

BALANCING WORK AND FAMILY: WESTERN VERSUS EASTERN EUROPE

PRELIMINARY RESULTS - PLEASE DO NOT QUOTE!

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Acknowledgments:

This paper is the outcome of two projects:

1. Quantitative study - project “DIALOG Population Policy Acceptance Study (PPAS): The Viewpoint of Citizens and Policy Actors Regarding the Management of Population Related Change” funded by the European Commission under the 5th Framework Programme, Contract No. HPSE-CT-2002-00153.
2. The Grant Agency of the Czech Republic (GAČR) also supported the research, grant no. 0317/2003-2006.

Furthermore, I appreciate the useful comments and suggestions from Ladislav Rabušic and Tomáš Katrňák.

Note: The present paper presents preliminary results based on the author’s own calculations. A complete analysis will be finalized later on. The theoretical background was shortened due to space restriction.

◆ Overview of the literature and its importance attached to the reconciliation of work and family

How employees balance their work and family lives is an area of increasing interest to many scholars from different fields of study. The field of work and family concerns the interactions between involvement in employment and in family. It also includes the commitment to family and work. People face the daily challenge of balancing two important spheres of their lives – work and family. The challenge is manifested throughout life, beginning with the decision of getting married or living together, having or not having children, or caring for elderly relatives or grandchildren, and working in the same time.

Considerations about work and family balance have developed into a crucial element of policy discussions in present day Europe. Although Europe shows more integrated patterns due to the EU enlargement, differences between East and West still persist. The year 1989 represented a major turning point for Eastern Europe, bringing changes to the political, economic and social environments with impact on work and family as well.

The scientific community (Bailyn L., Drago R., Kochan T. A., 2001) argues that employers, unions, professional associations and advocacy groups, government, and communities all have roles to play in reconciling work and family life, and acting alone in solving this problem will not bring the expected results.

Families raising children, and particularly women as the main care providers, face the provocation of providing care for children, especially when they are young, and for elderly relatives, having a paid job and taking also responsibility for the household.

One of the most important economic and social changes during the decades following the Second World War has been the large increase in the number of women, with or without children, in the labor market. The most surprising development of women's involvement in the labor market could be observed in Central and Eastern Europe during the communist regimes. Female labor force activity rates were very high in 1989, ranging between 70 and 90 per cent of working-age women (15 to 55 years), similar to the Swedish level, but much higher than the 50 per cent European average (UNICEF, 1999, pp. 24). However, women's employment has registered a decline in Central and Eastern Europe beginning with 1989.

Work and family decisions are made in the context of a broad set of interacting factors including opportunities and preferences, family formation, parenthood, caring and intergenerational arrangements, education, and work and learning opportunities later in life, and retirement prospects (OECD, 2002, *Babies and Bosses: Reconciling work and family life*).

The traditional family model, in which the mother is responsible for running the household and caring for children, still perpetuates. The role of the man/husband within the family has not changed significantly in the past several years, although nowadays legislation is friendlier with fathers who want to share childcare responsibilities (Women 2000, pp. 140).

Childcare represents one of the most important dimensions in the reconciliation of work and family. Until 1990, the situation of childcare facilities in Central and Eastern Europe allowed women to combine work and family, although it is now becoming increasingly difficult for women to juggle these two spheres as the situation of childcare provision is deteriorating. A description of childcare systems in Europe is given further in the paper.

Part-time has been traditionally regarded as a solution to balance work and family responsibilities in the Western European countries, but discrepancies in part-time development exist among the these countries. Part-time work has started to develop in Central and Eastern Europe after the fall

of the communist regimes, but at a slower pace and to a smaller extent compared to the Western European countries.

Family leaves (maternity, paternity, parental, sick or other leaves) are considered to be another way to reconcile work and family life. The duration and allowances attached to these different types of leaves vary within Europe. An interesting feature is that the duration of leaves in Central and Eastern Europe is longer compared to Western countries.

Hantrais (2002) argues that there aren't too many social policy measures that were implemented in the ex-communist countries after 1989 which could provide incentives for couples to raise children. In fact many of the services and benefits available under the Soviet regime disappeared during transition and/or were considerably reduced.

We can expect gender differences in work and family satisfaction and involvement. Hochschild (1989) supports the idea that the way work and family responsibilities are dealt with and organized and the experience of balancing work and family differ for men and women. She argues that modern societies have reconciled the dilemma between self-interest and caring for others by dividing women and men into different moral categories. Women have been expected to seek personal development by caring for others, while men care for others by sharing the rewards of their independent work achievements. Women must now seek economic self-sufficiency even as they continue to bear responsibility for the care of others. Men can reject the obligation to provide for others, but they face new pressures to become more involved fathers and partners.

Work and family are often discussed in terms of their competing and never-ending demands. With only 24 hours in each day and the requirement that we are present at a specific location or working on certain tasks during particular hours, there are many expectations that may remain unmet. Because the time spent at work may indicate one's commitment to profession and time spent with one's children or spouse may indicate commitment to family and love, it is difficult to delegate responsibilities to others (Emmons, Biernat, Tiedje, Lang and Wortman, 1990 in Milkie M. and Peltola P., 1999, p. 477).

How do people juggle their work and family responsibilities on a daily basis? Can we talk about a greater female involvement in family and a greater male involvement in work? Are women still the main childcare providers? How do men connect to child rearing? These were the main questions guiding our research. The paper makes use of a quantitative study carried out in 14 European countries. A description of the study is offered later in the paper. The analysis is restricted to 4 countries due to the lack of comparative data.

The paper is structured as follows: the first part contains a short description of the labor force participation, family leaves, childcare facilities followed by an overview of the reforms in the field of reconciliation of work and family implemented in Europe. The next section deals with methodological considerations and findings. We conclude with some recommendations and final insights.

♦ Labor force participation

Employment can help build the independence and self-reliance of families, increase the resources available to meet their needs and protect against social exclusion and inter-generation disadvantage. On the other hand, pressures induced by work can make parenting more difficult.

The system for guaranteeing jobs and salaries and the industrialization policy determined the existence of a high occupation/employment rate during the communist regime in Central and Eastern Europe. The employment structure has considerably changed since 1989 in the former

communist countries, with a decline in sectors such as industry and agriculture and rise of employment in services. However, visible disparities among those countries exist. Employment in agriculture and industry in all the Central and Eastern European countries is significantly higher than the EU average to the detriment of the services sector. The key labor market indicators shown below describe the evolution in the labor market at the European level.

As can be observed in the *Table 1*, the overall employment rate in the EU15 has been slightly increasing from 1995. The same trend can be also observed at country level, but the increase varies among the countries. The highest raise can be observed in the Netherlands (almost 10% in a 5-year interval), while the smallest increase took place in Germany (only 1% for the same reference period). The same table shows also the female employment rate and its trend over a 5-year period. Between 1995 and 2000 female employment rate rose by about 4.3 percentage points (from 49.7% to 54.0%). Concerning the unemployment rate as percentage from labor force 15+, a 2.5% drop at EU15 level can be observed, but there are some variations within EU15. Female unemployment rates also decreased in the same period.

The situation is different in the Central and Eastern part of Europe, where the employment rates have decreased since 1989. Table 1 presents data for two reference years – 1998 and 2000. The overall employment rate for the selected countries has registered a decline in 5 analyzed countries, except Hungary where a slight increase can be observed and Slovenia where a constant evolution can be seen. As a consequence of decrease in employment and activity rates, the unemployment rate registered a rise, which varies from 1.5% in Romania to 5.5% in Poland. Only Hungary registered a drop in the unemployment rate (2.1%), although a slight decrease can be observed also in Slovenia. The female employment and unemployment trends show the same evolution as the overall rates with the same variation among the analyzed countries.

Table 1. Labor force participation, by country

		Year 1995							Year 2000						
		EU 15	BE	D	I	NL	A	FI N	EU 15	BE	D	I	NL	A	FI N
All	Employment rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	60.0	56.1	64.6	50.6	64.5	68.6	62.0	63.3	60.5	65.4	53.5	73.2	68.3	67.5
	Activity rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	67.3	62.1	70.5	57.4	69.4	71.2	73.2	69.0	65.1	71.0	59.9	75.2	70.8	74.8
	Unemployment rate (% labor force 15+)	10.7	9.9	8.2	11.6	6.4	3.9	15.4	8.2	7.0	7.9	10.5	2.7	3.7	9.8
F	Employment rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	49.7	45.1	55.3	35.4	53.6	58.9	59.1	54.0	51.5	57.9	39.6	63.7	59.4	64.4
	Activity rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	56.9	51.7	61.3	42.3	58.6	61.6	69.6	59.9	56.4	63.1	46.3	65.9	61.8	72.0
	Unemployment rate (% labor force 15+)	12.5	12.9	9.6	16.2	8.6	5.0	15.1	9.7	8.8	8.3	14.4	3.7	4.3	10.6

		Year 1998							Year 2000						
		CZ	EE	HU	LT	PL	RO	SI	CZ	EE	HU	LT	PL	RO	SI
All	Employment rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	57.3	54.5	53.7	63.2	58.9	65.4	62.6	55.0	50.3	55.3	60.1	55.1	63.0	62.8
	Activity rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	72.0	72.2	58.7	72.1	65.9	69.9	67.3	71.3	70.0	50.1	71.3	65.7	68.4	67.5
	Unemployment rate (% labor force 15+)	5.4	9.2	8.4	11.8	10.9	5.3	6.9	8.7	12.5	6.3	15.7	16.4	6.8	6.6
F	Employment rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	58.7	50.3	47.2	58.9	51.3	59.1	58.0	56.9	56.8	49.7	58.5	48.9	57.5	58.4
	Activity rate (% pop. aged 15-64)	54.0	55.4	51.2	65.9	58.8	63.5	62.7	53.5	54.8	52.7	67.4	59.7	61.9	62.9
	Unemployment rate (% labor force 15+)	8.1	8.3	7.8	10.4	13.0	5.7	7.1	10.3	11.5	5.6	13.4	18.6	6.3	6.8

Source: Employment in Europe 2001, 2002, 2003

Concerning part-time employment and its use as a reconciliation tool, the spread of this type of employment is very diverse in Europe (*see Table 2*). In all European countries included in our analysis the women's part-time employment rate is higher than the men's rate (and higher than the overall part-time employment rate).

Despite the overall increase in the part-time employment rate at EU15 level, slight declines in the rate were experienced in several Central and Eastern Europe states, such as Slovenia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, and Hungary, ranging from 0,2 to 1,4 percentage. By contrast, a slight increase is observed in Romania, whereas in Poland and Lithuania stagnation can be observed. The highest female part-time employment rates are in the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria and Germany, whereas the rates are below 10% in former communist countries, except Romania where the part-time employment was around 16% in 2000.

Table 2. Part-time employment, by country

	Year 1995							Year 2000						
	EU 15	BE	D	I	NL	A	FI N	EU 15	BE	D	I	NL	A	FI N
Overall part-time employment (% total employment)	15.8	14.0	16.3	6.3	37.4	13.5	11.6	17.7	18.9	20.0	8.4	41.5	16.4	12.3
Male part-time employment (% total employment)	5.2	3.0	3.5	2.9	16.7	3.8	8.2	6.1	5.5	...	3.7	19.3	4.1	8.0
Female part-time employment (% total employment)	31.0	30.5	33.7	12.7	67.4	26.8	15.4	33.3	37.4	...	16.5	71.0	32.2	17.0

	Year 1998							Year 2000						
	CZ	EE	HU	LT	PL	RO	SI	CZ	EE	HU	LT	PL	RO	SI
Overall part-time employment (% total employment)	5.7	8.5	3.8	8.6	10.4	15.8	8.0	5.3	8.0	3.6	8.6	10.5	16.4	6.6
Male part-time employment (% total employment)	2.5	5.9	2.4	7.6	8.1	13.5	7.2	2.2	5.1	2.1	7.6	8.2	14.6	5.4
Female part-time employment (% total employment)	9.9	11.4	5.4	9.6	13.2	18.3	9.0	9.3	10.9	5.2	9.6	13.3	18.5	8.0

Source: Employment in Europe 2001, 2002, 2003

A report on the evolution of employment in Europe published in 2003 shows that the increase in part-time jobs, mostly taken by women, represents more than 40% of all jobs created in the same period. The availability of more flexible working hours' arrangements, that allowed a better balance between family life and working time, led to an increase in participation.

The study "Working Conditions in the Acceding and Candidate Countries" carried out by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions in 2003 pointed out the differences between the EU part time worker and the CEEC part time worker: the weekly working time of a part timer in all the Central and Eastern European countries is the same or even longer than a full timer. Adopting part time arrangements in ex communist countries is due to the wishes and constraints of improving the household income sources, and not an option for the purpose of balancing work and family responsibilities. In some countries, such as Romania, even if the part time employment rate for men is lower than that of women, the relative high share of part time work is due to the high level of part time workers among the self-employed¹ (91 per cent of all self employed in Romania are in agriculture).

◆ Family leaves

Family creation and structure have experienced a major transformation during the last 20 years. The most important transformation refers to the shrinking of family size, postponement in marriage and childbearing, increased numbers of single-parent families, increased numbers of one-person households, and diversification of family arrangements (increase of cohabiting couples, homosexual couples etc.). These changes have a great impact on the development and implementation of family-related policies in Europe. The present paper does not propose to analyze and present these changes in family creation and structure, but to present the family-related policies used in reconciling work and family life.

Family-related policies are those policies promoted and implemented by the governments and meant to affect the situation within families with children on the one hand, and the situation at individual level but within family frame on the other hand. Family-related policies are seen as a

component of social policies, and they usually include child and family allowances, family leaves, tax benefits etc. The most important dimensions for reconciling of work and family life are family leaves and child/family allowances. The following part presents the family leave system in Europe, while a separate subchapter will refer to childcare facilities.

The family leave system represents an important tool in combining / reconciling work and family life besides the working arrangements and childcare facilities. It is important to differentiate between different types of family leaves. Family leaves include maternity leave, paternity leave, parental leave, sick leave and other types of leaves.

Women are entitled to take maternity leave connected with childbirth. They are also granted a maternity allowance for the maternity leave period. The length of maternity leave and the allowance vary among the analyzed countries (*see Table 3*). The maternity allowance is granted based on previous labor market participation in most of the countries, except Finland, Hungary and the Netherlands where unemployed women are entitled to take maternity leave and get maternity grant as well. The longest maternity leave is offered in the Czech Republic (28 weeks) and Poland (26 weeks), whereas the shortest period is offered in Germany (14 weeks).

With regard to maternity allowance, the amount varies between 100% and 75% from the previous salary, with some differentiations between countries such as Finland and Belgium, where maternity allowance is mean-tested and Slovenia, where women get at least minimum wage at the national level.

Paternity leave is the leave fathers are entitled to take immediately after the birth of a child. The situation with regard to paternity leave is very diverse among the European countries. Some countries offer paternity leave, others do not. Among those who do not offer paternity leave we can mention Austria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania and Germany. Legislation in countries such as Belgium, Estonia, Romania, Netherlands, Poland and Slovenia offers paternity leave to fathers, the length varying from 2 days (in the Netherlands) to 90 days (in Slovenia). Paternity leave is included in parental leave in countries such as Italy and Finland. It is also worth mentioning that paternity leave is offered in Germany in case of work agreements between labor and employer organizations.

Table 3. Maternity leave and allowance

Country	Length of maternity leave	Amount
BE (Flanders)	15 weeks	60-82% for employed mothers and 100% civil servants
D	14 weeks	100% for employed mothers
I	22 weeks	80% for employed mothers
NL	16 weeks	100% of daily wage but no more than 159 € daily
A	16 weeks	100% of the previous 3 months' average net-income
FIN	21 weeks	65% of earnings (mean-tested)
CZ	28 weeks	69% of daily wage (ceiling is 13 €)
EE	20 weeks	100% of monthly salary
HU	24 weeks	70% of mothers' previous salary
LT	18 weeks	100% for employed mothers
PL	26 weeks	100% of the average earning for the last three months
RO	18 weeks	85% of the average monthly income for the last 6 months
SI	15 weeks	100% of the average monthly gross wage for the last year

Source: Work Package 4, Report D15, 2005

Early June 1996, the national policies of the EU15 countries concerning family leave were supported by the European Union Directive concerning the Parental Leave (96/34/EC), which obliges the member countries beginning with June 1998 to introduce legal norms in parental leave domain. These norms allow parents to take care of their children for a period of 3 months, as a non-transferable personal right.

This EU directive refers to a minimum guaranteed leave by all the member states. Besides this directive, the EU states have their own legal norms. It is worth mentioning that in the Netherlands, Iceland and Ireland, an important number of civil workers receive high benefits or/and an extended parental leave against the legal norms.

The length of parental leave varies among the European countries with differences between EU15 and the former communist countries. Diversity can be also observed with regard to the parental allowance at the European level. The following table (*Table 4*) presents the parental leave provisions in the analyzed states.

The parental leave is depended upon the employment status and period in all countries. The information regarding the parental leave granted in case of part-time employment was available only for 7 countries. People having part-time jobs are entitled to take parental leave only in Austria, Germany, Estonia and the Netherlands, while there is no entitlement in Italy, the Czech Republic and Romania.

In countries such as Belgium, Finland, Italy and the Netherlands, the length of parental leave varies between 3 and 6 months, while the longest granted parental leave is in Germany and Austria – 3 respectively 2 years. The parental leave legislation is more favorable in the former communist countries, where parents can take up to 4 years of parental leave in Poland, 3 years in Estonia, the Czech Republic (or for 4 years without job security and allowance) and Hungary, 2 years in Romania and only one year in Slovenia and Lithuania.

Concerning the possibility of sharing the parental leave between partners, all countries grant both parents the right to take parental leave. The parental allowance amount and period of granting varies among the analyzed countries. The Netherlands do not provide any parental allowance, except in the case of public servants or collective agreements, whereas in Hungary there is a child allowance granted during the parental leave period. All the other countries offer parental allowance in different amounts and granting periods.

Table 4. Legal provisions on parental leave in the analyzed countries

Country	Conditioned by the employment period	Maximum period	The period in which parental leave can be taken	Option to take leave in the case of part-time employment	Option to share the leave period	Allowances
Austria	Yes	2 years full time and 4 years part-time leave	Up to age 4	Yes	Yes	Yes
Belgium (Flanders)	Yes	3 months full time and 6 months part-time	Up to age 4	--	Yes	Yes
Finland	Yes	158 weeks	--	--	Yes	Yes
Germany	Yes	3 years	Up to age 3	Yes	Yes	Yes
Italy	Yes, but self-employed mothers can take as well	3-6 months	Up to age 8	No	Yes	Yes
Netherlands	Yes	20 hours a week during a continuous period of 6 month	Up to age 8	Yes	Yes	No (only in public sector or some collective work arrangements)
The Czech Republic	Yes	3 years (plus one year unpaid)	Up to age 4	No	Yes	Yes
Estonia	Yes	3 years	Up to age 3	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hungary	Yes	3 years	Up to age 3	--	Yes	No (but child allowance is granted up to age 2)
Lithuania	Yes	Almost one year starting after maternity leave	Up to age 1	--	Yes	Yes
Poland	Yes	36 months	Up to age 4	--	Yes	Yes
Romania	Yes	2 years	Up to age 2	No	Yes	Yes
Slovenia		260 days of full-time leave or 520 days of a half-time leave combined with a part-time work	Up to 11 months	--	Yes	Yes

Source: *Work Package 4, Country Reports, 2004*

◆ Childcare facilities

Care as a concept is often defined “with reference to the activities and relations involved in caring for the ill, the elderly and the dependent young” (Daly & Rake, 2003: 49).

Daly & Rake (2003) identify two types of care provision related to childcare:

- a. *Benefits or services provided in kind*: home helps and other community-based support services, child care places, residential places for children
- b. *Incentives for provision other than by the state*: subsidies for care costs, vouchers for childcare.

The analyzed countries have very diversified and different childcare systems, no matter if we analyze the childcare facilities for children under three years old or for children over three years old. Scholars and policy makers differentiate between formal childcare offered by the state, and informal childcare provided by individuals, either paid or unpaid. The state plays a very important role in providing childcare facilities, although the private and community care should not be ignored as well. Informal unpaid childcare is still an important component in some countries.

A report on “The Social Situation in the European Union” (2000) gives as a picture of those who provide unpaid childcare and the time spent when providing unpaid childcare (based on the *European Household Panel 1995*).

“Those in the age groups 25-29 (26%), 40-49 (35%) and particularly the 30-39 age group (51%) are the most common source of unpaid child care, however older people are also a significant source, usually as grandparents: 11% of those aged 60-69 and 6% of those aged 70-79. Women are twice as likely as men to provide child care (31% compared with 15%), in the Southern Member States and Ireland their disparity is even larger: 3 to 1 in Greece and 5 to 1 in Portugal but also in Austria (nearly 3 to 1). In Denmark and the Netherlands the difference is only 30%. 33% of the economically inactive provide unpaid child care although the figure is lower for the unemployed (28%) and retired (8%). The average number of hours spent on unpaid childcare is 34 hours per week. Women spend nearly twice as much time as men on child care (41 hours per week compared with 21), with people aged 25- 29 devoting most time (47 hours per week). Older people, who do look after children, spend considerable amounts of time doing so: an average of 19 hours per week among those aged 60-69 and 16 hours per week among the 70-79 year olds. Those in work with child care responsibilities devote less time to them (30 hours per week) than either the unemployed (41 hours) or the economically inactive (45 hours)” (2000:82).

Concerning the formal childcare system supported by the state, the differences between Western and Eastern states can be explained in terms of former, different political, social and economic systems. The former communist regimes were very friendly toward women and families with children, as the demand from labor market was very high. Although the communist regimes provided childcare facilities or other child benefits, women remained the primary caregivers and house-workers as well as having additional responsibilities to a workplace and employer. However, the situation in Central and Eastern countries has changed in terms of childcare facilities during the last 15 years.

The kindergartens network is more developed in all countries than the nurseries/crèches network (see Table 5). Also the enrollment age differs from country to country, but some common patterns can be noticed. In most of the former communist countries, the enrolment age in compulsory education is 7, only in the Czech Republic and Hungary is it 6. The youngest enrolment age in compulsory education is in the Netherlands.

Concerning the nursery/crèche as percentage of children age 0-2 enrolled, variation among the European countries and between Western and Eastern Europe can be observed. The highest rates are in Belgium and Estonia, while the lowest enrollment rates are in Poland and the Czech Republic. The enrollment rates in kindergartens are high in all countries, varying between 98-99% in Belgium, Italy and the Netherlands and 38.9% in Poland. In Poland, the low enrollment rate in kindergarten might be a consequence of the high fees asked at enrollment. The Netherlands is an example of country which offers three types of childcare: formal childcare, unpaid informal

childcare and paid informal childcare. Other countries, which offer informal care, are Austria and Finland, where home-based care is an important part of the childcare system.

Table 5. Proportion of children in public childcare system, 2000

Country	Day nursery, crèche (children age 0-2) %	Kindergartens (children age 3 to school age) %	Preschool education, starting age	Compulsory education, starting age
Austria	10.0	73.0	...	Age 7
Belgium (Flanders)	61.0 (1999)	99.0	Age 2.5	Age 6
Finland	36.0 (2001)	64.0 (2001)	Age 6	Age 7
Germany	3.7 (west)/14.0(east)	74.0(west)/85.8 (east)	...	Age 6
Italy	8.6	98.0	Age 3	Age 6
Netherlands	22.5	98.0	Age 4	Age 5
The Czech Republic	< 1.0	89.2	Age 3	Age 6
Estonia	46.7	81.9	...	Age 7
Hungary	10.3	87.2	Age 5	Age 6
Lithuania	14.9	55.9	Age 6	Age 7
Poland	2.0	38.9	...	Age 7
Romania	...	66.1	...	Age 7
Slovenia	29.1	70.9	Age 6	Age 7

Source: Work Package 4, Report D15, 2005

Affordability, location, hours of operation, age of child are factors which play an important role when parents decide to choose what type of childcare facility they want for their child/children. Besides the objective factors taken into account when choosing the childcare facility, the parents' preference also plays an important role. A further analysis of childcare usage based on the PPAS data will complete the picture of childcare.

◆ Reforms supporting reconciliation of work and family life

We can talk about a diversity of reforms supporting reconciliation of work and family life in Europe. Some countries and their governments develop and implement reforms, while there are other countries where reconciliation of family and work is not an issue and no specific reforms are implemented, although some of the family or social policies might promote the reconciliation of family and work. Kontula and Miettinen (2005: 49) consider that

“The general aim in reconciling work and family has been to increase female labor force participation and to provide women with equal opportunities for a career and equal pay with men. This has been promoted by increasing flexibility in working hours and male responsibility in childcare and housework. Equal division of work in the home has given women more freedom to concentrate on paid work when children are young. In many countries the important policy for reconciling work and family has been to provide parents more options for part-time work, or other forms of atypical work. “

A clear distinction between Central and Eastern European and Western European countries can be made in terms of reforms supporting reconciliation of work and family life. The employment rate among women dropped or remained low in the CEEC, and the possibilities of entering into the labor market were mainly restricted or conditioned by the availability of childcare facilities. Reconciliation of work and family is still regarded in these countries as a private matter or a female matter. Slovenia cannot be included in the same group of countries, as it has a family policy system that promotes female employment.

But discrepancies also exist among Western European countries with regard to reforms in reconciliation of work and family. Governments in the countries from the Southern part of Europe (such as Italy) do not show a great interest in supporting reconciliation of work and family, while the governments in the Netherlands and Finland pay great attention to implementation and promotion of reforms supporting reconciliation of work and family life.

The atypical work arrangements include flexible work schedule, home-based work, internet-based work, reduction in work time, time sharing etc. Some countries support the atypical work arrangements (non-traditional work) as part of the reforms meant to reconcile work and family life. We can mention Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany and Austria among those who implement and support this type of work arrangements.

♦ The quantitative research - Insights from the “Population Policies Acceptance” Study

Methodological aspects of the project

The present paper makes use of data offered by the “Population Policies Acceptance” Study (PPA2)² in order to complement the description presented above. This study is part of a European project carried out in 14 countries. The fieldwork took place between 2000 and 2003.

National samples include people aged 20+, both men and women with some age variations among the countries. Samples are representative for the countries participating in the project. Some questions and/or modules are not available for all the participating countries. The analysis is based on total samples unless otherwise specified. The results are preliminary; a complex analysis will be produced in the future.

The questionnaire had several different modules structured on themes. The following topics were included in the survey: opinions on family; life styles and values in life; opinions on children and causes of low fertility; opinions on family policy measures (maternal/parental leave, child allowances); attitudes toward care for children and elderly; opinions on gender roles; identification and opinions on problems related to ageing societies; attitudes towards migration and foreigners.

The present paper will make use of data offered by four countries due to variables restriction. The four countries included in the analysis are Germany, The Netherlands, Poland and Romania.

Discussion and findings

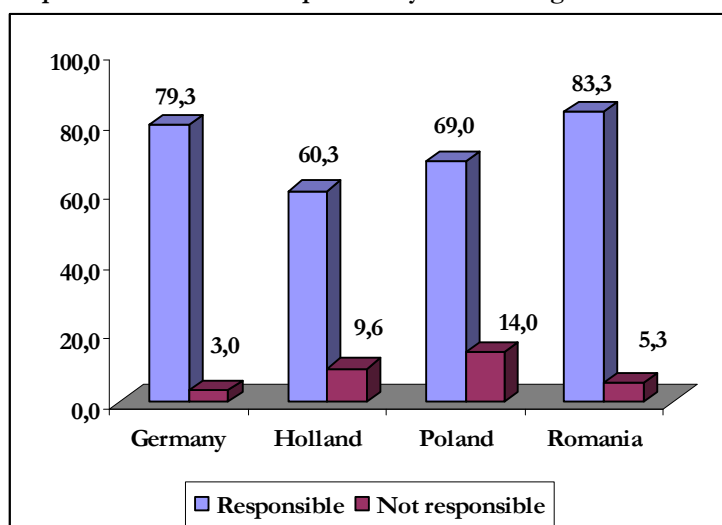
A. General aspects concerning the government responsibility in the field of reconciliation of work and family and female labor force participation

Our respondents were asked about government’s responsibilities in the field of reconciliation of work and family and female labor force participation. Firstly, they had to evaluate the extent to which the government should be responsible in these domains. Secondly, they had to express their opinion regarding recent versus earlier governmental attention paid to reconciliation of family and work and encouraging female labor force participation.

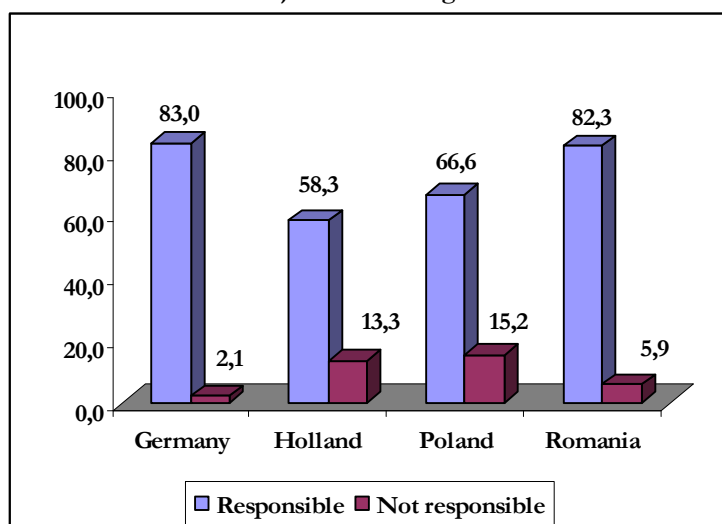
Concerning the government’s responsibility, differences among the analyzed countries could be observed. In all countries, the lowest score received the government’s responsibility concerning the measures meant to help men in reconciling work and family life, varying from 54.5% in the Netherlands and 73.7% in Germany (*see Graph 1*). Respondents in the Netherlands also gave a low score to government’s responsibility in facilitating combining work and family life for women – only 58.3%. Four respondents out of five in Romania and Germany consider that government should be responsible in facilitating combining work and family life for women (*see Graph 2*). Government’s responsibility in supporting and facilitating female labor force participation received high support in Romania and Germany (83.3%, respectively 79.3%), while in the Netherlands received only 60.3% (*see Graph 3*).

Differences between men and women could be observed in all analyzed countries, women tending to support more than men government’s responsibility in facilitating female labor force participation and combining work and family life for women. The differences are not markedly high in the case of combining work and family life for men.

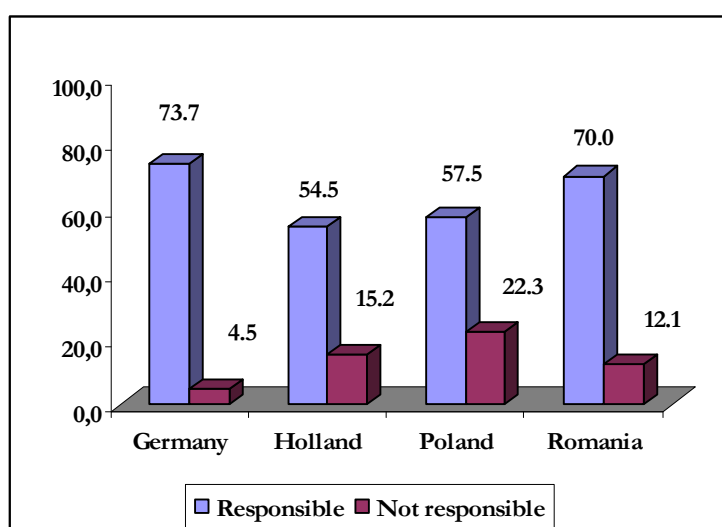
Graph 3. Government's responsibility: Facilitating female labor force participation



Graph 2. Government's responsibility: Facilitating the opportunities for women to combine a job with raising children



Graph 1. Government's responsibility: Facilitating the opportunities for men to combine a job with raising children



Concerning the attention paid by the government, the opinions are shared among the analyzed countries and some differences between men and women could also be observed at national level (see Table 6a, b, c, d). The governments in the countries participating in the survey have different type of priorities in implementing and promoting different social, family and economic policies. However, the respondents' opinions come to reflect de-facto situation in the countries at the time the research was conducted.

A clear distinction can be made between Central - Eastern and Western Europe. Respondents in Central-Eastern Europe consider that the national governments paid less attention to family and work policies than before. Less attention paid to job opportunities confirms the slightly negative employment rate evolution in these countries.

Differences in public opinion between Germany and the Netherlands exist as well. Germany tends to have opinions and attitudes closer to the CEEC, although in the case of attention paid to families with young children, the attitudes tend to be closer to the Netherlands.

In the Netherlands, people think that the government paid more attention to issues such as labor market-job opportunities or childcare facilities, while the same attention was paid to families with young children and working mothers.

Table 6a. Attention paid by the government to families with young children

	<i>Less attention</i>	<i>Same</i>	<i>More attention</i>
Germany	31,1	43,1	25,8
Netherlands	20,0	62,0	18,0
Poland	61,1	28,9	10,0
Romania	55,2	29,3	15,5

Table 6b. Attention paid by the government to working mothers

	<i>Less attention</i>	<i>Same</i>	<i>More attention</i>
Germany	41,5	47,8	10,7
Netherlands	19,7	46,7	33,5
Poland	63,4	28,1	8,5
Romania	54,7	30,7	14,7

Table 6c. Attention paid by the government to childcare facilities

	<i>Less attention</i>	<i>Same</i>	<i>More attention</i>
Germany	44,7	40,0	15,3
Netherlands	14,9	31,9	53,1
Poland	61,9	29,9	8,2
Romania	51,6	32,0	16,4

Table 6d. Attention paid by the government to labor market – jobs opportunities

	<i>Less attention</i>	<i>Same</i>	<i>More attention</i>
Germany	59,2	29,0	11,8
Netherlands	12,6	47,1	40,3
Poland	79,7	13,3	7,0
Romania	66,0	22,8	11,2

B. Desirable family policy related to balancing of work and family life

In order to evaluate desirable family policies with regard to balancing work and family life, respondents were asked to say to what extent they are in favor or not of the implementation of certain family measures. Each of these measures was evaluated using a 5-grade LIKERT scale: 1-strongly in favor, 2-in favor, 3-neither in favor nor against, 4-against, and 5-strongly against.

Further on, they were asked to choose from the same list with family policies the first three policies the government should implement.

We can group the measures offered for evaluation in three different types of policies (money-related measures, childcare-related measures and work arrangement-related measures), without running any analysis. However, we decided to run a factor analysis in order to see if the policies might be grouped, and if yes how many components or groups we have. The following list with family policies/measures has been used in the factor analysis:

- Measures in favor of improved parental leave arrangements for working women
- Measures in favor of lower income tax for people with dependent children
- Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children <3 years
- Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children >3 years
- Measures in favor of an income-dependent allowance for families with children
- Measures in favor of an allowance for parents who do not take a job because they want to take care of their young children
- Measures in favor of a substantial rise in child allowance
- Measures in favor of child-care facilities for school-going children
- Measures in favor of flexible working hours for working parents with young children
- Measures in favor of more and better opportunities for parents with young children to work part-time

The analysis was conducted for each country dataset. In the Netherlands, the family policy measures listed above were not included into the national questionnaires, thus we excluded it from the analysis. Before running the factor analysis, we had to run correlations to get a sense of the relationships between these variables. By default, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients are displayed. Further on, we decided that a factor analysis can be run in order to extract the factors. The method used for factor extraction was the Principal Components Method. We didn't specify the number of factors to be extracted. Three factors were extracted in the end (*see Table 7, 8, 9 for each country*). They explain together 65.1% of the total variance of the original variables in Germany, 64.2% in Poland and only 59.0% in Romania. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index has values above 0.8 for each country and indicates a model with an average to high quality.

Below the results for the factor analysis with three components are presented. The rotated matrix of the original variables and extracted components following solution are presented for each country.

Although three components resulted based on the factor analysis, there are some differences in the composition of factors among the countries. Analyzing the values of the parameters for Germany, we can observe the following composition of factors:

The *first component C1 – money related measures* - is explained by:

- Measures in favor of improved parental leave arrangements for working women
- Measures in favor of lower income tax for people with dependent children
- Measures in favor of an income-dependent allowance for families with children
- Measures in favor of an allowance at the birth of each child
- Measures in favor of an allowance for parents who do not take a job because they want to take care of their young children
- Measures in favor of a substantial rise in child allowance

The *second component C2 – childcare related measures* - is explained by:

- Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children <3 years
- Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children >3 years
- Measures in favor of child-care facilities for school-going children

The *third component C3 – work arrangements related measures* - is explained by:

- Measures in favor of flexible working hours for working parents with young children

- Measures in favor of more and better opportunities for parents with young children to work part-time

The composition of factors in Poland and Romania is slightly different: the measures in favor of improved parental leave arrangements for working women is included in the second component , while the measures in favor of child-care facilities for school-going children is included in the third component.

GERMANY

Table 7. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.872
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	17294.345
Sphericity	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
cf4a Measures in favor of improved parental leave arrangements for working women	,540	,309	,265
cf4b Measures in favor of lower income tax for people with dependent children	,656	,124	,209
cf4c Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children <3 years	,151	,860	,061
cf4d Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children >3 years	,199	,814	,208
cf4e Measures in favor of an income-dependent allowance for families with children	,706	,147	,178
cf4f Measures in favor of an allowance at the birth of each child	,763	,167	,029
cf4g Measures in favor of an allowance for parents who do not take a job because they want to take care of their young children	,719	,033	,328
cf4h Measures in favor of a substantial rise in child allowance	,764	,169	,070
cf4i Measures in favor of child-care facilities for school-going children	,156	,722	,232
cf4j Measures in favor of flexible working hours for working parents with young children	,229	,239	,858
cf4k Measures in favor of more and better opportunities for parents with young children to work part-time	,253	,215	,860

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

POLAND

Table 8. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,887
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	19522.531
Sphericity	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
cf4a Measures in favor of improved parental leave arrangements for working women	,420	,587	,171
cf4b Measures in favor of lower income tax for people with dependent children	,527	,478	,135
cf4c Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children <3 years	,151	,828	,272
cf4d Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children >3 years	,157	,798	,320
cf4e Measures in favor of an income-dependent allowance for families with children	,714	,361	,069
cf4f Measures in favor of an allowance at the birth of each child	,773	,274	,163
cf4g Measures in favor of an allowance for parents who do not take a job because they want to take care of their young children	,685	,240	,296
cf4h Measures in favor of a substantial rise in child allowance	,582	-,167	,330
cf4i Measures in favor of child-care facilities for school-going children	,160	,307	,664
cf4j Measures in favor of flexible working hours for working parents with young children	,223	,198	,816
cf4k Measures in favor of more and better opportunities for parents with young children to work part-time	,210	,218	,783

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

ROMANIA

Table 9. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.826
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	4027.481
Sphericity	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
cf4a Measures in favor of improved parental leave arrangements for working women	,322	,573	-,015
cf4b Measures in favor of lower income tax for people with dependent children	,399	,670	-,039
cf4c Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children <3 years	-,055	,780	,346
cf4d Measures in favor of better day-care facilities for children >3 years	-,020	,755	,424
cf4e Measures in favor of an income-dependent allowance for families with children	,715	,310	,061
cf4f Measures in favor of an allowance at the birth of each child	,761	,175	,211
cf4g Measures in favor of an allowance for parents who do not take a job because they want to take care of their young children	,607	-,075	,413
cf4h Measures in favor of a substantial rise in child allowance	,591	,065	,361
cf4i Measures in favor of child-care facilities for school-going children	,146	,240	,646
cf4j Measures in favor of flexible working hours for working parents with young children	,264	,099	,715
cf4k Measures in favor of more and better opportunities for parents with young children to work part-time	,194	,116	,731

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Further on, the respondents were asked to choose three policy measures, which they would like to see implemented by their government, in order to facilitate having, looking after, and raising children. First preferences are the basis of the ranks presented in the *Table 10*. Differences could be observed among the analyzed countries.

In Poland and Romania, measures such as improved parental leave, lower income tax for family with dependent children, and allowance at childbirth were the measures which got the highest rank as first choice, while in Germany and the Netherlands we cannot talk about similarities in preferences. Lower income tax for families with dependent children is on the first place in Germany, while substantial rise in child allowance occupies the same place in the Netherlands.

The lowest rank received the flexible working hours in the two CEE countries, which comes to also confirm the fact that national governments do not promote or support any reforms in this field, while in Germany the lowest rank got the improvement of parental leave. In the Netherlands, the lowest percentage received better housing for families with children.

Table 10. Measures to be introduced by the state by their importance (rank)

First choice	Germany		Netherlands		Poland		Romania	
	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank
1 Improved parental leave	6.8	6	7.3	8	15.8	3	26.5	1
2 Lower income tax for family with dependent children	15.3	1	6.2	10	23.5	1	12.9	2
3 Better day-care for children < 3	6.5	7	7.6	6	2.7	8	3.8	8
5 Income-dependent child allowance	6.2	8	6.8	9	1.5	12	1.5	12
6 Allowance at childbirth	9.4	4	1.9	12	19.8	2	9.3	4
7 Allowance for care-taking parents	4.2	11	11.2	2	2.3	9	5.4	7
8 Substantial rise in child allowance	11.9	2	16.4	1	4.5	7	3.7	9
9 Childcare for school-going children	11.8	3	5.6	11	6.4	5	11.1	3
10 Flexible working hours	5.2	10	9.3	5	1.3	13	1.4	13
11 More opportunities for part-time work	9.0	5	10.8	3	2.2	10	2.1	10
12 Substantial decrease in costs for education	5.6	9	10.7	4	1.5	11	1.6	11
13 Better housing for families with children	3.0	12	0.9	13	7.9	4	5.9	6
1 Improved parental leave	2.8	13	7.3	7	5.2	6	8.4	5

C. Childcare facilities – usage

Concerning the childcare facilities usage in the analyzed countries, we can distinguish between Romania and Poland on one hand, and the Netherlands on the other hand. Although the kindergarten usage rate is the highest in Romania (78.1 % of the respondents), followed by Poland where one respondent in three declared that they used or they are presently using kindergartens, family network providing unpaid childcare is an important part of the care system. (*see Table 11*).

The system of state childcare was better developed during the communist regime due to the massive entrance of women in the labor market. After the fall of the communist regime, many childcare facilities were closed when companies were reorganized, closed or privatized. In case of Romania, insufficient financing and low interest given by the state and private sector are deepening the crisis.

One of the explanations of why unpaid childcare provided within the family has a higher rate in Romania or Poland might be the presence of at least two generations in the household, which allows elderly relatives (grandparents) to take care of children. In Romania, we could also explore if there are any differences between rural and urban areas. We found that respondents living in medium and large urban areas are more likely to use kindergartens or crèches than those living in small urban areas or rural zones.

Table 11. Usage of the childcare facilities (respondents age 20-49)

Paid childcare	NL	PL	RO	Unpaid childcare	NL	PL	RO
<i>Institutionalized facilities:</i>				<i>Family, friends care:</i>			
Kindergartens	22.3	32.8	78.1	Grandmother	22.3	45.5	56.4
Crèche	1.1	0.5	10.6	Grandfather	15.0	16.1	31.2
Daily care centers	14.3	6.,5	7.7	Partner	21.9	21.6	24.3
Paid childcare at home	11.8	6.1	2.8	Other unpaid childcare	21.3	6.3	10.6

Table 12 looks at respondents' evaluation with regard to the availability of childcare facilities. Only the total results and the results by variable sex are presented below.

The opinions are shared among the analyzed countries. Respondents in the Netherlands consider that there are enough childcare facilities, but there are long waiting lists (58.6% of responses), while almost half of the respondents in Romania think that there are enough childcare facilities. In Poland, one third of the interviewed people consider that there is an ample choice of childcare facilities and another third that think that there are hardly any. When we cross tabulated the question concerning availability and the one about childcare usage, we found out that Romanian people who used kindergartens are more likely to declare that there is an ample choice of childcare facilities. The same situation could be observed also in Poland, where people who used kindergartens or crèches were more likely to say that there is an ample choice, but it is too costly.

Sex was the only explored variable where there is a statistically significant difference at the bivariate level. Men in Romania are more likely to consider that there are just a few childcare facilities available, while women in Poland are more likely to say that there are enough childcare facilities, but they are too costly. No statistically significant differences between men and women could be found in the Netherlands.

Table 12. Opinion on availability of childcare facilities (respondents aged 20-49)

%	Netherlands			Poland			Romania		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Yes, ample choice	16,3	20,2	13,3	32,0	32,1	31,9	47,3	45,2	49,2
Yes, but you have to wait	58,6	57,0	59,9	3,2	3,3	3,1	7,1	4,2	9,7
No, only a few	16,9	17,0	16,9	10,4	10,3	10,4	22,7	26,0	19,6
No, hardly any	8,1	5,8	9,9	32,2	33,9	30,8	23,0	24,6	21,5
Yes, but these are too costly	0.0	0.0	0.0	22,2	20,3	23,8	0.0	0.0	0.0

D. Parental leave

Legislation in the analyzed countries encourages equal responsibilities in childcare through maternity, paternity and parental leave. Nevertheless, the percentage of men who take paternity or parental leave is very low if not insignificant especially in the ex-communist countries.

People were asked if they ever took parental leave or whether their partners took parental leave (*see Table 13a, b*). The answers included also a variant for future intention of taking parental leave, but it was not included in the Polish questionnaire.

The highest percentage of parental leave usage is found in Poland (34.0%) and Romania (28.1%), while in the Netherlands only 6.8% of the respondents declared that they took parental leave. However, 28.3% of respondents in the Netherlands intend to take parental leave in the future.

Only 1% of men declared that they took paternity leave in Romania, while the highest rate is in the Netherlands (5.5%). Even if we add the answers given by women to these rates, the percentages are still low in the case of men who take parental leave.

We can conclude that taking parental leave still falls under the women's responsibility, although governments implemented policies which allow fathers to equally share child rearing responsibilities.

Table 13a. Parental leave for respondents aged 20-49

Col %	Netherlands			Poland			Romania		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Yes	6.8	5.5	8.1	34.0	3.0	56.6	28.1	0,8	50,5
No	64.8	65.9	63.8	66.0	97.0	43.4	71.6	99,2	48,9
I intend to	28.3	28.6	28.1	--	--	--	0.3	0,0	0,6

Table 13b. Parental leave for partners

Col %	Netherlands			Poland			Romania		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Yes	9.9	15.1	5.2	25.5	54.5	4.5	28.3	56,1	1,6
No	64.0	58.9	68.5	74.5	45.5	95.5	70.5	42,3	97,6
She/he intend to	26.1	26.0	26.3	--	--	--	1.2	1,6	0,8

Concerning the length of the paternal leave (*see Table 14*), three respondents out of five in Romania, Poland and the Netherlands consider that it is enough, while one third of the respondents think that the length of the current parental leave is too short. In Germany, three people in four believe that the length of the current parental leave is enough.

Table 14. Opinion on the length of parental leave (respondents aged 20-49)

%	Germany	Netherlands	Poland	Romania
Too long	6.1	4.3	2.6	1.5
Too short	17.6	33.1	27.6	30.4
Enough	76.4	62.6	69.9	68.1

E. Preferred family arrangement

The attitudes towards employment, parenthood and preferred family arrangement were analyzed using two variables:

- Respondent's ideal choice for combining raising children and a job
- Respondent's ideal choice for the partner's combination of raising children and a job; no data available for Germany.

Concerning the combination of work and parenthood and the type of preferred family arrangement (*see Table 15a*), we can observe differences between Poland and Romania on one hand, and the Netherlands on the other hand. Full time job and children are mostly preferred in Romania, where four respondents in five declared that this is the type of arrangement they would like to have, while only three respondents in five preferred this arrangement in Poland. In the Netherlands, this type of family arrangement is secondly preferred, while the first preferred is part-time job and children. The more traditional family arrangement – no job when children are present or they are young – is thirdly preferred in the Netherlands and secondly preferred in Poland. Having a full-time job and no children was preferred by 11.6% of the Dutch respondents, while in Romania and Poland this received very low preference.

The variable sex was again explored as a variable where there could be statistically significant differences at the bivariate level. Men are more likely to prefer a full time job and children in all three countries, or full time and no children in Poland and the Netherlands, while women are more likely to prefer part-time jobs and children or the more traditional family arrangement - no job when children are present or they are young. No statistically significant differences between men and women could be found in the Netherlands.

Table 15a. Respondent's ideal choice for combining raising children and a job (respondents aged 20-49)

%	Netherlands			Poland			Romania		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Full-time job and no children	11,6	16,3	6,5	3,9	5,3	2,8	5,7	5,6	5,7
Full-time job and children	27,7	50,8	2,7	63,3	81,2	48,3	81,8	90,8	73,1
Part-time job and no children	4,5	3,0	6,1	0,4	0,3	0,5	0,2	0,0	0,5
Part-time job and children	37,3	26,6	48,8	15,9	7,5	22,9	7,3	1,8	12,6
No job when children are present or young	18,9	3,2	35,8	16,5	5,8	25,5	5,0	1,8	8,1

Analyzing the question concerning the ideal choice for partner's combination of work and family (*see Table 15b*), a common tendency regarding personal choice and choice for partners could be found in Poland and Romania: about 67.4% chose a full time job and children in Poland, whereas in Romania the percentage was even higher – 84.3%. The need of a second source of income in the family in order to surpass the financial difficulties might be one of the explanations of a higher preference for the dual-earner model with children in Poland and Romania.

Part-time job and children is the preferred type of family arrangement in the Netherlands for both respondent and his/her partner. The large availability of part-time jobs in the Netherlands might explain the diffusion of this family arrangement.

When we have a look at the distribution by sex, we notice that women are more likely to prefer this type of family arrangement for their partners, while male respondents are more likely to prefer part-time jobs and children as the ideal choice for their partners in all three countries, or no job at all when children are present or they are young in Poland and the Netherlands.

Table 15b. Respondent's ideal choice for the partner's combination of raising children and a job

%	Netherlands			Poland			Romania		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Full-time job and no children	9,7	10,2	9,1	2,9	2,7	3,0	4,4	4,1	4,7
Full-time job and children	25,1	3,9	48,1	67,4	48,4	84,3	81,6	71,0	92,5
Part-time job and no children	5,3	6,4	4,1	0,2	0,3	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,2
Part-time job and children	41,2	50,2	31,5	15,7	23,8	8,5	9,8	17,2	2,2
No job when children are present or young	18,7	29,3	7,2	13,8	24,9	4,0	4,1	7,7	,4

F. Gender roles – can we talk about traditionalism and modernism?

Research supports the assumption that areas like family and employment mean something different to women than to men. It is also true that the effects of the current political, economical and social development are different for men and women, and there are differences among countries.

We have to keep in mind that the increasing number of women participating in the labor market does not imply that the women's power and autonomy in the public and/or private spheres is increasing simultaneously or to the same extent. Thus, the fertility and reproductive roles still remain a female domain.

Our research included a gender module, but not all countries included the module or they included just some of the questions. Thus, it is very difficult to conduct a comparative analysis among the countries. As a consequence, we have to restrict our analysis to the questions or items available in the countries included in our analysis. The items, which we included in the analysis deal with the norms and values within the partnership and aim to look at female and male roles with regard to function in the family and work. One of the items refers to the fathers' participation in childrearing or the increased involvement of fathers, which we couldn't use in the analysis due to countries' availability. The following list of items was used in our analysis:

- A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work
- A pre-school child is likely to suffer if his or her mother works
- A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children
- Working women are highly respected
- Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay
- Women are less ambitious than men in their job
- Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person
- Most women have to work these days to support their families

Each of these items was evaluated using a 5-grade LIKERT scale: 1-strongly agree, 2-agree, 3-neither agree nor disagree, 4-disagree, and 5-strongly disagree.

The analysis was conducted for each country dataset as in the case of family-related measures. We included in the analysis only respondents in the age group 20-49. Before running the factor analysis, we run correlations to get a sense of the relationships between these variables. By default, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients are displayed. Further on, we decided that a factor analysis can be run in order to extract the factors. However, we decided also to build an index, but the present paper will not include a discussion about this index and the results.

The method used for factor extraction was the Principal Components Method. We didn't specify the number of factors to be extracted and we got two factors (*see Table 16, 17*). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index has values above 0.54 for each country and indicates a model with an average quality.

Table 16. KMO and Bartlett's Test

		Germany	Netherlands	Poland	Romania
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		,634	,652	,543	,544
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	1999,292	952,954	2203,491	308,227
Sphericity	df	28	28	28	28
	Sig.	,000	,000	,000	,000

Table 17. Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Germany		Netherlands		Poland		Romania	
	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2
g1a Working mother can establish as warm and secure relationship with her children as a non-working mother	-,496	,106	-,760	,137	-,557	,034	-,235	,028
g1b A pre-school child is likely to suffer if mother works	,653	,170	,807	-,065	,670	,181	,577	,193
g1d What most women really want is a home and children	,775	-,007	,743	,099	,712	,070	,571	,177
g1e Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay	,670	-,115	,423	-,431	,486	-,246	,587	-,237
g1f Having a job is the best way for a woman to be independent	-,256	,714	-,228	,716	-,121	,796	-,095	,734
g1g Most women have to work to support their families	-,053	,643	,126	,646	,052	,636	-,070	,738
g1h In their job women are less ambitious than men	,374	-,130	,020	,279	,397	,023	,627	-,018
g2f Working women are highly respected	,069	,625	-,106	,456	,086	,626	,185	,440

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

The *first component* – **traditionalism** - is characterized by patriarchal attitudes towards family and the role of women in the family. Woman is the caregiver, taking care of household chores and children, finding satisfaction in housework and childrearing. Another feature of this component is the relationship between pre-school children and maternal employment. Maternal employment is

seen as a source of distress for children, which impedes mothers' accessibility and closeness to children.

The *second component* – **modernism** - assumes women's independence, self-realization through participation in the labor market, the recognition of women's contribution as income providers and denies any negative influence maternal employment might have on the pre-school children's development.

In order to decide whether we can discuss about equality within the family in terms of earning and caregiver responsibilities, we built a new variable based on the following two items (data is not available for the Netherlands) included in the analysis:

- Both man and woman should contribute to household income
- A man has to earn money, a woman looks after the home

The first item indicates that both partners are responsible for earning a living, although it doesn't give us any indication if the respondents consider that both partners should provide income due to financial difficulties or because they think it is fair to share earning responsibilities or whether these responsibilities should be equally shared.

The second item indicates a clear division of roles within the family – traditional breadwinner model. However it does not indicate that a woman should stay home and not have a job, or she may have a job but still be the main caregiver.

We identified four groups, but we will present only three of them:

1. *First group*: those who agree that both woman and man should contribute to the household income and disagree with the fact that the man is the breadwinner and woman is the caregiver – *full partnership both in earnings and caregiver responsibilities*.
2. *Second group*: those who agree that both woman and man should contribute to the household income, but agree also with the fact that man is the earner and woman is the caregiver – *partnership in the earnings but traditional in caregiver responsibilities*
3. *Third group*: those who disagree that both woman and man should contribute to the household income and agree that man is the breadwinner and woman is the caregiver – *traditional both in earnings and caregiver responsibilities*

The results are not presented for the fourth group where cell sizes are too small. In order to identify the relations between the social – demographical variables and our groups, we used the bivariate correlation (see Table 18a, b, c). The results in Germany show that full partnership is statistically different by sex, living arrangement and education. There is an indication that sex is related to full partnership, with female respondents appearing to be more likely to agree with full partnership than men are. People living apart together (LAT) and having university education also show that they are more likely to prefer full partnership. Partnership in earning but traditionalist view with regard to caregiver responsibilities is more likely to be preferred by people with medium to low education and having full time jobs. In Poland, the full partnership model is more likely to be preferred by female respondents, or respondents in the age group 20-29, those having university education or no partner. On the other hand, education is related to the second group - partnership in earnings but traditionalism in caregiver responsibility -, with respondents with low level of education to be more likely to prefer this model. In the case of the third model – traditional in all spheres, the analysis by living arrangement and level of education indicates that respondents living with a partner/spouse or having low level of education are more likely to prefer this model. The analysis in Romania indicates that full partnership differs by sex, presence of children in the household and level of education. Women are more likely to agree with the full partnership than men. Also, respondents with no children or university education tend to prefer this type of model. The second model is more likely to be preferred by people with children, those having low level of education or persons who do not have a job.

Table 18a. Equality in terms of earning and caregiver responsibilities by socio-demographic variables in Germany

<i>Respondents age 20-49</i>		% row	First group	Second group	Third group
SEX	Male		62,3	26,6	5,7
	Female		72,7	17,9	5,1
AGE	20-29		67,0	25,1	4,7
	30-39		67,7	20,7	4,9
	40-49		68,2	21,4	6,4
LIVING ARRANGEMENT	Living with spouse/partner		67,4	20,0	6,9
	Living Apart Together		75,4	20,9	2,5
	No partner		64,3	26,4	4,3
CHILDREN IN THE HOUSEHOLD	Yes		67,0	19,7	7,4
	No		68,4	24,2	3,5
LEVEL OF EDUCATION	Primary or lower secondary		56,0	35,1	6,8
	Higher secondary or non-university		65,9	24,2	5,6
	University		75,8	14,3	3,7
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	Full-time		67,3	23,7	4,4
	Part-time		71,2	19,7	3,6
	No job		66,7	19,6	8,8
TOTAL			67,8	22,0	5,4

Table 18b. Equality in terms of earning and caregiver responsibilities by socio-demographic variables in Poland

<i>Respondents age 20-49</i>		% row	First group	Second group	Third group
SEX	Male		33,6	52,2	12,4
	Female		40,0	48,2	10,5
AGE	20-29		46,7	43,0	8,6
	30-39		34,8	50,8	13,7
	40-49		30,4	55,6	12,1
LIVING ARRANGEMENT	Living with spouse/partner		34,7	51,6	12,3
	Living Apart Together		43,5	44,1	3,6
	No partner		42,6	46,4	9,7
LEVEL OF EDUCATION	Primary or lower secondary		19,7	64,1	14,7
	Higher secondary or non-university		37,8	49,8	11,1
	University		63,9	25,1	7,9
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	Full-time		36,9	50,3	11,3
	Part-time		39,3	48,2	10,0
	No job		36,6	50,2	11,9
TOTAL			36,9	50,1	11,4

Table 18c. Equality in terms of earning and caregiver responsibilities by socio-demographic variables in Romania

<i>Respondents age 20-49</i>		% row	First group	Second group	Third group
SEX	Male		38,5	56,9	3,8
	Female		46,8	51,9	,6
AGE	20-29		47,1	49,5	3,0
	30-39		42,5	55,0	1,9
	40-49		38,7	58,9	1,1
LIVING ARRANGEMENT	Living with spouse/partner		41,0	56,0	1,9
	Living Apart Together		41,6	58,4	,0
	No partner		48,1	49,1	2,8
CHILDREN IN THE HOUSEHOLD	Yes		38,4	58,3	2,1
	No		50,6	47,5	2,0
LEVEL OF EDUCATION	Primary or lower secondary		23,3	72,6	3,2
	Higher secondary or non-university		59,6	39,1	,5
	University		63,1	34,5	2,5
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	Full-time		45,4	51,8	1,8
	Part-time		--	--	--
	No job		30,3	67,7	1,4
TOTAL			43,0	54,2	2,1

F. Involvement in work and family

Family commitments, responsibilities and tasks are very diverse and complex. Russell (1999) argues that there are at least six domains of family and paid work needs that have to be taken in consideration when talking about balancing work and family life. Attached to each of these six domains, there are two dimensions – involvement and responsibility: a). employment and family financial support; b). day-to-day care of and interaction with children or other dependents; c). child/dependent management and socialization; d). parental/caregiver commitment/investment; e). household work; f). maintaining other family relationships. Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) consider that life role priority is just one of the explanatory factors of people's involvement in work and family. There other factors such as gender, marital status, labor force participation, having or not having children, which might help us to understand peoples' involvement in family and work.

The data allows us to explore thoroughly one of the dimensions of the involvement in work and family, namely the involvement in work. We built separate models for each country at this stage of the analysis, which explains people's involvement in work using the logistic regression analysis.

We chose labor force participation as a dependent variable, while gender, marital status, age of respondent, presence of children in the household, age of the youngest child, and attained level of education as independent variables. The dependent variable is described by two categories: not working and working (either full-time or part-time). We tried to distinguish between full-time and part-time employment, but we had to reconsider our position because of the low number of part-time cases in the samples. The presence of children in the household and their age are important determinants in people's predilection to be involved in work. The importance is usually considered to be higher when women seek a job in the labor market.

A more detailed description of the variables used in the analysis can be found in the *Table 19*.

Table 19. Description of variables

Labor force participation	<i>Dependent variable</i> that equals zero if the respondent is not working (not employed) and 1 if the respondents works (full-time or part-time).
Gender	<i>Independent variable</i> that equals 1 if man and 2 if woman. It was automatically transformed in dummy during the analysis.
Marital status	<i>Independent variable</i> that equals 0 if never married and 1 if married or living in cohabitation. Divorced/widow/separated were declared missing in the analysis.
Age of respondent	<i>Independent variable</i> with three dummy variables for each age category: up to 29, 30-39 and 40-49.
Having children in the household	<i>Independent variable</i> that equals 1 if not having children in the household and 2 having children in the household, but it was made dummy in the analysis.
Age of the youngest child	<i>Independent variable</i> with three dummy variables for each age category: 0-3, 4-6 and 7-11.
Attained level of education	<i>Independent variable</i> indicating three levels of education, which was transformed in dummy in the analysis.
Country	<i>Independent variable</i> indicating respondent's affiliation to one country, which was transformed in dummy in the analysis.

We decided also to build a model for the whole database containing the four analyzed countries. In the case of the general model valid for the whole database, we had to weight the database in order to avoid the distortions caused by the sample size.

The outcome of our analysis and the models which resulted (*see Table 20a, b, c, d*) tend to be consistent with the general development in the labor market. We used the odds ratio³ in order to present and explain the results.

Being married or living in cohabitation increases a person's propensity to participate in the labor market by 1.2 times over those who were never married in Germany, by 1.4 times in the Netherlands, by 1.7 times in Poland and only 0.3 in Romania.

If a person has higher secondary education, it is 4.0 times more likely that he is involved in paid work, while having university education increases by 7.2 times more the probability to work for pay in Germany. In the Netherlands the probability to have a paid job increases by 1.7 times when having higher secondary education, and by 5.6 times when having university education. When a person has higher secondary education, it is 1.6 times more likely that he has a paid job in Poland and 4.6 times more likely in Romania, whereas having university education increases the chances to be employed in Poland by 6.4 times, respectively 5.5 times in Romania.

Age is another important determinant of labor force participation. The younger the person, the less probable to be involved in paid work. If a person is in the age category 30-39, it is 1.6 more times probable that he participates in the labor market in Germany, 2.3 times in the Netherlands and 1.9 times in Poland. When a person is even older, in the age category 40-49, the probability of being involved in paid work increases to 1.7 in Germany, 2.0 in the Netherlands, 1.9 in Poland and 1.1 in Romania.

Personal participation in the labor market increases by 1.5 times in Poland when having a child age 7-11, while for the other countries the values are not significant. When we excluded the variable "*having children in the household*" from the analysis, the models didn't improve. Thus, we decided to keep the variable even though the values are not significant.

The results of the general model (*see Table 21*) show us that when we introduce in the analysis the variable country we observed some significant difference among the countries with regard to participation in paid work.

If a respondent lives in the Netherlands or Romania, the probability to participate in paid work is 1.8 times higher compared to people living in Germany, while living in Poland increases only by 0.7 times the probability to be employed.

Table 20a. Model resulted from logistic regression for working (full-time or part-time) versus not working population in the age group 20 -49 in Germany for the year 2003

Logit estimates			N	=	2349	
			LR chi2(9)	=	307.56	
Log likelihood = -1239.331			Prob > chi2	=	0.0000	
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
<i>Marital status</i>						
marriage/cohabitation (vs. never married)	1.219615	.1772143	1.37	0.172	.9173606	1.621456
<i>Gender</i>						
Female (vs. male)	.6193886	.0627331	-4.73	0.000**	.5078688	.7553964
<i>Level of education</i>						
Higher secondary education (vs. lower secondary education)	4.092706	.5308152	10.87	0.000**	3.174033	5.277273
University education (vs. lower secondary education)	7.1924	1.227421	11.56	0.000**	5.147682	10.0493
<i>Having children in the household</i>						
Yes (vs. no)	1.244412	.1764545	1.54	0.123	.9424662	1.643094
<i>Age of youngest child</i>						
Age 4-6 (vs. age 0-3)	.8995936	.2147397	-0.44	0.658	.5634536	1.436265
Age 7-14 (vs. age 0-3)	1.176161	.283155	0.67	0.500	.7337435	1.885339
<i>Age of respondent</i>						
30-39 (vs. up to 29)	1.640301	.2186574	3.71	0.000**	1.263152	2.130058
40-49 (vs. up to 29)	1.761537	.2640945	3.78	0.000**	1.313038	2.363232
<i>Constant</i>	-.8275321	.3090977	-2.26			

* significant for $p \leq 0.05$; ** significant for $p \leq 0.01$

Measures of Fit for logit of labor force participation

AIC*n: 2498.662
BIC': -237.706

Table 20b. Model resulted from logistic regression for working (full-time or part-time) versus not working population in the age group 20 -49 in the Netherlands for the year 2002

Logit estimates			N	=	1082	
			LR chi2(9)	=	145.24	
Log likelihood = -409.48304			Prob > chi2	=	0.0000	
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
<i>Marital status</i>						
marriage/cohabitation (vs. never married)	1.403985	.3820894	1.25	0.212	.8235904	2.393393
<i>Gender</i>						
Female (vs. male)	.1985046	.0406833	-7.89	0.000**	.1328366	.2966355
<i>Level of education</i>						
Higher secondary education (vs. lower secondary education)	1.691981	.3564135	2.50	0.013**	1.119673	2.556819
University education (vs. lower secondary education)	5.613304	1.539999	6.29	0.000**	3.278635	9.610457
<i>Having children in the household</i>						
Yes (vs. no)	1.511303	.3990071	1.56	0.118	.9007852	2.535606
<i>Age of youngest child</i>						
Age 4-6 (vs. age 0-3)	1.539055	.5693817	1.17	0.244	.7453279	3.17805
Age 7-14 (vs. age 0-3)	.9565551	.2609801	-0.16	0.871	.5603687	1.632849
<i>Age of respondent</i>						
30-39 (vs. up to 29)	2.355368	.5920583	3.41	0.001**	1.439117	3.854974
40-49 (vs. up to 29)	2.030028	.5325352	2.70	0.007**	1.213968	3.394665
<i>Constant</i>	.5417878	.573199	0.95			

* significant for $p \leq 0.05$; ** significant for $p \leq 0.01$

Measures of Fit for logit of labor force participation

AIC*n: 838.966

BIC': -82.365

Table 20c. Model resulted from logistic regression for working (full-time or part-time) versus not working population in the age group 20 -49 in Poland for the year 2001

Logit estimates			N	=	2922	
			LR chi2(9)	=	351.24	
Log likelihood = -1712.6641			Prob > chi2	=	0.0000	
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
<i>Marital status</i>						
marriage/cohabitation (vs. never married)	1.778299	.1897403	5.40	0.000**	1.442725	2.191926
<i>Gender</i>						
Female (vs. male)	.420545	.03614	-10.08	0.000**	.3553559	.4976928
<i>Level of education</i>						
Higher secondary education (vs. lower secondary education)	1.675824	.1862153	4.65	0.000**	1.347858	2.083592
University education (vs. lower secondary education)	6.467326	1.263962	9.55	0.000**	4.409278	9.485975
<i>Having children in the household</i>	not	included	in the	analysis		
Yes (vs. no)						
<i>Age of youngest child</i>						
Age 4-6 (vs. age 0-3)	1.389157	.2547334	1.79	0.073	.9697595	1.989932
Age 7-14 (vs. age 0-3)	1.507092	.2172204	2.85	0.004**	1.136199	1.999058
<i>Age of respondent</i>						
30-39 (vs. up to 29)	1.966758	.2269493	5.86	0.000**	1.56866	2.465888
40-49 (vs. up to 29)	1.941966	.2109667	6.11	0.000**	1.569534	2.402771
<i>Constant</i>	-0.3361292	.1302107	2.58			

* significant for $p \leq 0.05$; ** significant for $p \leq 0.01$

Measures of Fit for logit of labor force participation

AIC*n: 3443.328

BIC': -287.404

Table 20d. Model resulted from logistic regression for working (full-time or part-time) versus not working population in the age group 20 -49 in Romania for the year 2001

Logit estimates			N	=	765	
			LR chi2(9)	=	184.78	
Log likelihood = -322.61675			Prob > chi2	=	0.0000	
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
<i>Marital status</i>						
marriage/cohabitation (vs. never married)	.311449	.0891689	-4.07	0.000**	.177699	.5458696
<i>Gender</i>						
Female (vs. male)	.1258764	.0285092	-9.15	0.000**	.0807531	.1962137
<i>Level of education</i>						
Higher secondary education (vs. lower secondary education)	4.016801	.9084132	6.15	0.000**	2.578566	6.257235
University education (vs. lower secondary education)	5.459604	1.919837	4.83	0.000**	2.740572	10.8763
<i>Having children in be household</i>	not	included	in the	analysis		
Yes (vs. no)						
<i>Age of youngest child</i>						
Age 4-6 (vs. age 0-3)	1.266729	.4601657	0.65	0.515	.6215368	2.581668
Age 7-14 (vs. age 0-3)	.7340181	.2198992	-1.03	0.302	.4080388	1.32042
<i>Age of respondent</i>						
30-39 (vs. up to 29)	1.814616	.5126843	2.11	0.035**	1.043024	3.157004
40-49 (vs. up to 29)	1.161305	.3081524	0.56	0.573	.6903666	1.953497
<i>Constant</i>	2.452112	.2728149	8.99			

* significant for $p \leq 0.05$; ** significant for $p \leq 0.01$

Measures of Fit for logit of labor force participation

AIC*n: 663.233

BIC': -131.663

Table 21. Model resulted from logistic regression for working (full-time or part-time) versus not working population in the age group 20 -49 in all four analyzed countries (weighted sample)

Population in the age group 20-49 in all four analyzed countries (weighted sample)						
Logit estimates	N = 7118					
	LR chi2(9) = 541.81					
Log likelihood = -3689.6602	Prob > chi2 = 0.0000					
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
<i>Country</i>						
Netherlands (vs. Germany)	1.851799	.2178963	5.24	0.000**	1.470399	2.332129
Poland (vs. Germany)	.7412705	.0584572	-3.80	0.000**	.635112	.8651735
Romania (vs. Germany)	1.792188	.2019913	5.18	0.000**	1.43697	2.235216
<i>Marital status</i>						
marriage/cohabitation (vs. never married)	.9467337	.081238	-0.64	0.524	.8001793	1.12013
<i>Gender</i>						
Female (vs. male)	.4033816	.0272952	-13.42	0.000**	.3532798	.4605888
<i>Level of education</i>						
Higher secondary education (vs. lower secondary education)	2.731183	.2243534	12.23	0.000**	2.325031	3.208285
University education (vs. lower secondary education)	5.49998	.7001312	13.39	0.000**	4.285542	7.058567
<i>Age of youngest child</i>						
Age 4-6 (vs. age 0-3)	1.154881	.1734679	0.96	0.338	.8603663	1.550213
Age 7-14 (vs. age 0-3)	1.12475	.1408922	0.94	0.348	.8798927	1.437745
<i>Age of respondent</i>						
30-39 (vs. up to 29)	1.941843	.1764073	7.31	0.000**	1.625123	2.320287
40-49 (vs. up to 29)	1.94168	.1829463	7.04	0.000**	1.614273	2.335493
<i>Constant</i>						

* significant for $p \leq 0.05$; ** significant for $p \leq 0.01$

Measures of Fit for logit of labor force participation

AIC*n: 7403.320

BIC': -773.366

The logit model allows us to ascertain who are those with the highest probability of being involved or not in the labor market. A presentation of predicted probabilities of occurrence of people in the age category 20-49 who work compared with those who do not work will not be included in the paper due to space restrictions.

Among the most important governing factors which describe the involvement in family life we can mention marital status (marriage or other long-term relationship), child bearing and rearing, household activities or other family related activities, employment status, and time spent at work. Other factors such as the emotional and psychological ones play an important role as well. The paper will not present this dimension because the analysis is not finalized due to some problems encountered in harmonizing the data for all four analyzed countries.

◆ Final remarks

Some conclusions will be offered during the session.

◆ Notes

¹ It is a person who carries out his activity in his own unit or in an individual business, without hiring employees and being helped just by his family

² The quantitative data used in the paper come from the second European Comparative Survey on the Acceptance of Population – Related Policies (PPA2). The first European Comparative Population-Related Policy Acceptance and Attitude Survey (PPA1) was conducted in 1990-1992. The PPA2 data was gathered between 2001 and 2003.

³ The odds ratio represents the main effects of separate independent variables on the dependent variable in a log-linear model. Odds ratios report the estimated coefficients, i.e., $\exp(b)$ rather than b .

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