm	No, experiments suspended	8.30am-3.30 pm (except Wed afternoon) + Day nurseries 7am – 6pm	Pre-primary school 4.5 d/week. Lunch included.	Theoretical: 2.5 years Real: 3 years
DK	Public crèches: 6.45am – 5.30 pm Childminders: 7am – 5pm	Yes (according to needs): - 15% of crèches with longer days (5-5.30am to 7-9pm) - 5% open at night and weekends	Public crèches: 6.45pm – 5.30 pm Pre-primary school from 6 years old: 5D/week, 4h/d, meal not included .	Additional paid services before and after school (7-8am and 2-5pm)	6 years
SP	NA	NA	5 h/d	5 d/week Lunch not included (or if so: paid separately)	between 0 and 3 years
FIN	Max 10h/d	Yes, based on needs of parents: crèches 24/24, at night, etc.	Max 10h/d	5 d/week. Lunch included.	NA
FR	7am-7pm	Yes, experiments in certain crèches: times 24/24.	6h/d + Paid day nurseries on the spot: 7am-6.30/7pm (according to local authorities)	4-5 d/week.(not Wed and certain Sat mornings) Lunch included.	2.5 - 3 years

	children between 0 and 3 years	children between 3 and 6 years			
	Childcare times	2. EXPERIMENTS on the opening hours of crèches	Childcare times	Childcare arrangements	Entry age for pre-primary school
IRL	NA	No	NA	No public service. Pilot project of the Department of Education for pre-school (Early Start) in about 40 primary schools, in disadvantaged areas, minding about 1,500 children aged 3-4 years. Early Start operates 5d/week and 3h/d for children aged 3-5 years.	3 years: Early Start Programme
IT	NA	NA	4-8h/d	5-6d/week. Lunch included 8h/d for 44% of 3-6-year-olds, canteen based on means test	Between 3 and 5 years
LUX	7/7.30am-6.30/7pm	Yes, in hospital crèches, open from 5.45am to 10.15pm	Mon-Wed-Fri: 8-11.45am and 2-4pm Tues-Thurs: 8-11.45am	5d/week. Lunch not included (optional municipal offer)	4 years
NL	10h/d*, 51 weeks/year	Slight: 3.7% of crèches for children aged 1 to 3 years open until 7.30pm	No difference between pre-primary and primary school.	5d/week, 5.5h per day. Lunch included	4 years
POR	NA	NA	5h/d	5d/week. Lunch included.	3 years
UK	NA	NA	NA	NA	3 years
SE	7am-6pm		7am-6pm 15h/week (pre-school optional for children aged 6 years). Children aged between 1 and 5 years spend on average 31h/week in a day-care centre and 28h/week with a childminder (1995).	Yes, 77 municipalities experimented with crèches opening between 7pm and 6.30am in 1999	1 year

\* 3.7% of crèches for children aged between 1 and 3 years stay open until 7.30pm.

**Table A.7. Data on childcare facilities**

Germany	There are still large differences in the cover rate between the former West Germany and the former East Germany. In the former West Germany, the registration rate is only 3% compared to 37% in the former East Germany. However, since 1996 federal law gives each child under 3 years old the right to a place in a public or subsidised crèche. But most places are part-time (morning) and without meals.
Austria	Almost universal childcare facilities for children in the last 2 years before mandatory schooling age, but very limited facilities for children under 3 years old. Among working women with a child under 3 years old, about 60% depend on informal arrangements. The registration rate of children aged 6-14 years in afternoon childcare facilities is quite low.
Belgium	About 30% of children aged 0 to 3 years are entitled to attend public and “private” childcare facilities and nearly all children aged 3 to 6 years are in formal pre-school facilities. The principal problem for working parents – especially with children aged 2.5 years and more – is the opening hours of childcare facilities (before 9 a.m. and after 3 .30 p.m. Saturdays....)
Bulgaria	The number of crèches and the number of children attending them have declined owing to the decline in the fertility rate, the high unemployment rate and the low standard of living. The registration rate for 1-3-year-olds is about 10%; the rate of children in kindergarten is about 95% of all 4-6-year-olds. Grandmothers play an active role in day-care (up to 3 years old).
Denmark	Total coverage. From July 2005, all municipalities must provide childcare facilities for all children from 9 months to primary school entry at 6 years old. If the municipality fails to do so, the parents are entitled to compensation corresponding to the cost of private childcare with a maximum threshold for the day-care needs of each age-group.
Spain	Limited facilities for the youngest children; total coverage for 4-5-year-olds.
Estonia	Childcare facilities for children under 3 years old are rare and in the urban areas there is a lack of free places for each age-group. Local authorities must guarantee places in nursery schools for children 3 years old.
Finland	Since 1990, all children under 3 years of age are guaranteed a place in a municipal crèche whatever the status of the parents on the labour market. In 1996, this right to childcare was extended to all children under compulsory schooling age (7 years).
France	Total coverage for children from 3 years of age. For younger children, the system is less developed and demand is not satisfied: about 20% of children under 3 years of age are cared for in crèches; 20% minded by childminders (approved). The others are minded by their parents (who may be on parental leave) or via informal arrangements.
Greece	Few facilities for children under 3 years old, rather more for children between 3 years old and mandatory school attendance age. Because of the decentralisation of responsibility for public crèches, there is a severe shortage of reliable data.
Hungary	Few facilities (less than 10%) for children under 3 years old; considerable availability of places (90%) in kindergartens for the 3-6-year-olds. 30% of mothers interviewed and not working mention the lack of places in the crèches; 25% replied that the cost of childcare counted in their decision not to work (in crèche and kindergartens only the cost of meals is paid by the parents).
Ireland	Childcare services are largely provided by paid or unpaid parents, childminders, private crèches/kindergartens; there is very little public funding of childcare facilities. 50% of all women working full-time have recourse to a paid childminder, 8% depend on a paid relative, 14% use crèches.
Italy	Childcare facilities vary greatly according to the age of the child, the region, the type of household. The use of grandparents is widespread when children are small; there are few crèches and they are far from meeting the needs of working parents. Grandparents continue to provide considerable informal assistance when children are in kindergarten and primary school.

Latvia	For children up to 3 years of age, the registration rate in pre-school establishments is 18%. For 3-6-year-olds, the rate is over 60%.
Lithuania	Limited public services for young children, with more facilities available for those aged 3-6 years.
Luxembourg	About 10% of children under 3 years are in formal childcare facilities; the costs are high and the opening hours may not be compatible with working hours.
Malta	Serious lack of childcare facilities.
Netherlands	A considerable increase in the number of places available, along with higher costs, has led to a more balanced market. The registration rate for younger children is about 22% and there is widespread recourse to informal services. In the 4-12 age-group, both supply and demand are quite limited.
Poland	Since 1989, numerous day-care facilities have been closed or privatised. The registration rate dropped from 4.2% in 1990 to 2% in 2001 for children up to 3 years old. But attendance in pre-school facilities rose to about 50% in 2004.
Portugal	The objective is to provide facilities for 20% of children under 3 years and 90% under 5 years. Most parents use a combination of private services and informal childminders, mostly supplied by networks of parents or friends or domestic workers.
Czech Republic	After November 1989, the number of childcare facilities for younger children dropped considerably, partly because of the extension of the duration of parental leave. Currently, less than 1% of children aged 6 months to 3 years are registered in childcare facilities.
Romania	Services are very limited and their quality is. Furthermore, the quality of the service is problematic, largely due to the inadequately trained staff.
United Kingdom	Traditionally, informal childcare solutions predominate. Since 1997, the national strategy on childcare facilities and a certain number of governmental initiatives have sought to improve the accessibility and the quality of the reception and educational services for young children and to make them affordable. Nevertheless, most places created are part-time for those aged 3-4 years. Moreover, extracurricular services for school age children are still very limited.
Slovakia	Supply (and demand) limited for children aged 0 to 3 years. The registration rate in crèches varies from 40% at age 3 to 70% at age 5. Most parents can obtain a place in a crèche, though not always in the desired place.
Slovenia	Growing supply of places for young children in kindergartens; in 2002/3 more than 40% of children aged 1 to 3 years were attending kindergarten (public). Among the 4-6 age-group, the registration rate is 65%. However, there are large differences between the urban and rural regions.
Sweden	Public facilities are available everywhere in Sweden. All children aged 1 to 12 years are entitled to a place: pre-school children (1-5 years), full-time or part-time; the school age children (6-12 years) after school, for example in leisure centres. The number of children attending pre-school facilities has increased because the children of unemployed parents and parents on parental leave can now access these services.

European Commission (2005), *Reconciliation of work and private life: a comparative review of thirty European countries* (national reports prepared by the EU Expert Group on Gender, Social Inclusion and Employment).

**Indicator 5: Proportion of dependent elderly men and women (who cannot provide for themselves in daily life) over 75 years of age living: in specialised institutions – with a home help (other than their family) – looked after by the family (...)**

**Table A.8. Dependent elderly people (data collected in 2000)**

	Proportion of persons aged + 65 years in institution	Proportion of persons aged + 65 years with a home help	Proportion of persons aged + 65 years living with their children	Proportion of dependent persons living with their children
Germany	3.7% (5%**)	ND (3%**) <sup>16</sup>	ND	ND
Austria	ND (4.7%*)	ND (3%*)	ND	ND
Belgium	ND (4%*)	ND (6%*)	ND	ND
Denmark	1999: 12% of + 67 years (5.7%*)	1999: 24% of + 67 years(17%*)	About 30% of + 67 years	ND
Spain	ND (2.8%*)	ND (1%*)	ND	ND
Finland	1998: 8% of + 75 years (in hospice or hospital) (7.2%*)	11% have a home help. 14% receive “support services” (24%*)	ND	ND
France	1998: 4.8% (3%**)	8% (7%**)	1995: 87% of + 75 years live at home or with a family member	1995: 64% of dependent persons live at home or with a member of their family
Greece	(0.5%**)			
Ireland	(5%**)	(3%**)	ND	ND
Italy	ND (2%**)	1999: 2.8% public home help; 12.9% private home help (1.3%**)	1999:4.5%	1999:6.2%
Luxembourg	ND	ND	ND	ND
Netherlands	ND (10%)	ND (8%*)	ND	ND
Portugal	ND (5%**)	8.2%**** (1.5%**)	ND	ND
United Kingdom	1991: 5.4%*** (5.1%*)	1998-9: 13% (9% private home help; 4% public home help); 2% receive meals; 5% are visited by a nurse. (13%*)	5% living with a son or daughter (2% of men and 7% of women)	ND
Sweden	1999: 7.5% (5.4%*)	1999: 9.1% (13%*)	1990: 2.1% of persons aged + 65 years living with persons other than their spouse	

\*: OCDE (1996) data from 1986 to 1994

\*\* CEE (Care in Europe), data from 1985 to 1994.

\*\*\* This percentage is our estimate based on the data from the UK questionnaire

\*\*\*\* Proportion of persons on old-age pension receiving an allowance for assistance from a non-family person

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

<sup>16</sup> For DE : 6,8% (Proportion of persons aged +65 years with domiciliary care benefits (benefits-in cash and benefits-in kind) Federal Ministry of Health, Business Statistics of German Social Care Insurance Funds, 2008.

**Table A.9. The stated objectives of policies to provide services to carers and dependent elderly people** (according to Jane Jenson, 2003, cited in CAS, 2006)

	<b>Political aims</b>
Germany	<p>Keep elderly people at home as far as possible                      Reduce the demand for places in establishments                      Lessen the demands made on social assistance schemes                      Free parents and children from a heavy financial responsibility                      Stimulate the social networks                      Give professional recognition to informal care providers</p>
Austria	<p>Keep elderly people at home as far as possible                      Demonstrate social solidarity with people unable to look after themselves                      Widen the range of services available                      Encourage the use of informal care</p>
Denmark	<p>Propose family leave                      Keep elderly people at home as far as possible                      Stimulate the social networks</p>
Finland	<p>Keep elderly people at home as far as possible                      Reduce the demand for places in establishments                      Compensate carers for income loss                      Compensate the cost of dependence</p>
Netherlands	<p>Propose family leave                      Create jobs, reduce the unemployment rate                      Keep elderly people at home as far as possible                      Reduce the demand for places in establishments                      Reduce the costs</p>
United Kingdom	<p>Keep elderly people at home as far as possible                      Stimulate the social networks                      Encourage the use of informal care                      “Attendance allowance” - for purchasing services                      “Invalid care allowance” – compensate loss of income</p>

All the countries mentioned in the above table implement a twofold strategy:

- the de-institutionalisation of the care provided for dependent elderly people and a reduction in the number of establishments or at least their stabilisation;
- the reinforcement of schemes aimed at providing care in the home.

In SPAIN , Since Act 39/2006 for Promotion of Personal Autonomy and Care to Dependent People, Spanish political aims to Keep elderly people at home as far as possible, Compensate carers for income loss, Compensate the cost of dependence and Stimulate social networks as well as Widen the range of services available

**Indicator 6: Normal opening hours of public services (local authorities, post offices, crèches, etc.) during the week and on Saturday**

**Table A.10. Opening hours of shops and public services (survey 2000)**

	Public services		Shops		
	Normal opening hours	Open on Saturday	Normal opening hours	Open on Saturday	Open on Sunday
GER	8am-12/1pm, sometimes open in the afternoon, but rarely, except the post office, open in daytime, but lunch-time closing for all the services	Only the post office in the morning	8/9/10am–6.30-8pm (Law of 1996) but variable according to the size of the municipalities and shops (longer opening hours in large towns and department stores)	Possibility of all-day opening (since 1996 law), in reality: until 1-2pm (4pm sometimes, 6pm on the Saturday before Advent Sunday)	No (with some exceptions).
AUS	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
BEL	9am-4pm + one late opening/week (7pm)	Rare	9am-8pm Friday: 9pm	9am-8pm	5 times a year except tourist areas
DK	Variable opening hours	Only the post office	9am – 8pm	8am-5pm	9am-5pm
SP	9am–2pm	Some services	10am-2pm and 5.30-8.30pm (some businesses: without a break)	10am-2pm (some in the evening)	Hypermarkets can open on the 1st Sunday of the month.

FR	9am-6pm	In the morning: some services	10am-7pm (10pm in some shops)	10am-7pm	No (except where dispensation is granted by prefectural decree and tourist areas)
IRL	9am-5pm	The post office only: 9.30am-5pm	9.15am-5.30pm	Not in the majority of shops. Except cities, holiday periods	Not in the majority of shops. Except cities, holiday periods
IT	4-5h/d + 2 x 2h/week in the afternoon	Yes	9am-1pm and 3.30-7.30pm (in certain cases 9am-8pm)	9am-1pm and 3.30-7.30pm (in certain cases 9am-8pm without a break)	Depending on the organisation of the opening hours of certain local authorities
LUX	8am-12pm and 2-5pm	No	9am-6pm		No (except 2 Sundays before Christmas, local sales or clearance sales, optionally)
NL	8.30/9am-5/5.30pm	The post office in the morning	9/9.30am-6pm (9pm once a week, closed Monday morning until 1pm)	9/9.30am-5pm	The local authorities can allow opening on 12 Sundays and bank holidays per year.
POR T	5 days for 7 hours	No (exception of some services)	9am- 7pm	9am-1pm	No
FIN	Closed after 4.15pm (some services like the post office later at least once a week)	No	7am-9pm	7am-6pm	In June, July, August and December and 5 other Sundays in the year, between 12pm and 9pm. No restriction for certain shops and geographic areas (ongoing legislation on longer opening times)
UK	ND	Variable according to region and service. Post office: morning.	Variable according to region and shops	Most	For 6 hours.
SE	9am-3pm (or 6pm) The post office until 6/7pm	Many post offices (some even on Sunday).	9am-6pm	10am-4pm	12pm-4pm

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

**Table A.11. Experiments in reorganising opening hours (survey 2000)**

	Presence	Scope	Type
GER	No national data		Experiment on “time offices” in certain towns (see Italian experiment)
AUS	ND	ND	ND
BEL	Yes	1 municipality out of 595	Revamp the services with a switch to 35 hours (Frameries).
DK	Attempt	Small shops	Opening possible on Sunday for small shops, but since cancelled because of too great “success”.
SP	No data	ND	ND
FIN	Yes	Labour administration	Experiments by labour administration to reorganise office hours, with ‘job centre’ offices providing at least one late opening per week.
FR	Yes	2 municipalities	Analysis of the opening times of services and administrations as part of the Eurexter European programme, with parallel analysis of the urban transport system and the rearrangement and reduction of working time (Poitiers and St Denis).
IRL	No		
IT	Yes, “town time” experiment	Not generalised	Changes in school opening hours for working parents. Afternoon opening for certain public services. Opening on Sunday and until 10pm in the case of certain shops. In large towns, creation of ‘time offices’ for coordinating the opening hours of services and needs.
LUX	Yes	Rare, public services.	Change in the opening hours of public services (local administration – ID card, births, marriages & deaths) open from 1pm or until 7pm every day or on a specific day.
NL	Yes	Law of 1996 on the closing hours of shops.	This law allows shops to stay open between 6am and 10pm from Monday to Saturday inclusive. Shops must close on Sunday and bank holidays (except for 12 Sundays and bank holidays per year).
POR	Yes	Large towns	Some shopping centres open from 10am-12am, 7 days a week + experiments with ‘forum’ centres of public services in Lisbon and Porto (open from 8.30am-7pm, on Saturday 9.30am-3pm).
UK	No centralised data	ND	No information on experiments in reorganising municipal opening hours, except during the recent elections in London when polling offices opened earlier.
SW	ND	ND	ND

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

**Indicator 7: Normal opening hours of shops on weekdays and at the weekend**

**Table A.12.** Ditto (*cf.* indicator 6).

	Public services		Shops		
	Normal opening hours	Open on Saturday	Normal opening hours	Open on Saturday	Open on Sunday
GER	8am-12-1pm, sometimes open in the afternoon, but rarely, except the post office open in daytime, but lunch-time closing for all the services	Only the post office in the morning	8/9/10am-6.30-8pm (Law of 1996) but variable according to the size of the municipalities and shops (longer opening hours in large cities and department stores)	Possibility of all-day opening (since 1996 law), in reality: until 1-2pm (4pm sometimes, 6pm on the Saturday before Advent Sunday)	No (with some exceptions)
AUS	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
BEL	9am-4pm + one late opening/week (7pm)	Rare	9am-8pm Friday: 9pm	9am-8pm	5 times a year except tourist areas
DK	Variable opening hours.	Only the post office	9am – 8pm	8am-5pm	9am-5pm
SP	9am-2pm	Some services	10am-2pm and 5.30-8.30pm (some businesses: without a break)	10am-2pm (some in the evening)	Hypermarkets can open on the 1st Sunday of the month.
FR	9am-6pm	In the morning: some services	10am-7pm (10pm in some shops)	10am-7pm	No (except where dispensation is granted by prefectural decree and tourist areas)
IRL	9am-5pm	The post office only: 9.30am-5pm	9.15am-5.30pm	Not in the majority of shops. Except cities, holiday periods	Not in the majority of shops. Except cities, holiday periods
IT	4-5h/d + 2 x 2h/week in the afternoon	Yes	9am-1pm and 3.30-7.30pm (in certain cases 9am-8pm)	9am-1pm and 3.30-7.30pm (in certain cases 9am-8pm without a break)	Depending on the organisation of the opening hours of certain local authorities
LUX	8am-12pm and 2-5pm	No	9am-6pm		No (except 2 Sundays before Christmas, local sales or clearance sales, optionally)
NL	8.30/9am-5/5.30pm	The post office in the morning	9/9.30am-6pm. (9pm once a week, closed Monday morning until 1pm)	9/9.30am-5pm	The local authorities can allow opening on 12 Sundays and bank holidays per year.
PORT	5 days for 7 hours	No (except for some services)	9am-7pm	9am-1pm	No
FIN	Closed after 4.15pm (some services like the post office later at least once a week)	No	7am-9pm	7am-6pm	In June, July, August and December and 5 other Sundays in the year, between 12pm and 9pm. No restriction for certain shops and geographic areas (ongoing legislation on longer opening times)
UK	ND	Variable according to region and service. Post office: morning	Variable according to region and shops	Most	For 6 hours

SE	9am-3pm (or 6pm) The post office until 6/7pm	Many post offices (some even on Sunday)	9am-6pm	10am-4pm	12pm-4pm
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Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

**Indicators 8 and 9: Total "tied" time**

Table A.13. Proportion of basic domestic and educational tasks carried out by mothers

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

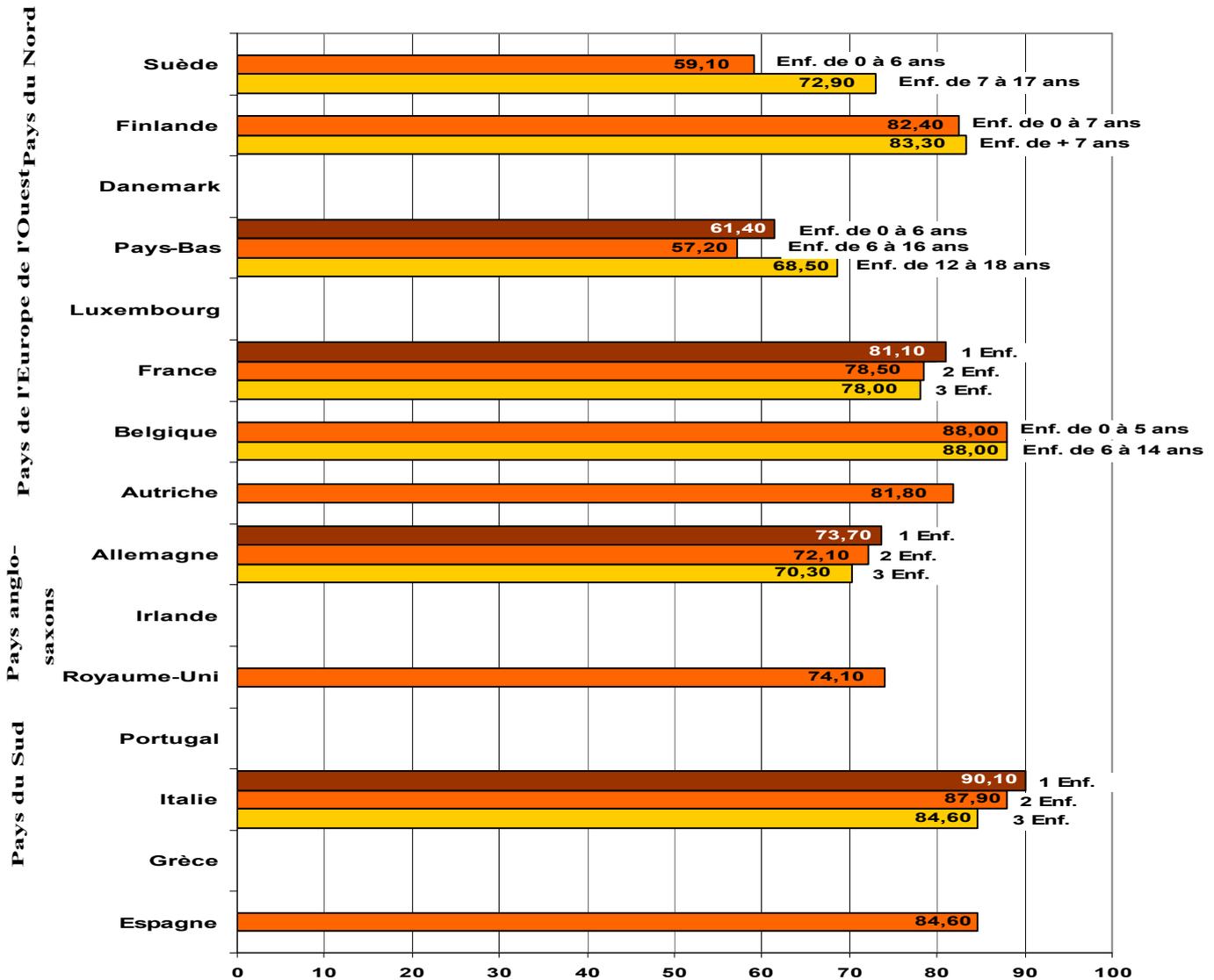


Table A.13 Proportion of basic domestic and educational tasks carried out by mothers (English translation)

Source: data collected in 2000, published in Silvera 2002

Northern countries	Sweden	59.10 % Children aged 0-6 yrs 72.90 % Children aged 7-17 yrs
	Finland	82.40 % Children aged 0-7 yrs 83.30 % Children over 7 yrs
	Denmark	
Western countries	Netherlands	61.40 % Children aged 0-6 yrs 57.20 % Children aged 6-16 yrs 68.50 % Children aged 12-18 yrs
	Luxembourg	
	France	81.10 % 1 child 78.50 % 2 children 78.00 % 3 children
	Belgium	88.00 % Children aged 0-5 yrs 88.00 % Children aged 6-14 yrs
	Austria	81.80 %
	Germany	73.70 % 1 child 72.10 % 2 children 70.30 % 3 children
English-speaking countries	Ireland	
	United Kingdom	74.10 %
Southern countries	Portugal	
	Italy	90.10 % 1 child 87.90 % 2 children 84.60 % 3 children
	Greece	
	Spain	84.60 %

Table A.14. Breakdown of the time of working women and men in 14 Member States

Hours and minutes per day

<b>Women</b>	<b>BEL</b>	<b>GER</b>	<b>ES</b>	<b>SP</b>	<b>FR</b>	<b>IT</b>	<b>LV</b>	<b>LTH</b>	<b>HU</b>	<b>PL</b>	<b>SL</b>	<b>FIN</b>	<b>SW</b>	<b>UK</b>
Paid work	3.53	3.52	4.13	4.57	4.32	4.39	5.46	5.55	4.43	4.46	4.23	4.20	4.05	4.06
Housework	3.52	3.11	4.04	3.29	3.40	3.51	3.08	3.24	3.54	3.58	4.24	3.21	3.33	3.28
Travel	1.30	1.27	1.15	1.22	1.05	1.28	1.26	1.07	1.02	1.10	1.09	1.16	1.28	1.33
Sleep	8.16	8.11	8.23	8.11	8.38	8.00	8.21	8.13	8.18	8.08	8.12	8.22	8.05	8.25
Meals & personal care	2.36	2.31	2.06	2.28	2.57	2.44	2.06	2.16	2.21	2.14	2.02	2.02	2.23	2.07
Free time	3.53	4.48	3.59	3.33	3.08	3.18	3.13	3.05	3.42	3.43	3.50	4.39	4.27	4.21
total	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24

<b>Men</b>	<b>BE</b>	<b>DE</b>	<b>ES</b>	<b>SP</b>	<b>FR</b>	<b>IT</b>	<b>LV</b>	<b>LT</b>	<b>HU</b>	<b>PL</b>	<b>SL</b>	<b>FIN</b>	<b>SW</b>	<b>UK</b>
Paid work	5.03	5.05	5.00	6.11	5.44	6.13	6.41	6.31	5.25	6.10	5.20	5.32	5.17	5.42
Housework	2.15	1.52	2.20	1.20	1.53	1.10	1.26	1.39	2.09	1.53	2.24	1.59	2.23	1.54
Travel	1.43	1.31	1.20	1.23	1.10	1.40	1.31	1.17	1.10	1.15	1.14	1.17	1.32	1.36
Sleep	8.01	8.00	8.22	8.15	8.24	7.58	8.16	8.98	8.08	7.59	8.06	8.12	7.52	8.11
Meals & personal care	2.35	2.21	2.11	2.31	2.58	2.52	2.08	2.23	2.30	2.14	2.07	1.55	2.05	1.55
Free time	4.23	5.11	4.47	4.20	3.51	4.07	3.58	4.02	4.38	4.29	4.49	5.05	4.51	4.42
total	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24

Source: national surveys processed by Eurostat (2006)

Dates of surveys variable

Table A.15. Breakdown of time of women and men aged 20-74 years in 3 Member States (data not comparable)

	<b>RO</b>		<b>DK</b>		<b>NL</b>	
	<b>W</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>M</b>
Paid work	2.01	3.33	3.31	4.32	2.25	4.01
Housework	5.28	2.28	3.32	2.23	4.04	2.31
Travel	0.40	1.00	1.12	1.14	0.50	1.02
Sleep	8.47	8.41	7.57	7.44	8.45	8.19
Meals & personal care	2.24	2.35	2.54	2.44	1.47	1.37
Free time	4.40	5.43	4.54	5.23	6.09	6.30
total	24	24	24	24	24	24
Meals & personal care	2.24	2.35	2.54	2.44	1.47	1.37
Free time	4.40	5.43	4.54	5.23	6.09	6.30
total	24	24	24	24	24	24

Source: national surveys

Dates of surveys variable

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## Additional studies

<b>European Commission</b>
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- **Reconciliation of professional and private life: exchange of good practices (2007)**

Manual on 18 projects on the theme of "the reconciliation of work and private life", financed by the Commission as part of the Fifth Community Programme on Gender Equality. Each fact sheet contains a short presentation of the project's objectives, the methodology, the target groups and the principal results.

[http://ec.europa.eu/employment\\_social/publications/2007/ke7606198\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/publications/2007/ke7606198_en.pdf)

- **Reconciliation of work and private life - A comparative review of thirty European countries (2006)**

Report which presents an overview of reconciliation policies in the 27 Member States and the 3 EEA countries (Iceland, Norway and Liechtenstein). The report focuses on 1) Patterns of participation and fertility 2) Childcare services 3) Leave possibilities 4) Flexible working-time arrangements 5) Financial allowances 6) Reasons for and effects of employer involvement.

[http://bookshop.eu.int/ebookshop/FileCache/PUBPDF/KE6905828ENC/KE6905828ENC\\_002.pdf](http://bookshop.eu.int/ebookshop/FileCache/PUBPDF/KE6905828ENC/KE6905828ENC_002.pdf)

- **Report from the Commission on the Implementation of Council Directive 96/34/EC of 3 June 1996 on the framework agreement on parental leave concluded by UNICE, CEEP and the ETUC (2002)**

This report is based on the information received by the Commission under Article 2(1) of the Directive on parental leave, obliging the Member States to inform the Commission of the measures they have introduced through legislation or collective agreements for applying the Directive in the 15 Member States.

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52003DC0358:in:NOT>

- **Report/Resolution on reconciling professional, family and private lives (2003/2129-INI) – (2004)**

The European Parliament examined different approaches to the reconciliation of work, family and private life with the aim of promoting equality in the employment of women and men and tackling the demographic problem. The point of view adopted is in favour of the overall reduction of working time, and in particular the promotion of part-time work for both sexes, at all qualification levels, which would be an effective way to reconcile professional and family life. Similarly, the report opts for access to long but paid parental leave and above all for the development of childcare facilities, and the financing of allowances or other tax schemes in favour of flexibility in the use of childcare modes according to different family models. The report calls on the Member States to promote networks for exchanging best practices and reinforcing their data collection systems. Furthermore, the Parliament encourages measures in favour of the promotion of the balanced participation of men and women in both work and family via the development of pilot projects and information campaigns to change attitudes and remove the obstacles to the participation of women in the labour market.

<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+REPORT+A5-2004-0092+0+DOC+XML+V0//IN>

- **Report/Resolution on a regulatory framework for measures enabling young women in the European Union to combine family life with a period of studies (2007) – own-initiative report by Greek Conservative Marie Panayotopoulos-Cassiotou**

This report contains different recommendations on how to facilitate for young people a reconciliation between periods of study or training with family responsibilities, with parental or maternity leave, or with the care of elderly or disabled dependants. It points to the difficulties encountered in the different stages of life (study, work, family) as being partly responsible for demographic decline. The report urges the Member States to develop policies to reconcile training and family, such as the development of financial support for young people, for example via cheaper social security contributions for students or bank loan facilities, or even the reduction or abolition of income tax for young people with family responsibilities at the same time as studying or working. It also calls on Member States and social partners to develop lifelong learning and its reconciliation with family and professional life. Lastly, it urges the Member States to examine whether family responsibilities are a factor prompting young people and especially girls to abandon their studies.

<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?type=REPORT&reference=A6-2007-0209&language=IN&mode=XML>

- **First European Quality of Life Survey: Time use and work–life options over the life course (2007)**

This report examines the issue of time budgeting and the work-family balance over the life course. It covers 25 European countries and studies the different possible ways in which the institutional and policy framework can influence actual and preferred patterns of time use in the different stages of life. It includes individual points of view on proposed working time options and comments on preferences regarding measures to reconcile the different demands on time.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2006/99/in/1/ef0699en.pdf>

- **Parental leave in European companies (2007)**

The 2004-2005 survey on work-life balance and working time by the Dublin Foundation presents a variety of working-time arrangements in companies. It addresses the use of parental leave, and other forms of leave such as leave to care for sick children or other members of the family. It provides a comparison of the parental leave systems and of the different use of parental leave by women and men in 21 European countries. It also discusses the factors which influence take-up of parental leave by employees.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/htmlfiles/ef0687.htm>

- **Family-related leave and industrial relations (2004)**

This study examines the position, in terms of legislation or collective agreements, in most of countries regarding all forms of leave for family reasons: maternity, paternity, parental, etc. It gives the points of view of employers and trade unions and assesses the impact of family-related leave and its effects on equality between women and men.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2004/03/study/tn0403101s.html>

link with the questionnaire [http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2004/03/word/tn0309q\\_2.doc](http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2004/03/word/tn0309q_2.doc)

- **Employment developments in childcare services for school-age children (2007)**

This report examines the development of employment in the out-of-school services provided for school-age children (5-12 years) in the 25 Member States. It presents initiatives for employment in this sector with the aim of improving the quality of the service and qualification of the personnel, and taking into account the costs incurred and the stability of these services.

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/htmlfiles/ef0632.htm>

- **Childcare services in the EU - what future? (2006)**

This article examines the trends observed in childcare services, particularly for children under 3 years old. It covers both formal and informal services, including the parental care of pre-school children.

[http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/emcc/content/source/eu06015a.htm?p1=ef\\_publication&p2=null](http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/emcc/content/source/eu06015a.htm?p1=ef_publication&p2=null)

## European Trade Union Institute (ETUI-RHES)

- **Analysis of the implementation of the parental leave Directive in the EU Member States (2000)**

This report proposes an overview of the most salient characteristics of the application of the Directive in the EU 15 , through their legislation and collective agreements. It also looks into the situation in Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland which, when the report was published, had no obligation to apply the Directive, but already had their own system of parental leave. This report is essentially made up of the answers to the questionnaire sent out to the bodies affiliated to ETUC.

[http://www.labourline.org/GEIDFile/00\\_Parental\\_Leave\\_R66.PDF?Archive=197103591538&File=00+Parental+Leave+R66\\_PDF](http://www.labourline.org/GEIDFile/00_Parental_Leave_R66.PDF?Archive=197103591538&File=00+Parental+Leave+R66_PDF)

## ILO

- **Maternity at work: A review of national legislation (2004)**

Analyses of the legal principles of maternity leave around the world, derived from two ILO databases: the first covers 56 countries. <http://www.ilo.org/travail/database/index.htm>

The second database is devoted to the principal services offered (duration of leave, % of salary paid during the leave, etc.). Chapter 3 covers paternity, parental and adoption leave.

<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/condtrav/publ/wf-iogpt-05.htm>

## Council of Europe

- **Parental Leave in Council of Europe Member States (2004)**

This study focuses on parental leave in 45 Member States of the Council of Europe, in the framework of a balanced reconciliation in terms of gender between working life and family life. It examines the legislation, and the identified gaps that need to be filled in national legislation, statistical data and trends in the use of parental leave.

[http://www.coe.int/t/e/human\\_rights/equality/03.\\_women\\_and\\_decision%2Dmaking/097\\_CDEG\(2004\)14.asp#TopOfPage](http://www.coe.int/t/e/human_rights/equality/03._women_and_decision%2Dmaking/097_CDEG(2004)14.asp#TopOfPage)

**Review of the implementation by the Member States and the EU institutions of the Beijing Platform for Action**

**Summary of the report by the French Presidency on the indicators concerning reconciliation of work and family life included in the set of conclusions adopted by the Council under the French Presidency in 2000<sup>17</sup>**

For over 10 years the relationship between family and working life has been an important element of European policy, reflected in resolutions, directives and recommendations. The Resolution of the Council of Employment Ministers of June 2000 states, for example, that "*The principle of equality between men and women makes it essential to offset the ... disadvantages arising from social practices which still presuppose that women are chiefly responsible for unpaid work related to looking after a family and men chiefly responsible for paid work derived from an economic activity.*" The work-life balance is a lever in favour of employment, gender equality and also of demographic challenges.

This report comes under the French Presidency of the Council of the European Union from 1 July to 31 December 2008; it proposes a review of the indicators included in the conclusions of the Council of the European Union of 28 November 2000, following the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. These nine indicators on the work-life balance have been analysed in this report on the basis of the statistical surveys available (in particular from Eurostat), supplemented by studies and work conducted in Europe on this subject. The aim is therefore to update, harmonise and analyse their evolution.

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<sup>17</sup> See 13481/00.

## Analysis of the evolution of the indicators since their adoption in 2000

### *Indicator 1: Proportion of employed men and women on parental leave*

and

### *Indicator 2: Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave*

Since 2000, despite widespread legislation, parental leave has developed little and the statistics available are still inadequate even if this report has revealed some progress. Whatever the system adopted, parental leave is still very female-dominated – more than 90 % in most countries – with the exception of the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (where this leave is very short). **The longer the leave period and the lower the pay, the less it is taken up by mothers, and even less by fathers.** The Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries stand out in that fathers take up this leave more frequently.

### *Indicator 3: Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group (...)*

There is a definite improvement in statistical coverage regarding childcare provision and the existence of harmonised surveys (even if there is room for improvement). As regards childcare provision for children aged 2 and under, major progress has been made in several countries ". Seven of the 27 countries now meet the Barcelona target (over 33 % of zero to three year-olds receiving childcare). **But it is mainly in respect of older children that efforts have been made: 10 countries exceed 90 % childcare for 3 to 6 year-olds; 7 others provide childcare for 70 to 90 % of them.**

***Indicator 4: Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life***

This indicator, on which no information was given in previous studies, is the only one proposing a qualitative approach since it concerns Member States' policies to promote work-life balance, based on: the relevance of the length of maternity or parental leave (Germany, France, Denmark, Finland, etc.), the need to raise the issue with companies (Portugal, Luxembourg, etc.), ideas on a time savings account system (Belgium, etc.) or the involvement of fathers (France, Spain, etc.).

***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 (...)***

**Starting from a situation where data on the dependence of the over-75s did not exist, there has been a clear improvement in understanding** through the launching of surveys which have, as yet, produced only piecemeal results. The survey indicates around 7 million dependent adults in Europe (EU 25). Dependence increases with age. But recourse to institutions is still low (approx. 10 %) with the exception of Luxembourg (over 40%), which suggests that families (and very often women) provide such care to a large extent.

***Indicators 6 et 7: Normal opening hours of public services and shops (such as local authority offices, post offices, crèches, etc.) during the week and on Saturdays***

No information can be given on these indicators, even if experiments with the organisation of "town times" have been launched in Germany, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands, etc. (see indicator 4). These space-time policies aimed at greater harmonisation of the opening times of services and businesses for the sake of a better work-life balance for everyone have not been rolled out across Europe as a whole. They are still at the experimental stage.

***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 (...)***

and

***Indicator 9: Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependant (...)***

**Considerable progress in the harmonisation of time use surveys has been made since 2000.**

"Tied" time (work and domestic time) is greater in the case of European women (with the exception of three countries where this time is equally divided: Sweden, United Kingdom, Netherlands). The presence of children further deepens this divide. Even if part-time and parental leave reduce women's working time, men keep more time "free", time for themselves. There are major differences between countries in the time given over to domestic duties: between Sweden where women perform around 50% more domestic duties than men and .... Italy and Spain where there is a 200 % difference.

### **New lines of enquiry**

There are still great difficulties in obtaining certain data. Member States should be encouraged to take part in surveys under way or to provide national data, notably concerning parental leave, dependent old people and time-budget surveys. As regards indicator 3, some thought should be given to the definition of childcare facilities. Since the measures concerning the opening of shops and services are scattered, we would propose deleting indicators 6 and 7 regarding the opening times of shops and services and widening the scope of indicator 4 by incorporating more precise information in the future on experiments with "town times".

Furthermore, the matter of the **involvement of companies and the notion of life cycle in the discussion on work-life balance** could be taken into account for the sake of better distribution of time throughout one's life (earlier entry, later retirement), with "breathers" in working time and lifelong training for all.

Lastly, **within Europe and each Member States sources of compromise need to be found between the players** involved: **the State**, which has to pursue efforts to invest in childcare facilities, continue to meet the cost of such care, facilitate access to leave and promote organisation of time for *all* parents; **companies**, which are too often reluctant to introduce "family-friendly" measures; **trade union organisations**, which have to negotiate measures favourable to everyone and, finally, **families**, within which gender-related representations need to evolve.

### **Evolving European social work-life balance models?**

Since 2000 these indicators have evolved considerably: firstly, more information about them is now available; secondly, the policies themselves have evolved (development of childcare facilities and parental leave, etc.). But as with any comparative exercise, distortions in the definition of the concepts used and in their interpretation arise because of differing cultural concepts. Care needs to be taken when interpreting them.

Despite this progress, the significance of standard models, already presented in the 2000 report, remains: some countries have developed and consolidated a genuine policy of gender equality and work-life balance geared to helping parents to fulfil themselves both in their working and family life (countries in which the level of employment of women and levels of fertility are relatively high); others focus more on women (with average levels of employment and fairly low levels of fertility), even though their access to the employment market is now improving for economic or social reasons (through part-time work, and/or better or well paid parental leave). In a third instance, the State intervenes little for various reasons (budget constraints, "family-centred" or free market models: family solidarity then has a key role to play but is accompanied by low involvement of women in terms of work and a very low level of fertility. Finally, a "hybrid" group combines these different elements, depending on the circumstances and sometimes to the detriment of some women. **We conclude that national public measures adopted to improve work-life balance correspond in reality to choices in favour of equality.** Public childcare facilities are more favourable to mothers working full-time, while overlong and badly paid holidays, or even part-time work, have an impact on women's careers and on their retirement. These arrangements are still very much dominated by women and are less geared to qualified jobs. Hence the importance of reviewing such indicators on a regular basis.