JOB INSTABILITY AND FAMILY TRENDS

Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini

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Summary

PART I

PART I

1. The research

1.1 The design of the research

The European Union is facing unprecedented demographic changes that will have a crucial impact across society and economy. Among these demographic changes, the low level of birth rates and the consequences on family and household structure represents one of the major challenges the European society has to face.

The determinants of the demographic changes that occur across all European countries and their implications are so far not very clear. It is likely that general employment conditions in Europe – such as difficulties in finding a job, late access to employment, difficulties in transition towards a permanent job, job instability, unequal pay, persisting gender discriminations, lack of incentive - may influence these trends: so in particular it is necessary to know how, why and to what extent these factors impact the reproductive choices of the youngest generations, in a comparative trans-national analysis involving EU countries.

According to the JIFT Project Agenda, the stages of the work programme were:

a) data and document reviewing and reference framework drafting;
b) research plan, sample design and questionnaire drawing up;
c) management of four C.a.t.i. surveys in urban contexts (Rome, Hamburg, Warsaw and Ljubljana);
d) quality check and data processing;
e) organization of four National Round Tables;
f) organization of an international final conference.

1.1.1 Data and document reviewing and reference framework drafting

To implement the first task of the agenda, two demographers of the Italian work group were assigned to perform detailed analysis of the labour market in the four countries involved in the research, as well as of the most recent fertility trends and union formation patterns. For this purpose the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) and the European Labour Force Survey were considered. Particular attention has been paid to policy measures introduced to offer women and young couples support in their reproductive choices. The methodology adopted was the analysis of primary and secondary sources, documental analysis, and bibliographic research.

1.1.2 Research plan, sample design and drawing up of the questionnaire

Despite the complexity of this research phase, all the activities were carried out as scheduled in the work agenda. All the activities of this phase, from the design of the research project to the sampling plan and drawing up of the questionnaire, followed a proposal formulated by the Italian partnership, and then submitted to the partners for discussion and approval, applying the group work methodologies and techniques illustrated

below. In particular, the task of drawing up the survey sampling plan to be implemented in the four cities (Rome, Ljubljana, Hamburg and Warsaw) in the countries involved in the project was assigned to an expert in sampling plan methods and techniques, member of the Steering Committee (Methodologist of Istat, Labour Force Survey Service).

a) Definition of the conceptual guidelines to follow in the design of the research project, in the sampling plan and in questionnaire drawing up

Following the Lazarsfeldian approach, the methodology adopted in this phase concerned the conceptualisation of the research problem applying the technique of brainstorming: to this end the Italian Steering Committee was assembled [consisting of the directors of the Dept. of Demographic Sciences (Prof. G. Caselli) and the Dept. of Economic Sciences (Prof C. Marcuzzo), Prof. G. B. Sgritta, scientific project manager; Prof. A. Simonazzi for the Brodolini Foundation; senior professors P. Piacentini and M. Corsi, for their specific competences; Dr. Diego Teloni for the Brodolini Foundation, Dr. Fiorenza Deriu as scientific coordinator and Dr. Paolo Naticchioni as researcher of the Dept. of Economic Sciences, and Dr. Silvia Loriga (methodologist of the ISTAT Labour Force Survey Service) expert in sampling]. Thanks to the work of the committee, expert suggestions and ideas were successfully taken in and organised for the drafting of guidelines necessary for the framing of the research design, definition of the sampling plan and the structure to be adopted in the survey questionnaire.

b) Sampling, survey technique and estimation

The reference population selected to explore "Job Instability and changes in Family and household Trends" is the population of men and women aged 25-44 years old, living in the "main city" chosen in Germany (Hamburg), Italy (Rome), Poland (Warsaw) and Slovenia (Ljubljana). In the following we'll refer to people in the reference population as "eligible units".

The survey has been conducted interviewing through CATI technique (computer assisted telephonic interviews) a sample of units drown from the reference population. An electronic questionnaire has been developed, able to manage the sequence of questions according to filters and rules that differentiate the paths dedicated to special kinds of respondents, making easier the work of the interviewers and reducing non-sampling errors such as missing, out of range and not admissible answers. The electronic questionnaire had been realised by a specialized company and it was accessible on a web environment; interviewers contacted people to interview by phone and registered their answers directly on the web-electronic questionnaire.

A simple random sampling has been adopted and the frame used is the telephone subscribers' list. That is the same inclusion probability is assigned to phone numbers in each frame and a fixed amount of phone numbers is randomly drawn from each frame. Moreover additional phone numbers are drawn from the same frame in order to replace the households in case of non-response (replacements have been done with households living in the same city district).

To each selected phone number corresponds a household:

- if only one eligible unit belongs to the household: this eligible unit has been interviewed;
- if more than one eligible unit belong to the household: only one of them, randomly chosen (the one whose birthday is the most recent), has been interviewed.

The sample dimension in each country is: 1013 complete interviews in Hamburg, 1273 in Rome, 1000 in Warsaw, 965 in Ljubljana.

In order to reduce as more as possible non-response bias, detailed rules have been adopted for contacts and replacements:

- number of attempted contacts to do, respectively for "free" (free with no response, fax, phone secretary) or "busy" and at which hours, before replacing a phone number;
- during a contact giving the opportunity to take an appointment;
- a random replacement with another phone number in the same city district.

Estimation

In a random sampling framework the estimation is usually conducted assigning to each observed unit a grossing weight; this weight means how many not observed units of the reference population are represented by the observed unit belonging to the sample (apart from itself).

An estimator that allows to reduce the non-response bias, improving the estimates accuracy (in terms of mean square error), is the calibration estimator (Deville and Sarndal, 1992)[1]:

$$\tilde{Y} = \sum_{k \in s} y_k w_k$$

where, referring to the sample s, y_k is the observation of the Y variable on the unit k, and w_k is its grossing weight.

Grossing weights are obtained solving a minimization problem under constraints; the constraints regard the estimates of some auxiliary variables that have to be equal to the totals in the reference population derived by external sources.

Through the calibration estimator, applying grossing weights, the sample reproduces the same distribution of the population according to the chosen auxiliary variables.

Grossing weights for each sample unit are computed as follows:

- initial weights d_k are obtained for all the selected units as the inverse of the inclusion probability;
- final weights w_k are obtained solving the following minimization problem under constraints:

$$\begin{cases} \min \left\{ \sum_{k \in s} dist\,(d_k, w_k) \right\} \\ \sum_{k \in s} \mathbf{x}_k w_k = \mathbf{t} \end{cases}$$

where dist is a distance function between d_k and w_k, t is the *k-vector* of the totals of the auxiliary variables (known from external sources) e x_k is the *k-vector* of the auxiliary variables observed on the unit k.

The following constraints have been applied:

Italy, Poland and Slovenia databases:

- Population by gender and 4 age classes (25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44);
- Population by gender and marital status;
- Population by gender and employment status (employed, unemployed, inactive).

Germany database:

- Population by gender and 4 age classes (25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44).

These information have been taken from demographic sources or Population Census (for each Country the most recent information available has been used).

c) Operative definition of the objects of the research and their properties. Design and redaction of the draft questionnaire

The redaction of the survey questionnaire constituted the principal, though not the only, activity of all the partners, making significant contributions. The phases of development of this activity and the methodologies adopted are as follows:

The methodology adopted in this phase of project development was operational analysis, implemented with the group work technique. The first meeting of the coordinating group was dedicated to discussion of the

guidelines and identification of the essential contents of the various thematic sections of the questionnaire. At this point four specific work groups were formed, each with the task of drawing up a thematic section of the survey tool. The first group was assigned the responsibility for personal and family data and the family background of those answering the questionnaire; the second group their affective history and data on fecundity; the third group dealt with data on employment, and the fourth on work/family reconciliation. At the end of this phase each group leader sent the scientific coordinator his or her section of the questionnaire. The coordinator then had the task of harmonising the various contributions, checking for possible cases of superfluous or repeated questions, ensuring that the contents were consistent, etc

d) Drawing up the questionnaire

Despite the complexity of the tasks, this phase was completed with no delay on the schedule. By bringing a wide range of disciplines into play (sociology, economics, demography) in an integrated approach, as recommended by the new Lisbon Strategy, various nuances of the issues have been brought out that would otherwise have remained only latent. In this respect we may say that the activity not only achieved its goal but actually constituted the first value added of the research (at least in this phase). The methodology adopted to draw up the questionnaire attributed an important role to exchange of views and discussion, not only within the Italian partnership but also extending to involve foreign partners in transnational meetings and remote ongoing discussion through a mailing list. In particular, the following activities were developed:

- organisation in Italy of a departmental workshop to discuss the first draft of the survey questionnaire; this is an additional activity that was not included in the first draft of the project, but was subsequently deemed expedient in order to enhance the qualitative level of the questionnaire;
- the first transnational meeting, held in Rostock, was focused on the discussion and the agreement of each question of the provisional version of the questionnaire;
- creation of 4 mailing lists for discussion, and respectively for the use of the Italian Steering Committee, the foreign partnership, the coordination group and the work group;
- consultation of expert professors by each partner in the project.

1.1.3 Survey management

a) Planning the four CATI surveys in the partner countries

With respect to the CATI survey, Italy and Slovenia decided to farm out only the computerisation of the questionnaire and scheduling management of sample and contact selection procedures, while in the case of Germany and Poland this applied to the whole CATI survey. In particular, Italy and Slovenia used the same software for management of sample and contact selection procedures, thereby ensuring perfect harmonisation of these processes when data had been being collected. Moreover, the Italian and Slovenian centres were linked up on the web and communicated with a sole server, where the database had been kept. Thus the framework for the data and surveys performed in these two countries is common and perfectly standardised. However, in order to ensure perfect harmonisation of the processes described above also with the other two partner countries (Germany and Poland), which had farmed out the entire CATI survey, the Department of Demographic Sciences played a crucial role in the coordination and supervision of the activities regarding the computerisation of the questionnaire and the definition of sample and contact selection procedure management scheduling. In particular, a codebook has been created to be used by the companies responsible of collecting data, in order to have a final database with harmonized variable and value labels in a common language (English). To further support the collecting data activity, a document was drawn up on the rules that all the partner countries had to follow in sample selection and contact management. This document was endorsed through the partners' mailing list. With the same means of communication the Department of Demographic Sciences took on the responsibility to advise all the partners of the modifications and adjustments introduced in the questionnaire in the course of the test phase. Finally, Italy and Slovenia independently undertook the

training of interviewers and supplied of structures necessary to carry out the telephone interviews (stations with computer and telephony, premises, etc.).

This phase of the project involved considerable delay in implementation of the agenda, mainly due to matters of budget. Nevertheless, the partners concurred on the fact that this delay had no significant effects on the next activities, which had to do mainly with analysis of the data and that could more easily be managed by each of the partners.

b) Training the interviewers

In the month of May the Department of Demographic Sciences started on the training of over 40 interviewers for application of the survey in Rome. The methodology employed was frontal didactics, for presentation of the project and questionnaire socialisation, while classroom simulation was used for application of the procedures learnt during the theoretical sessions, with the supervision of project coordinators. In this way the interviewers were able to practise application of the techniques to approach the interviewee and carry out the interviews. The simulations were conducted using the computerised questionnaire, which also provided the opportunity to carry out numerous tests of its efficiency. Each cycle of interviews (tests) was followed by debriefing to discuss the problems encountered and the solutions to adopt.

c) The four field surveys

The field surveys were carried out according to the different needs of each partner: in Italy the field survey started on 14th June and continued until 29th July, it started again on 4th September and ended on 2nd November; in Germany it last from 10th August to 8th September; in Poland it last from 11th to 19th September; in Slovenia it last from 21st August to 4th September. In Italy 35 interviewers were involved and 9 computer units were working; in Germany 32 interviewers; in Poland 142 interviewers and 65 computer units; in Slovenia 16 interviewers and 15 computer units as well. As a result of the delay the dates of the 2nd transnational meeting to be held in Ljubljana, Slovenia, were shifted to 7/8 July 2006. During this meeting the Italian partners showed the pilot-experience of the Cati survey ongoing in Rome, describing in details the methodology and the specific rules followed in the start-up phase. The meeting was also focused on some crucial harmonization processes: the presentation of the code-book to be shared among the partners for the harmonization of the four datasets in order to enable comparative analysis; the agreement on the contact rules to follow in the Cati surveys; the definition of a set of Standard Tables to be included in the first chapter of the Final Report. Moreover some general guidelines were defined for the organization of the four National Round Tables. The 3rd Transnational Meeting was held in Warsaw, Poland, from 14th to 15th October. The meeting was focused on the discussion of the following points: 1. assessment of the Cati surveys completed in each country, stressing weaknesses and strengths; 2. description of the ongoing experience in organizing the National Round Tables; 3. presentation of some provisional survey results based on the Standard Tables to be produced for the Final Report; 4. general discussion to update the structure of the Final Report; 5. definition of all those aspects concerning the organization of the project Final Conference (date, programme, speakers, discussants, ..).

d) Quality check and data processing

As each field survey was ended the partner managing it was asked to send to the expert in sampling methods the dataset with the data collected as well the information available on whole population aged 25-44 by age-grouping, gender, marital status, educational level and employment status. These information were needed to compute both gross and standardized weights for each dataset. The weights computing activity included a general quality check of the data collected. When this phase was ended, the expert sent each partner the four datasets to enable comparative analysis.

1.1.4 Organization of National Round Table

Starting from October 2006, four National Round Tables were organized according to the guidelines agreed during the meeting held in Ljubliana and discussed in depth in Warsaw. The Round Tables hosted experts of socio-economic policies and welfare systems in order to integrate the provisional results of the surveys with the current trends in policy measures in different welfare systems. In Italy the Round Table was held on 30th October 2006, in the "C. Gini" Room of the Faculty of Statistical Science inside the University of Rome "Sapienza". It was opened by the Dean of the Faculty, the Chief of the Department of Demography, a representative of Brodolini Foundation as well as of the Department of Economics; in Germany the Round Tables was held on 24th November 2006, at the Max Planck Institute for Demographic Research; in Poland on 22nd November 2006 at the Warsaw School of Economics; and finally in Slovenia on 21st November 2006 at the Science and Research Centre of Koper, University of Primorska. Each partner followed a similar scheme in the organization of the Round Tables. The first part of the Round Tables was dedicated to the presentation of three main topics analysed by the researchers involved in the Project. Some provisional results were presented on the following issues: 1. The determinants of the transition to adulthood: employment condition and socio-cultural effects on family choices among young-adult generations; 2. flexibility-precariousness and family choices; 3. Reconciling work and family and family policies. Starting from these questions some questions were raised and presented to the experts participating in the Round Table: senior researchers, professors and policy makers. Then, a general discussion was managed by a member of the Steering Committee of the Project and finally a synthesis of the main suggestion received was done.

The Round Table last at least half a day. It was opened to all those who were interested in the issues discussed. Many representatives of local authorities and public services, Ministries, trade-unions, academic scientists were invited. Each participant was provided with a folder including the programme of the day, a general description of the project, the questionnaire used in the Cati surveys, the presentations of the three main issues discussed by the experts of the Round Table.

1.1.5 International Final Conference

On 27th November 2006 the Final International Conference of the Project JIFT was held. It was titled "Job Instability and Family Trends". The Conference was hosted by the University "La Sapienza" of Rome in the "C.Gini" Room of the Faculty of Statistical Science. The Conference was opened by the Dean of the Faculty of Statistical Science, the Chief of the Department of Demography, a representative of Brodolini Foundation as well as of the Department of Economics. The first presentation focused on showing the main stages of the Project, the main sample characteristics as well as the most important step of the four Cati surveys. This introduction was followed by two panel sessions, the former titled "Transition to adulthood: employment and family choices"; the latter titled "Households, employment and reconciliation policies". Each panel had a chairman, who was a member of the Steering Committee, and a discussant, who was an international expert hosted by the Project group. Within each panel two papers were presented and discussed. Then, a general discussion was stimulated. A Round Table concluded the Conference. It was focused on innovative policy measures to reconcile family formation and employment dynamics. A number of international experts invited by the research group participated in the Round Table together with some of the members of the Steering Committee of the Project.

NOTES

1 Deville J.C. and Särndal C.E. (1992) "Calibration Estimators in Survey Sampling" *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, vol. 87, pp. 376-382).

2. Reference framework

2.1 Introduction

The European Union is facing unprecedented demographic changes that will have a significant impact across society and economy. Among these demographic changes, the low level of birth rates, the consequences on family and household structure and the overall population ageing represent the major challenges the European society has to face.

The determinants of the demographic changes that occurred across all European countries, and their implications are so far not very clear. According to many authors the fertility and family changes find explanation in the prolonged process of education (Blossfeld and Huinink, 1991; Coppola, 2003), and in women's increased participation in the labour market (Becker, 1991). Other authors search for explanation in preferences and changes in the value system (Lesthaeghe, 1995).

In more recent years it has become evident that the relation between employment dynamics and family formation patterns and fertility behaviour is of crucial importance in order to draw efficient social and economic policies. If on the one hand the demographic changes, specifically in terms of low fertility and rapidly ageing population, shape heavily the socio-economic environment, on the other hand, the adoption of particular socio-economic strategies influences societal organization of private life and, in particular, the decision of forming a family and having children.

In the current research we focus on the relationship between the emergence of labour market instability, economic uncertainty and job precariousness, and family formation in four EU countries: two old members (Germany and Italy) and two new EU members (Poland and Slovenia). Through a comparative analysis between four EU countries characterised by different socio-economic and cultural settings, the aim is to shed light on whether and to what extent recent labour market dynamics and policy guidelines given at EU level through the European Employment Strategy (EES) have influenced the decision among the young of forming a family and having children.

The current report overviews the main demographic and employment characteristics recently observed across European countries, with particular regard to EU countries and to the four countries analysed in the research project, namely Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia. This reference framework provides the basis and justifies the research proposal and development.

The report is structured as follows. Section 2 overviews the trend of main fertility and family indicators since 1960s focusing mainly on the current EU. In Section 3 we explore the employment situation in the EU in light of the EES. In Section 4 we focus on the issue of reconciling work and family by providing an overview of leave policies, childcare services and working arrangements available across the EU. Moreover, we include some empirical results available in the literature regarding the capacity of different policy arrangements to favour the reconciliation between work and family commitments and thus help the young make decisions about family formation and childbearing. Section 5 contains the concluding remarks and highlights the importance of the research carried out in Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia.

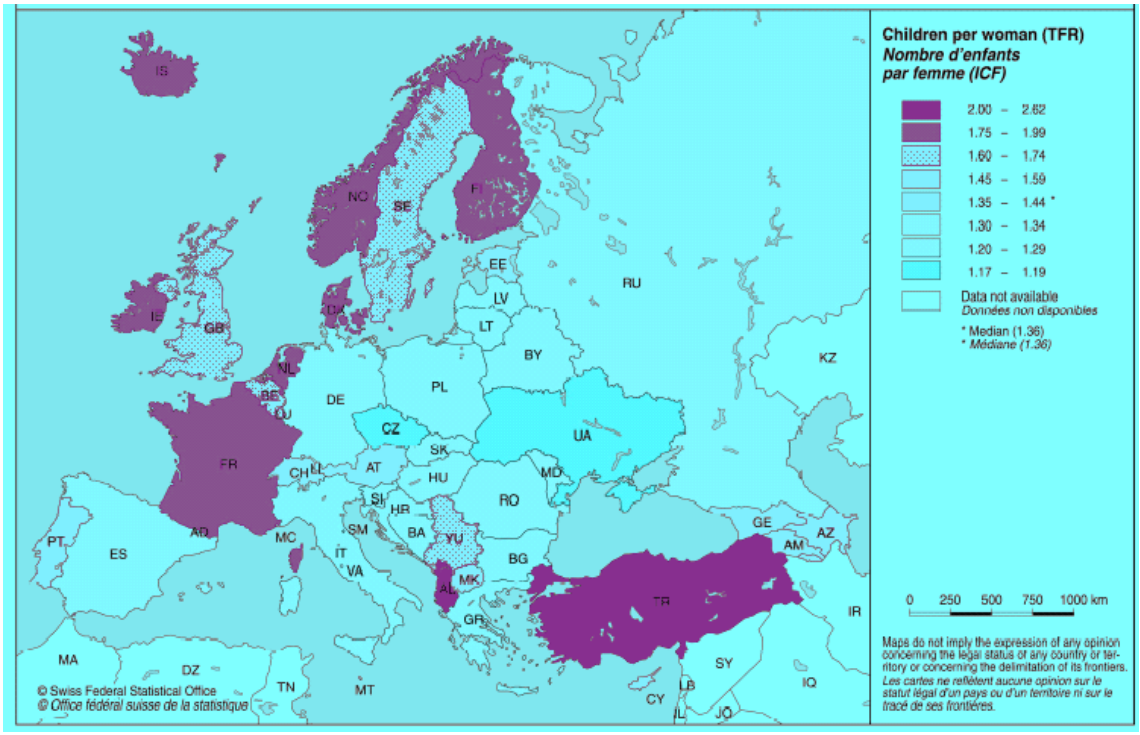
2.2 Trends of basic fertility and family indicators in Europe since the 1960s

Since the 1960s great changes in fertility and family patterns have affected the European countries: the dramatic decline in the total fertility rate (TFR), the postponement of union formation, and of motherhood and the decline of marital rates. However, the temporal pattern has been different across European countries.

While low fertility levels are a general phenomenon, there are however important regional differences with a rather high level of heterogeneity. As shown in Map 1, in 2003 only Turkey recorded a TFR above the replacement level (2.43), all the other countries had a TFR below the replacement threshold, shifting from the lowest 1.18 (Czech Republic) to the highest 1.99 (Iceland). Furthermore, it is visible a well-defined division between NorthWestern countries and the rest of Europe (with the exception of some Balkan countries): the former are characterized by higher levels of TFR, while the latter by lower levels of TFR. If we consider the EU25, we note that in 2003 the highest fertility levels are registered in NorthWestern Europe, in clear contrast with the Mediterranean countries and the new member states.

The temporal pattern of the process, which brought to the current fertility levels, has been different across the EU macro regions. As it is visible from Figure 1, the Western EU countries faced a rapid decline in the TFR since the second half of the 1960s. For most Northern and Western EU countries the result of this downward trend was below replacement period fertility already from the 1970s. The Southern EU joined the group a decade later, but here the decline was more pronounced. The result of such differing patterns is a reversal of the ranking of countries according to their period fertility level. If in the early 1970s the Southern EU countries were characterised by the highest fertility levels, the opposite can be said for the end of the 1990s, with the Northern EU registering the highest fertility. Furthermore, if roughly a decade ago it seemed that Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) was resisting the demographic pressures that during the past decades had involved Western Europe, the recent socio-economic transition period has speeded up the spread of new demographic patterns across the former socialist European countries, and thus in some of the new EU members.

Map 1 – Total fertility rate (TFR) around 2003



Source: Council of Europe (2005), p. 22.

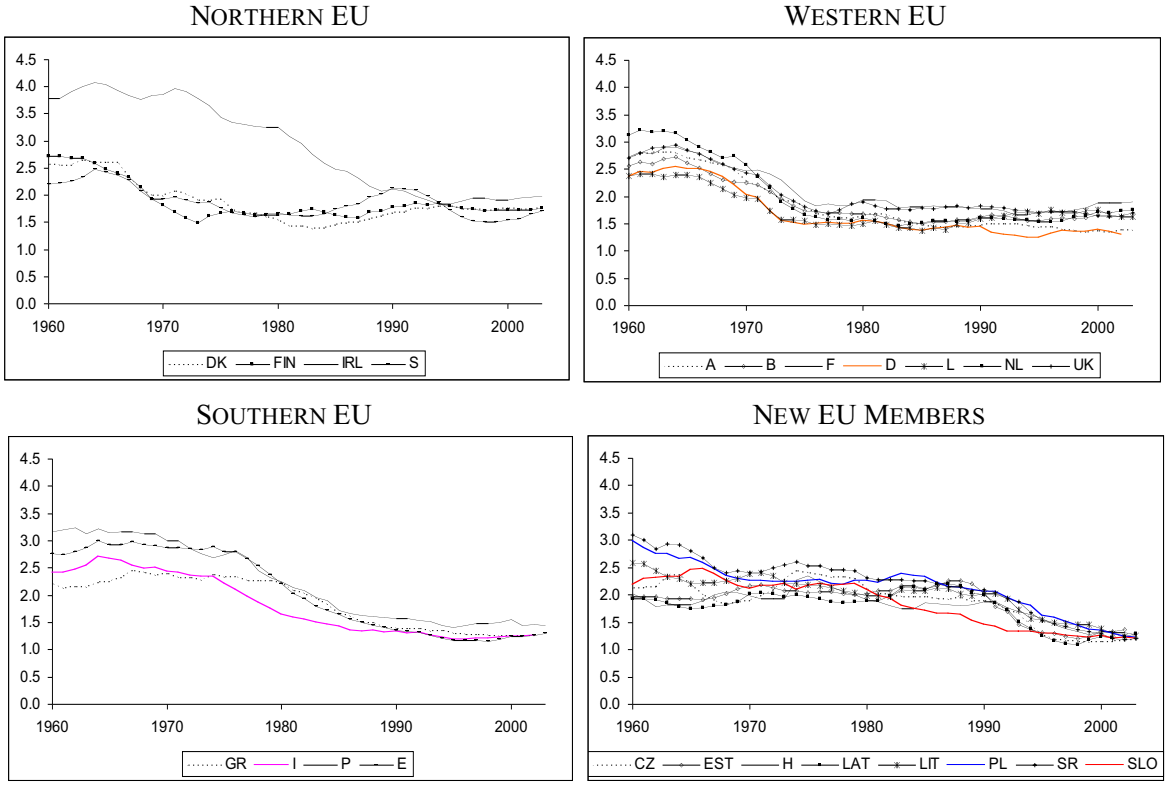
As far as the difference between Germany, Poland, Italy, and Slovenia is concerned, it is of extreme interest to focus on how and when these four countries experienced the onset of the process of fertility decline.

In Germany the fertility decline started in 1965 when the country was experiencing the baby-boom (2.5 children per woman), the decline between 1965 and 1970 was around 20%, up to 30% between 1970 and 1975. Since 1995 Germany has been experiencing a slight increase in the TFR.

In Italy the 1960s baby-boom was followed by a slight fertility decline till 1975. After this year the decline continued more rapidly and Italy registered in 1995 (together with Spain) the lowest level of fertility in Europe (1.2). Between 1995 and 2001 it is visible a very slight increase in the TFR, however it is not sufficient to get Italy out of the group of countries with the lowest levels of fertility.

In Poland, the rapid decline started already during the 1960s and lasted till the beginning of the 1970s. In the following fifteen years (1970-1985), Poland registered rather stable fertility levels around 2.3 children per woman, but since the middle of 1980s it was witness of another period of rapid decline which is still under way. In Slovenia the drop in fertility was observed since the 1990s. Up to the mid 1990s Slovenia is characterised by a rapid decline of TFR, which stabilises at about 1.20 towards the end of the 1990s. In Poland the beginning of the fast decline coincided with the unravelling of the former socialist regimes in 1989 and the early 1990s. Also, the pace of decline in Poland as well as in Slovenia and the other countries of the CEE, was unprecedented in peacetime. In relative terms, it was faster than the pace at which fertility dropped in Western Europe, after the post-war baby boom ended there around 1965. The result was a grossly depressed fertility, which left the transition economies as a group with the lowest fertility rate in the world.

Figure 1 – TFR: 1960-2003



Source: COE, Recent demographic developments in Europe, 2005

The constant and dramatic fertility decline has been due in part to the increase in the age at childbirth, phenomenon linked to the increase in the age at union formation (van de Kaa, 1987; Bongaarts, 1999; Sobotka, 2004). Apart from a pure "mechanical" effect of a change in the *tempo* of period fertility on its *quantum*, it is evident that there has been an effective change in family formation and reproductive behaviour across the

European countries. The drop in fertility has been thus accompanied with a real transformation in the process of the transition to adulthood.

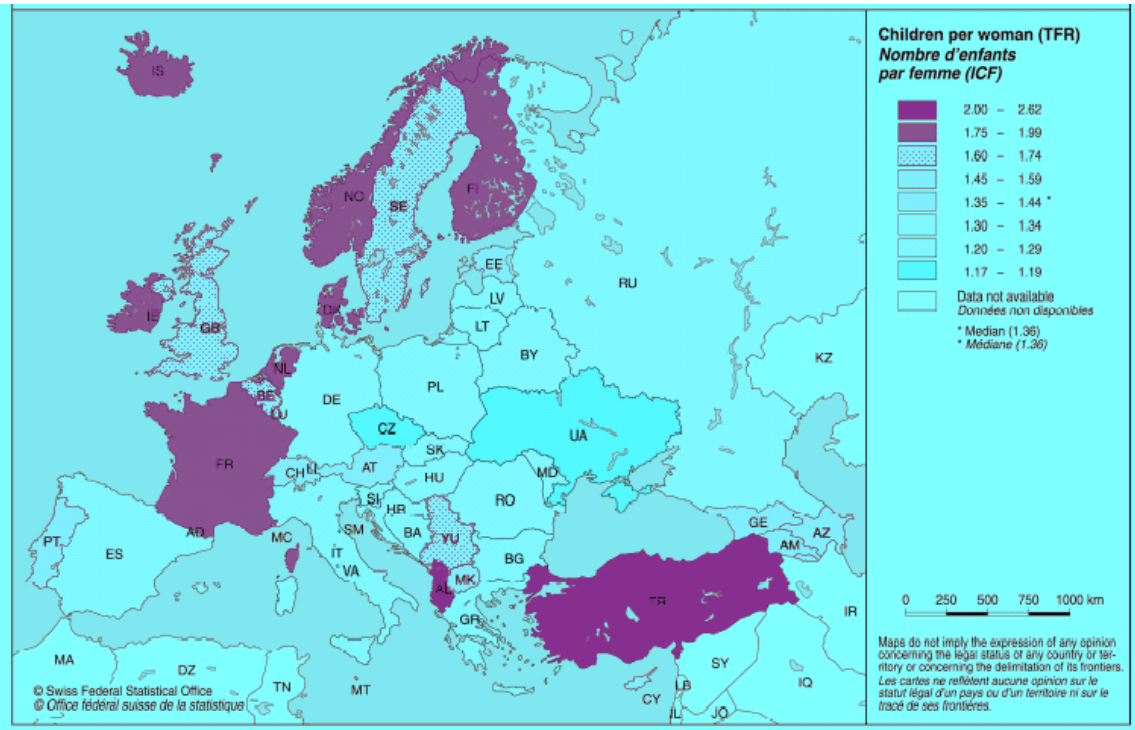
Therefore, as regards the timing of events characterising family formation and fertility, what finally characterises Europe at the turn of the new century is the postponement of marital unions and motherhood. For many decades, the average age at first marriage has increased throughout Europe, though with great between-country heterogeneity in the year of onset and the speed of postponement. The same is true for the mean age at first birth. In particular, what clearly emerges is a different pattern in the timing of the events between Eastern and Western Europe. Up to the 1990s people in the CEE countries used to marry earlier and to have children earlier in comparison to most of the countries of Western Europe. The 1990s again brought about novelties in the timing pattern: the rise in the mean age at first marriage and first birth occurred in the majority of the CEE, and thus also in the new EU members.

From the analysis of recent data, it is visible a general postponement in first union formation and first childbirth.

In relation to the postponement of first marriage (Map 2), data show a heterogeneous situation: in 2003 the highest mean age of women at first marriage, around 30, is attained in Sweden, Iceland and Denmark, the lowest (around 22.5) in Moldova and Belarus. In this case the division of Europe follows the direction EastWest rather than NorthSouth. With regard to the EU25 countries, it follows that in the new member states the age at first marriage is lower than in the rest of the EU, even if since the 1990s the mean age at first marriage has been increasing rapidly here as well.

The clear division between Eastern and Western Europe is found also with regard to the mean age at first child: in the Eastern countries the mean age at first child is constantly lower than in the other European countries. Around 2000 the highest age at first child, above age 29, is found in the countries of Southern Europe, i.e. Italy and Spain[2], while the lowest are registered in the CEE countries. Referring to the EU25 context, the new member states show lower mean age at first birth, event though characterised by an increasing pattern since the 1990s.

Map 2 – Mean age of women at first marriage around 2003



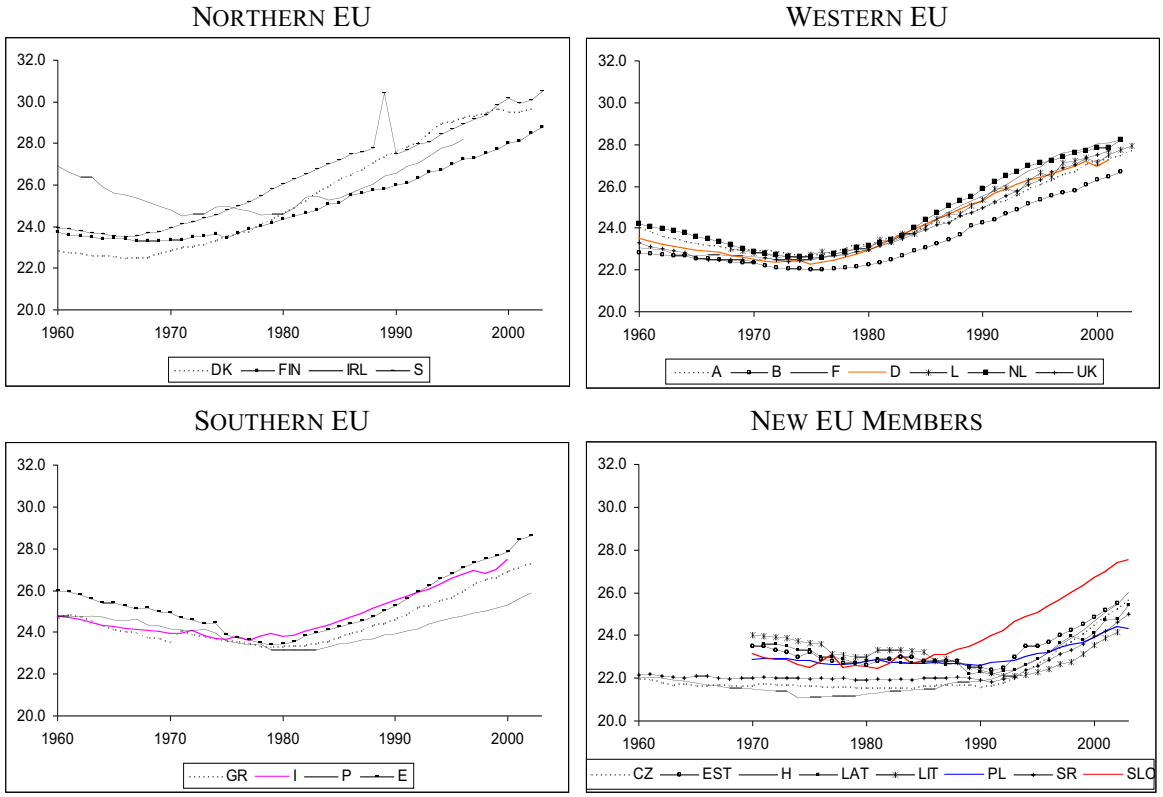
Source: Council of Europe (2005), p. 19.

Considering the temporal pattern of the women mean age at first marriage and first birth it can be noted that the two indicators started increasing in different moments across European countries (Figure 2 and Figure 3).

In the Northern EU countries the mean ages started increasing between 1965 and 1970, followed by the Western area, in which the increase was visible since the mid 1970s. In the Southern area the mean age at first marriage reached the lowest level at the end of the 1970s. Afterwards it started to increase constantly. In all the countries in transition the age at first marriage started increasing from a rather low level in the 1990s.

The women mean age at first child has followed a similar pattern. However, the impact of the increase of the mean age at first marriage on the mean age at first child is stronger in countries where a strong relation between these two events exists. This is the case, for example, of the former socialist countries, well known for their relatively young fertility, which reflects early marriage and a relatively swift transition from marriage to the birth of the first child. How early the onset of motherhood was just over a decade ago, is illustrated by the mean age of women at first birth for the late 1980s. In some of the most modern and prosperous of the former socialist countries motherhood started on average around the age of 23 or just below. The rise in the age of entry into motherhood from these low levels was particularly pronounced in Central Europe, where it lagged behind the onset of the fall in fertility by a year or two or practically coincided with it. In the former socialist new EU member countries the increase of the mean age at first birth started at the beginning-mid 1990s. To this regard Slovenia and Hungary are the exceptions. Here the mean age at first birth increased already in the 1980s.

Figure 2 – Mean age of women at first marriage: 1960-2003

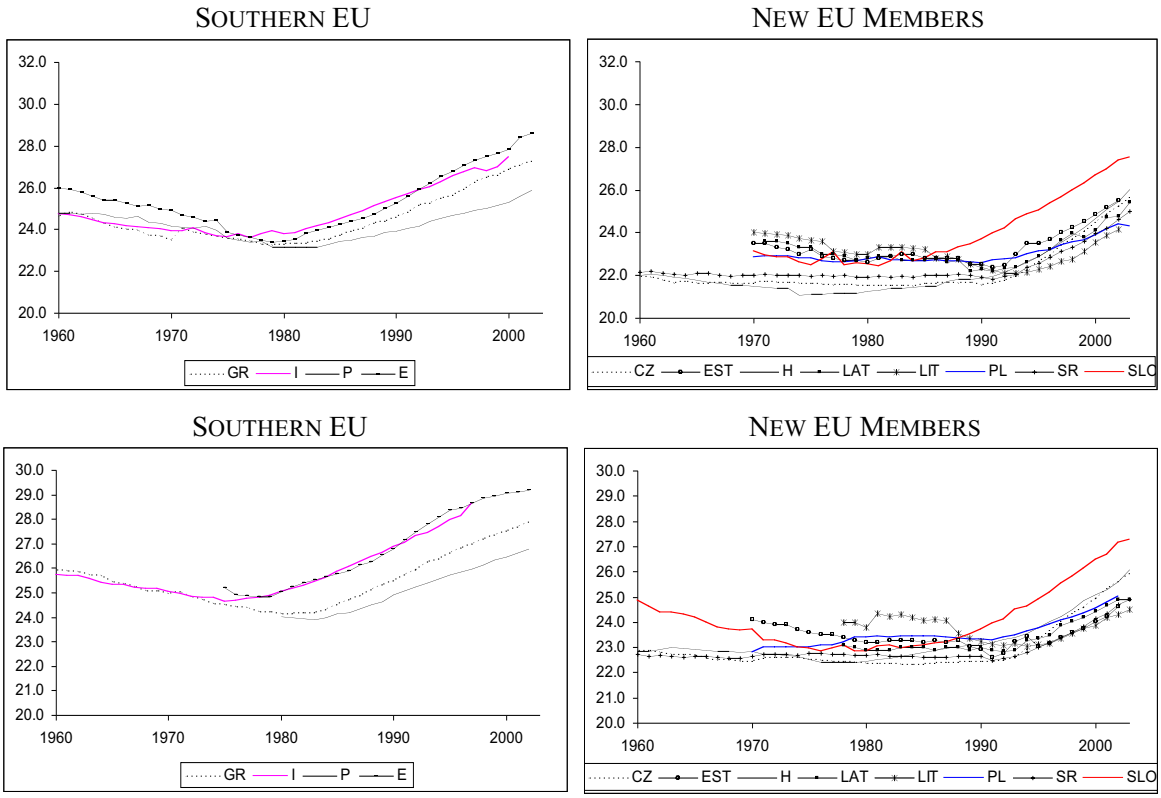


Source: COE, Recent demographic developments in Europe, 2005

In addition, one of the clearest changes observed since the mid 1960s concerns the attitudes towards marriage. In the late 1960s the total first marriage rates (TFMR) started to decline in the Northern European countries, i.e. Sweden, Norway and Finland. During the 1970s the TFMR fell in the other Western European coun-

tries and finally, in the second half of the decade, the decrease in marital unions reached Southern Europe. In the next decade the downward trend in marital unions continued, though at a slower pace. Up until the last decade, CEE countries, on the contrary, followed a definitely different marriage pattern. Apart from some exceptions, such as Slovenia, Croatia, Hungary and Romania, the first marriage rates did not drop until the 1990s.

Figure 3 – Mean age of women at the birth of first child[a]: 1960-2003



Note: a) Belgium, France, Germany and Luxembourg report the birth order within current marriage. For UK estimates for England and Wales are considered for biological birth order.
Source: COE, Recent demographic developments in Europe, 2005

The analysis of recent data has shown the magnitude and the dimension of the fertility and family formation changes that all European countries have experienced in the last decades. Such changes have involved different cohorts and can be found also if we focus on the individual demographic behaviour. The explanation of these substantial demographic changes is not straightforward. Pure demographic, social, cultural and economic factors have been addressed in order to interpret these changes, but a clear and exhaustive interpretative framework is far from being achieved.

Many factors interact in defining these new family and fertility behaviour patterns and they address determinants related to the system of values and preferences and the socio-economic characteristics. In particular, following a microeconomic perspective, it was expected that the increase in women's education and the rise in their participation rates in the labour market would influence negatively the fertility outcome. However, the picture is much more complex.

First, changes in professional work commitments, involving both partners, necessarily brought about changes in family formation patterns and reproductive behaviour of couples. Consequently, *ad hoc* policy strategies have to be taken into account in order to favour the reconciliation between work and family, on a gender-equal basis. The term reconciliation implies, on the one hand, the gender-equal division of roles with-

in families and the sharing of family responsibilities, which let families – and specifically men and women – find an effective equilibrium within the different spheres of life. On the other hand, in order to manage to accomplish work and family commitments people need specific family and employment policies to be implemented, in terms of parental leaves, childcare, benefits or working time arrangements, work flexibility, etc. The attempts to promote reconciliation between work and family life have become increasingly important in the last decade in the EU context.

Second, it is likely however that recently general employment conditions in Europe, such as difficulties in finding a job, late access to employment, difficulties in transition towards a permanent job, job instability, unequal pay, persisting gender discrimination, lack of incentive, may have influenced these trends too and specifically have affected younger cohorts. Recent studies stressed the importance of the effect of the increasingly unstable labour market and the youth's economic uncertainty on the demographic changes affecting all European countries (Oppenheimer, 1988; Oppenheimer and Lew, 1995; McDonald, 2000).

For these reasons the analysis, first, of employment conditions across EU countries is extremely important to evaluate, afterwards, the interaction between these two aspects.

2.3 Employment across EU in light of the EES: an overview of the current situation

2.3.1 – The development of the EES

Employment has been since the early 1990s among the key issues of the debate at EU level about greater coordination and convergence of policies across member countries[3]. Structural problems and macroeconomic difficulties over the past decades highlighted indeed the need for a coordinated policy response at European level.

It was in 1993 when the analysis of employment situation has started being taken really into account with the "Delor's White Book" on Growth, Competitiveness and Employment. The "Essen Strategy" in 1994 initiated the integrated approach to face unemployment at the EU level. Nevertheless, only with the Amsterdam Treaty in 1997 a significant turning point in the evolution of a coordinated European approach to employment has been established. Before that the employment and market policy developments at the European level mainly took the form of traditional collaboration between governments within international organisations. Thus, a new Title on Employment was included in the Treaty and, on this basis, the Luxembourg Jobs Summit launched in November 1997 the European Employment Strategy (EES), also known as the "Luxembourg process". The aim of the EES was to strengthen the coordination of national employment policies by involving member states in a series of common objectives and targets, based on four main topics, namely employability, entrepreneurship, adaptability and equal opportunities. In particular, the EES aims at combating long-term unemployment and youth unemployment, at modernising work organization, flexibility of working arrangements and promoting more adaptable forms of contracts. Moreover, with regard to equal opportunities, one of the objectives of the EES is implementing policies on career breaks, parental leave, part-time work and good quality care for children, in order to reduce the gender gap, to support the increase of women's employment and facilitate reentry into the labour market.

The following European Councils provided essential orientations for the EES and strengthened its links with other EU policies, in accordance with the changing socio-economic situation. Among these Councils, it is worth noting the Lisbon Council in 2000, the Stockholm Council in 2001 and the Barcelona Council in 2002. During the Lisbon European Council[4] some weak points regarding the European labour market were stressed, such as significant regional imbalances, a high rate of longterm unemployment and a shortage of women participating in the labour market. The Council pointed also out the need to enforce and modernize the European social model in order to achieve the main goals of the Lisbon strategy, that is strengthen employment, economic reform and social cohesion. With regard to full employment, the Lisbon targets of 2000 state that the employment rate in the EU should be raised to 70% by 2010 and the percentage of women in employ-

ment to 60% by 2010. Quality of work is addressed in the context of labour market flexibility and dynamics. More flexible work organization and labour mobility should, nonetheless, be taken into account together with job security, which is another key element of the Lisbon Social Agenda. To date it seems that relatively high degrees of labour market flexibility are consistent with major shares of employees in insecure employment relationships, in low paid and low productivity employment (European Commission, 2003). The Stockholm Council in March 2001[5] evaluated the targets set up during the Lisbon Council, stressed the importance of achieving full employment without disregarding however the quality of employment. The Council posed new intermediate targets in regard to employment rates to be achieved by 2005 (67% overall and 57% for women) and invited to develop indicators on the provision of care facilities for children and other dependants and on family benefit systems by 2002. The Barcelona Council in March 2002[6] called for a reinforced EES as an instrument of the Lisbon Strategy in an enlarged Europe and confirmed the importance of full employment. According to the Presidency Conclusions, "the revised Employment Strategy should focus on raising the employment rate by promoting employability and by removing obstacles and disincentives to taking up or remaining in a job, while preserving high protection standards of the European social model". Moreover, as regards women's employment, it was stated that "Member States should remove disincentives to female labour force participation and strive, taking into account the demand for childcare facilities and in line with national patterns of provision, to provide childcare by 2010 to at least 90% of children between 3 years old and the mandatory school age and at least 33% of children under 3 years of age".

The EES was revised in 2003 and 2005. According to the 2003 EES revision, members are committed to fostering three objectives: full employment, quality and productivity at work and social cohesion and inclusion. The revamp of the Lisbon strategy in 2005 was necessary, on the one hand, to improve coordination between member states and European institutions and, on the other hand, to better coordinate employment policies with macroeconomic and microeconomic policies of the EU. This has led to a complete revision of the EES, the guidelines of which are now presented for a three-year period.

Thus, the need of an integrated European approach has been largely recognized and it was stressed also in the new Social Agenda, launched in February 2005, for guaranteeing a positive interplay between economic, social and employment policies[7]. With regard to the principle of an integrated approach, part of the open method of coordination[8] launched by the EES at EU level, it is stated that "structural reforms cannot be obtained through isolated and dispersed actions or measures, but require consistent and concerted action over a wide range of policies and measures[9]. These measures need to be tailor made to address diverse needs and conditions".

Europeans desire decent jobs and social justice. The new Social Agenda looks at the promotion of decent work as a global objective at all levels, as called for by the World Commission on the Social Dimension on Globalisation. The young ask for more opportunities, permanent employment, and quality in work. In a dynamic economy, new forms of work emerge with substantial differences from country to country. Thus, the analysis of current trends of already known working arrangements and these new work patterns plays an important role in better understanding the family formation patterns and reproductive choices of the young generations.

2.3.2 – The labour market situation

Currently there are significant differences across the EU countries with regard to employment conditions, types of available working arrangements, gender gap in work sectors and wages, etc. Table 1 shows some main labour market indicators. As regards general employment trends, the EU countries (EU-15 and EU-25) show an increasing pattern of the total employment rate during the last decade. The opposite is true for the new member states. As far as Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia are concerned, we note some differences in both the trends and the levels. In Italy, the employment rate has been increasing since the second half of the 1990s and a rising trend can be observed also for Slovenia. On the contrary, in Poland the effects of the

Table 1 – Main labour market indicators

	1997			2000			2003			2005		
Employment rate (age 15-64)	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**
EU-25	60.6	70.2	51.1	62.4	71.2	53.6	62.9	70.8	55.0	63.8	71.3	56.3
EU-15	60.7	70.6	50.8	63.4	72.8	54.1	64.3	72.7	56.0	65.1	72.9	57.4
New EU members	60.2	67.8	52.8	57.4	63.7	51.3	55.9	61.7	50.2	56.9	63.3	50.7
Germany	*63.7*	*71.9*	*55.3*	*65.6*	*72.9*	*58.1*	*65.0*	*70.9*	*58.9*	*65.4*	*71.2*	*59.6*
Italy	*51.3*	*66.5*	*36.4*	*53.7*	*68.0*	*39.6*	*56.1*	*69.6*	*42.7*	*57.6*	*69.9*	*45.3*
Poland	*58.9*	*66.8*	*51.3*	*55.0*	*61.2*	*48.9*	*51.2*	*56.5*	*46.0*	*52.8*	*58.9*	*46.8*
Slovenia	*62.6*	*67.0*	*58.0*	*62.8*	*67.2*	*58.4*	*62.6*	*67.4*	*57.6*	*66.0*	*70.4*	*61.3*
Unemployment rate	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**
EU-25	-	-		8.6	7.4	10.2	9.0	8.1	10.2	8.7	7.9	9.8
EU-15	9.9	8.4	11.8	7.7	6.4	9.3	8.0	7.0	9.3	7.9	7.0	8.9
New EU members	-	-		13.6	12.6	14.8	14.3	13.7	15.1	13.4	12.6	14.4
Germany	*9.1*	*7.3*	*11.6*	*7.2*	*6.0*	*8.7*	*9.0*	*8.2*	*10.1*	*9.5*	*8.9*	*10.3*
Italy	*11.3*	*8.7*	*15.3*	*10.1*	*7.8*	*13.6*	*8.4*	*6.5*	*11.3*	*7.7*	*6.2*	*10.1*
Poland	*10.9*	*9.1*	*13.0*	*16.1*	*14.4*	*18.1*	*19.6*	*19.0*	*20.4*	*17.7*	*16.5*	*19.2*
Slovenia	*6.9*	*6.8*	*7.1*	*6.7*	*6.5*	*7.1*	*6.7*	*6.3*	*7.1*	*6.3*	*5.9*	*6.9*
% Part-time workers (of total employment)	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**
EU-25	16.0	5.9	29.8	16.2	6.1	29.5	17.0	6.6	30.3	20.4	7.5	36.5
EU-15	16.7	5.7	32.2	17.7	6.1	33.2	18.5	6.7	33.9	21.7	7.7	39.2
New EU members	9.6	7.5	12.2	8.1	5.9	10.7	8.0	5.7	10.6	7.9	5.5	10.9
Germany	*17.6*	*4.3*	*35.3*	*19.4*	*5.0*	*37.9*	*21.7*	*6.1*	*40.8*	*24.0*	*7.8*	*43.8*
Italy	*6.8*	*3.1*	*13.4*	*8.4*	*3.7*	*16.5*	*8.5*	*3.2*	*17.3*	*12.8*	*4.6*	*25.6*
Poland	*10.6*	*8.3*	*13.6*	*10.5*	*8.2*	*13.4*	*10.5*	*8.2*	*13.2*	*10.8*	*8.0*	*14.3*
Slovenia	*-*		*-*	*6.5*	*5.3*	*7.8*	*6.2*	*5.2*	*7.5*	*9.0*	*7.2*	*11.1*
% Employees with temporary contracts	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**	**T**	**M**	**F**
EU-25	11.7	11.1	12.4	12.6	12.0	13.4	13.0	12.4	13.8	14.4	14.2	14.6
EU-15	12.4	11.7	13.4	13.7	12.8	14.7	13.1	12.2	14.1	14.2	14.0	14.6
New EU members	5.4	6.1	4.6	6.5	6.9	6.2	13.0	13.6	12.3	15.7	16.2	15.1
Germany	*11.8*	*11.6*	*12.1*	*12.7*	*12.5*	*13.1*	*12.2*	*12.1*	*12.3*	*14.2*	*14.4*	*14.0*
Italy	*7.9*	*6.9*	*9.4*	*10.1*	*8.7*	*12.2*	*9.9*	*8.2*	*12.2*	*12.3*	*10.5*	*14.7*
Poland	*4.8*	*5.6*	*4.0*	*5.8*	*6.5*	*4.9*	*19.4*	*20.8*	*17.8*	*25.7*	*26.5*	*24.7*
Slovenia	*-*	*-*	*-*	*13.7*	*12.7*	*14.8*	*13.7*	*12.6*	*14.9*	*17.4*	*15.7*	*19.3*

Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006.

transition to a market economy determined a sharp decrease in employment rates, which influenced heavily the overall pattern in the new EU members. None of the countries has achieved the Lisbon target yet, even though Germany and Slovenia are not far away from the intermediate goal of the Stockholm Council (67%). With regard to unemployment rates, among the countries considered only Poland shows a notably increasing trend and registers in 2005 an unemployment rate of 17.7%.

As regards different working arrangements, we consider both the share of part-time workers and the proportion of employees with temporary contracts.

Across the countries of the EU part-time working solutions are increasing. It is likely that these working arrangements are more common among the old members, despite significant differences between Northern and Southern Europe. In the new EU member states part-time employment is still rather limited. Among the countries considered, Germany appears to be the more incline to part-time opportunities: 24% of employed work part-time in 2005. The increase in part-time working arrangements is in line with favouring reconciliation between work and family.

Employees holding a temporary contract have also been increasing across the EU countries, a pattern that can be noted also for Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia during the period 1992-2005. Especially in Poland the share of temporary jobs increased from 4.8% in 1997 to 25.7% in 2005. It is worth noting that part-time workers increased less than temporary workers[10]. These trends are consistent with the EES, which states that higher flexibility will increase the opportunities for workers to enter the labour market. Nevertheless, the growth in temporary employment has raised concerns that temporary jobs may crowd out more stable forms of employment and thus become an additional source of job insecurity which regards in particular the young and the less educated (OECD, 2002).

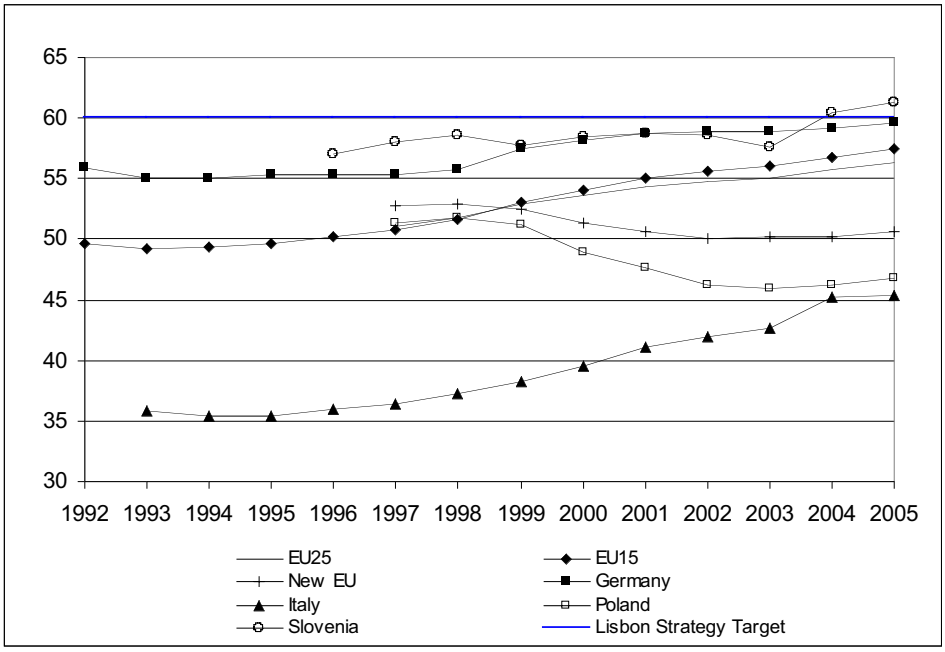
The panorama of the European labour markets cannot be completed without a special attention to the persistent gender gap in employment dynamics across Europe. The difference between total and female employment rates indicates that throughout Europe there is still a large gap between men and women, with the latter falling significantly behind.

At EU25 level the female employment rate has been increasing from the second half of the 1990s and in 2005 it is of 56.3% (Table 1 and Figure 4). For the new member states the figure is equal to 50.7%. In the new EU countries the female employment rate has declined since 1997. Among the four countries considered, Germany and Slovenia show in 2005 a female employment rate equal to 59.6% and 61.3% respectively, thus around the Lisbon target, while Italy and Poland lag behind, with a female employment rate equal to 45.3%, the former, and to 46.8%, the latter. Among the countries considered only Poland shows a significant decrease in female employment.

The employment gap, measured by the difference in employment rates between men and women, appears to be particularly large in the Southern EU countries, among which Italy has to be considered, while the gap is very little in Northern Europe (Figure 5). In Germany, Poland and Slovenia the gender gap is far below the EU25 average. Even though the gap between women and men is still very important, it has been decreasing over time.

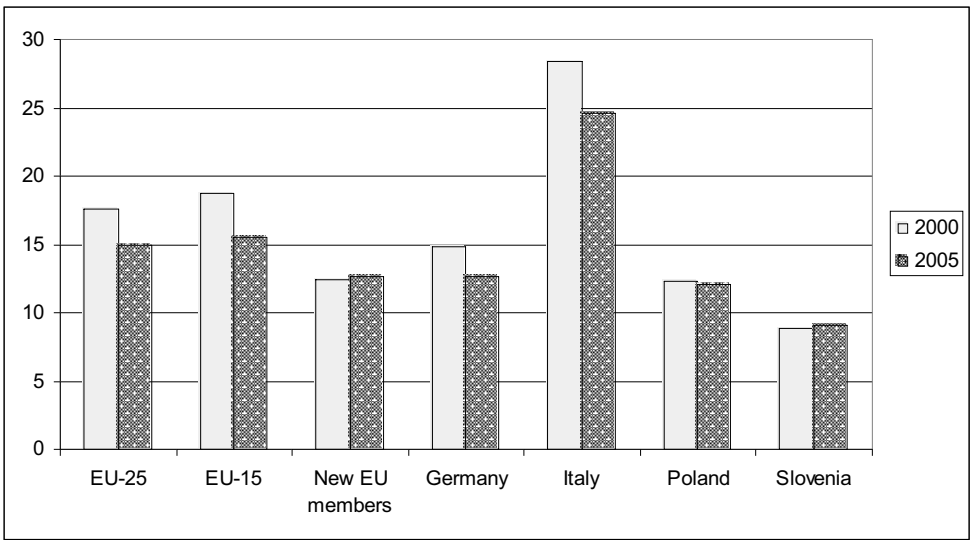
If we consider the situation of unemployment in a gender perspective, unemployment rates are higher for women than for men in the EU25 context, with Italy registering in 2005 the highest difference among the four countries taken into account (Table 1).

Figure 4 – Female employment rate (age 15-64)



Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006.

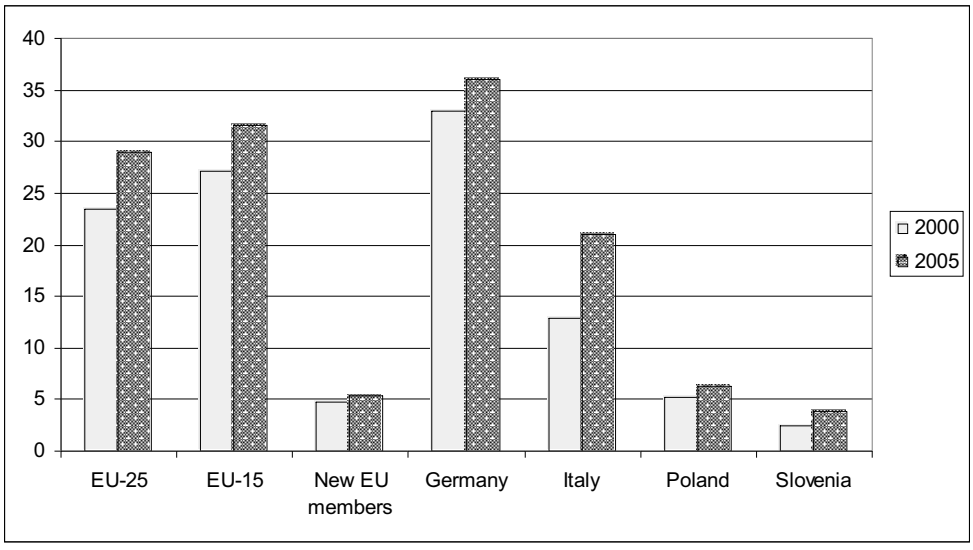
Figure 5 – Gender gap in employment rates (men-women)



Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006.

Differences between women and men are also evident with regard to various types of working arrangements. In particular, the proportion of women working part-time is substantially higher than for men and with respect to 2000 the gap has increased for EU25 (Figure 6). It is evident that women are most commonly employed part-time in Germany and Italy, while in Poland and in Slovenia the differences between women and men are less pronounced, since in CEE countries part-time employment has become a real labour market option only during the transition period. There seems not to be a particularly evident gender gap with regard to temporary contracts.

Figure 6 – Gender gap in part-time employment (men-women)



Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006.

Considering non standard employments (Table 2) – part-time and fixed-term – data show that 2.5% of employees in EU-25 countries and 2.8% of employees in EU-15 countries have a part time job because they could not find a full-time job, while respectively the 3.6% and 3.0% have a fixed-term job because they could

not find a permanent job. In the new EU member states the percentage in relation to the part time decreases to 0.9%, while for the fixed-term contract the percentage increases to 7.2%.

The specific cases of Germany and Italy show how for the part-time condition the country percentage is over the European mean (3.8% in Germany and 3.7% in Italy), while in Poland the same percentage is 1.1%. No data is available for Slovenia. Data on temporary contracts show three different levels: in Germany only 1.3% of employees have a fixed-term contract because they could not find a permanent job, in Italy and Slovenia this percentage increases respectively to 6.2% and 7.2%, in Poland more than 11% of employees have this kind of contract because they could not find a permanent job. Interesting gender differences are visible in relation to both types of atypical jobs.

Data on part-time job show higher percentages for women. In Italy and Germany the gender gap is around 5%, while it is just 1% in Poland. These data show potential gender discrimination in the part-time condition (let us recall that in this case we are considering people who have a part-time because they could not find a full-time job). In relation to the fixed-term contract the gender differences are not so strong in three out of four countries. In Germany, Italy, and Slovenia the gender gap shifts from 0.3% (Germany and Slovenia) to 1% in Italy. In Poland men register a value of 3% above women percentage.

Table 2 - Employees in non-standard employment (part-time and/or fixed-term) as % of total employees. Breakdowns by sex. 2005

	Employees in non standard employment (part-time and/or fixed-term) as % of total employees					
	Part time only, taken because of Could not find a full-time job			**Fixed –term only, taken because of** Could not find a permanent job		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
EU-25	2.5	1.0	4.2	3.6	3.7	3.4
EU-15	2.8	1.1	4.7	3.0	3.0	2.9
New EU members	0.9	0.4	1.4	7.2	8.0	6.2
Germany	*3.8*	*1.6*	*6.5*	*1.3*	*1.4*	*1.1*
Italy	*3.7*	*1.5*	*6.7*	*6.2*	*5.7*	*6.9*
Poland	*1.1*	*0.5*	*1.7*	*11.1*	*12.5*	*9.5*
Slovenia	-	-	-	*7.2*	*7.3*	*7.0*

Source: European Commission (2006).

Data in Table 3 show the transition between fixed-short term contracts by type of contract from 2000 to 2001. No data is available for Poland and Slovenia. In the European countries (EU-15) the 32% of employees who have a fixed-short term job in 2000, have a permanent job after 1 year. The 42% remain in the same condition and 22% move to not employed condition. The Germany profile shows a similar percentage in moving to permanent job, while 37% (less than the European mean) remain in the same condition. The percentage of transitions to unemployment condition is 3 points above the European mean. In Italy only 28% move to a permanent job while 48% remain in the same condition, and only 17% move to not employed condition. The two cases show how the labour market is more dynamic in Germany than in Italy, where the temporary contracts seem to be a more "structural" condition. However, data suggest that in Italy, once people enter in the job market, it is more likely for them to remain in employment (low percentage of people moving towards the not employed condition).

Table 3 - Transition from fixed-short term contracts by type of contract from 2000 to 2001

2000	2001	EU15	DE	IT
Fixed-short term	Permanent job	32	32	28
	Fixed-short term job	42	37	48
	Educational training	3	3	4
	Self-employment	2	2	3
	Not employed	22	25	17

Source: European Commission (2006).

So far we tried to translate the effect of the EES in terms of the trend of main labour market indicators. Another useful source to evaluate the impact of the EES for European countries is the OECD index of Employment Protection Legislation (EPL), which represents a measure of the strictness of labour market legislation.

Basically, the OECD EPL index is built weighting three main components: the legislation concerning regular employment (more in detail, governmental authorization to fire, notices of dismissal, severance payments, unfair dismissals), temporary employment and the legislation regarding collective dismissal[11]. This index ranges from 0 (lowest strictness of EPL) to 6 (maximum strictness of EPL). Table 4 reports the evolution overtime of the OECD index from the late 1980s to 2003, for both the legislation concerning temporary contracts and the overall legislation.

Both rankings clearly show that EPL strictness is decreasing overtime, meaning that the reforms that have been introduced in Europe in the last 15 years increased both hiring and firing flexibility in the labour market. For instance, in Italy the temporary index has decreased from 5.4 in the late 1980s to 2.1 in 2003, while the overall index has decreased from 3.6 to 1.9. For Germany the temporary index passed from 3.8 to 1.8 and the overall from 3.2 to 2.2.

Table 4 – Summary indicators of the strictness of employment protection legislation (FIGURA PAGINA 36)

	Temporary Employment legislation index			Overall Index (Version 1)		
	Late 1980s	Late 1990s	2003	Late 1980s	Late 1990s	2003
Austria	1.5	1.5	1.5	2.2	2.2	1.9
Belgium	4.6	2.6	2.6	3.2	2.2	2.2
Czech Republic	..	0.5	0.5	..	1.9	1.9
Denmark	3.1	1.4	1.4	2.3	1.4	1.4
France	3.1	3.6	3.6	2.7	3	3
Germany	3.8	2.3	1.8	3.2	2.5	2.2
Greece	4.8	4.8	3.3	3.6	3.5	2.8
Hungary	..	0.6	1.1	..	1.3	1.5
Ireland	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1
Italy	5.4	3.6	2.1	3.6	2.7	1.9
Netherlands	2.4	1.2	1.2	2.7	2.1	2.1
Poland	..	0.8	1.3	..	1.5	1.7
Portugal	3.4	3	2.8	4.1	3.7	3.5
Slovak Republic	..	1.1	0.4	..	2.4	1.9
Spain	3.8	3.3	3.5	3.8	2.9	3.1
Sweden	4.1	1.6	1.6	3.5	2.2	2.2
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7

.. Data not available. Source: OECD Employment Outlook (1999, Chapter 2, 2004, chapter 2)

Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the effect of changes that have occurred in terms of the labour market and employment protection legislation differs across the EU countries. On the one hand, the increase of both temporary jobs and overall labour instability leads to major job market flexibility and is, therefore, in accordance with the EES. On the other hand, it is a synonym of greater precariousness and, therefore, uncertainty. More specifically, the uncertainty linked to the new contractual forms is usually due to both income and employment discontinuity, which might force young workers to postpone their decision to move to an independent living situation, up to a transition to a more stable employment status -for instance a permanent job- implying also a postponement of fertility decisions. The analysis of this crucial difference and the impact on union formation and reproductive behaviour is the core of the current research.

2.4 The complex relationship between work and family

2.4.1 Reconciling work and family in Europe: an outlook

The increasing female labour market participation, changes in family forms, the demographic pressure of an ageing population and low fertility across Europe have put the debate about the reconciliation between work and family on the top of the European Social Agenda, also with regard to the new guidelines about full and female employment.

We already noted EU cross-country differences as regards the distance from the Lisbon targets and, in particular, as regards female employment. There are well-known determinants related to the degree of female participation in the labour market such as the educational level, marital status and the age and number of children. Beside these individual characteristics, policies play also a significant role and they might have been acting differently across European countries.

Various studies (Neyer, 2003 and 2006; Gauthier, 2002 and 2004; Sleebos, 2003; European Commission, 2005) tried to describe and compare family policies across Europe and investigate their effects on family and fertility dynamics. A first common conclusion is that there does not exist a unique European model of family policies. Significant heterogeneity is found instead across European countries (Gauthier, 2002). Similarly Neyer (2003) points out that in terms of family provisions several distinctions still characterise Western European countries. Institutional and socio-cultural legacies shape thus differently family policies in Europe.

Apart from the analysis of commonalities and differences in family policies across European countries[12], a matter of major concern regards the relationship between family policies and other contexts of societal life, in particular gender equality and work-family reconciliation (Gauthier, 2004). Neyer (2006) argues that the effect of family policies on fertility does not depend only on their configuration, but also on the relationship between family policies, gender and the labour market. Therefore, a more comprehensive policy approach is needed which takes into account these different dimensions (ibidem). Such a perspective is in line with the accomplishment of the Lisbon targets as regards full and, in particular, female employment, and accordingly it is needed to help the combination between professional and family life.

The description of family policies across European countries is a quite demanding task because of the difficulties in the conceptualisation and measurement of family policies and for the great variety of principles that drive their realization. A commonly used classification of family policies refers to the Esping-Andersen's (1990) grouping of welfare states assuming that both are driven by the same principles. Nevertheless, feminist welfare state research has pointed out that not in all countries the principles that govern welfare state policies are the same also for family policies and differences are to be sought in the way family policies structure gender relations in the family and society through parenthood, employment and care (Neyer, 2006 and references therein). Such a perspective goes beyond the mere reconciliation of work and family life and puts forward issues related to women's access to paid work, sustainability of livelihood during periods of care obligations, maintenance of women's independence and care options (Neyer, 2006).

Focusing on the importance of the link between fertility, work and care in the configuration of family policies, as suggested by Neyer (2006), we briefly explore the main features of family policies connected to these issues and compare their configuration across Europe, with particular regard to Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia.

Parental leave policies and childcare policies are most closely related to these dimensions. We are, however, also concerned about other policies, such as those regarding working arrangements and financial allowances for working parents, which also support the combination of professional, family and private life.

a) Parental leaves

Considering Europe as a whole in terms of leaves, childcare services and benefits, we note a distinction between Western and Eastern European countries. In Western Europe the Nordic countries differ from the rest of Europe by offering parental leaves with high benefits of up to 80% or more of prior earnings and good child-

care coverage for children of all ages. On the contrary, in Southern Europe there are generally low childcare provisions and badly paid or unpaid parental leaves (Neyer, 2006; European Commission, 2005; Missoc, 2005).

Western European countries differ between each other also as regards the duration of leaves. In Germany the duration of parental leave is 36 months, the payment is flat rate for the first two years and means tested after the first six months (Table 5). Similarly to Austria, Finland, Norway and France (after the first child), Germany has implemented extended care leaves. However, in case of Germany and Austria the aim goes in the direction of supporting the gender segregation of employment and care through employment restrictions (Neyer, 2006). In Italy the parental leave right is of 10 months and the payment during the supplementary period is 30% of monthly earnings, in contrast to what is observed in other Southern European countries, like in Spain and Greece, where it is not paid (European Commission, 2005; Eurostat, 2004).

Table 5 - Maternity and parental leave policies: Germany, Italy, Slovenia and Poland

	Maternity leave	Payment	Parental leave	Payment	Statutory paternity leave
Germany	14 weeks	100%	36 months	Flat rate 24 months; means tested	No
Italy	5 months	80%	10 months	30% (supplementary period)	No
Poland	16 weeks for first birth; 18 weeks for each subsequent birth	100%	24/36 months	Benefit for low income families	No
Slovenia	105 calendar days	100%	260 days	100%	90 days (15 days to be used during the mother's maternity leave, the remaining 75 to be used until the child is 8)

Source: Missoc (2005); Neyer (2006); European Commission (2005); Rostgaard (2004); The Clearing House on International Developments in Child, Youth and Family Policies (2004).

As regards the parental and care leave regulations in Eastern Europe, it seems to split into two different family policy regimes, with the majority of them supporting private care by mothers and long parental and care leaves (Neyer, 2006). In CEE maternity entitlements seem to be rather generous, reflecting a social policy legacy from the communist period and the recognition by nowadays' governments that these schemes provide valuable supports to families (Rostgaard, 2004). Slovenia offers childcare leave of 260 days and the payment is income related, same as in Romania and Lithuania (Missoc, 2005). In Poland the duration of parental leave is 24 months (36 in case of taking care of more than one child).

Moreover, there are differences between European countries according to the organization of parental leaves along family or individual lines. For the former, parents can decide who will benefit from the parental leave allocated to the family. On the contrary, in case of individual non transferable entitlement to parental leave, both parents can claim a period of leave and, if they do not take advantage of it, the right expires. In Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia parental leave is a family right (European Commission, 2005).

Following the EC Directive (Council Directive 96/34/EC), all countries provide fathers with the right to parental leave. Some of them promote men involvement in the care of small children with specific arrangements, such as paternity leaves or other regulations related to father's take up of parental leave. Nevertheless, most European countries show only limited provisions of paternity rights. In most cases there is no statutory paternity leave, even if there are father-friendly regulations, such as in Italy. In Slovenia the statutory right for 90 days of paternity leave is provided. In Poland since 2004 the remaining part of maternity leave can be transferred to the father (European Commission, 2005). The provision of benefits and employment restrictions during the parental leave, the income gaps between men and women and the gender norms shaping employment and care commitments hamper the uptake of parental leave by men (Neyer, 2006). It seems likely that the fathers' use of parental leave is particularly low if parental leave is organised as a family right and not well-paid (European Commission, 2005; Fagan and Hebson, 2004).

Even if recognising the incompatibility of employment and childcare, the principles driving parental leave policies in most countries are based however on the attempt to enable mothers to provide care themselves rather than to enable them to participate in the labour market (Neyer, 2006).

b) Childcare services

The provision of childcare services is strictly related to the configuration of parental and childcare leaves policies and constitutes, moreover, a very important feature in terms of the possibility to combine work and family tasks. The importance of this issue has already been highlighted in 1992 by the European Council's recommendation on childcare. Furthermore, during the EU summit in Barcelona in 2002 specific targets in terms of childcare provisions have been agreed upon. These targets should be achieved by 2010.

The assessment of the availability of childcare facilities across European countries is quite challenging. The major problem derives from the lack of comparable data on the provision of childcare services: each country provides different kind of childcare arrangements, which are difficult to translate into a common standard. Moreover, further cross-country differences may arise because of formal/informal arrangements, public/private care and with regard to the time dimension (fulltime and parttime care).

As regards childcare, a divide between the Nordic countries and the rest of Europe is noted. In the former childcare is part of policies that are intended to ensure women's labour force participation, universal care services, social and gender equality and all citizen's social rights (Neyer, 2006). In the Mediterranean and in German-speaking countries public childcare for children under age three is scarcely available. As regards Eastern Europe, a decrease of publicly funded childcare provisions has occurred and offers for childcare under the age of three have been strongly reduced. If we consider the estimated childcare coverage rate[13] in the EU member states for children under the age of three, we note that only few of them have reached the Barcelona target of 33% and in several countries the availability is below 10% (European Commission, 2005). In particular, in 2003 the coverage rate in Germany is 7% and in Italy 6% (Table 6). In Poland and Slovenia the estimated coverage rates equal to 2% and 27% respectively. A better picture emerges if we consider the coverage rate between age three and school mandatory age. In this case ten countries meet the Barcelona target, among which Germany and Italy. Poland and Slovenia are among the countries with a lower coverage. To this regard it has to be pointed out that the figures include pre-school arrangements, which have a high coverage rate, but are nonetheless part-time in most countries and additional childcare facilities are thus needed (European Commission, 2005).

On the whole, the supply of childcare facilities has not sufficient coverage, in particular for children under the age of three. The availability of childcare services goes in the direction of helping mothers managing between work and family, but it does not represent a complete and sufficient alternative to mother's or other informal care and thus it does not favour mothers' decisions to fully participate in the labour market.

Table 6 - Estimated provision of childcare in Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia, 2003

	Childcare coverage: 0-3 years	Childcare coverage: 3 years-mandatory school age
Germany	7%	89%
Italy	6%	93%
Poland	2%	60%
Slovenia	27%	59%

Source: Plantenga and Siegel (2004); European Commission (2005).

c) Working arrangements

With respect to the possibility to reconcile work and family in most European countries particular working-time arrangements are provided, such as part-time working, teleworking, flexitime, jobsharing. Among these the most common is the part-time work, however with great variability across Europe[14]. Moreover, the female prevalence in part-time work is also evident across Europe (see Table 1 in Section 3). Part-time work

has become thus one of the most commonly adopted options, even though individualised flexible working hours might well be an important alternative (European Commission, 2005). The regulation regarding flexible working arrangements is still mainly delegated to firms, and moreover it depends strongly on the sector of employment. Flexitime is more common in the public and administrative sector and in higher qualified occupations. It seems that the incidence of flexible working-time arrangements is lower in the Southern European countries and in the new member states (European Commission, 2005).

Nevertheless, some European countries provide national legislation which may apply to all employees or specifically to working parents. In particular, Germany and Poland have national legislation to reduce working hours that applies to all employees. Germany changed the act on part-time employment in 2001 and strengthened the position of employees with respect to part-time or full-time working schedules. In Poland, employees can ask for part-time working hours and are guaranteed equal treatment with respect to full-time employees as regards salary and work. Slovenia, together with other six member states, has national legislation that gives working parents the right to reduce working hours to reconcile work and family more easily: one of the parents who cares for the child until the age of three has the right to part-time work (European Commission, 2005). In Italy the availability of part-time work is limited. The process towards more flexible working hours has started later in Italy and proceeded at a slower pace.

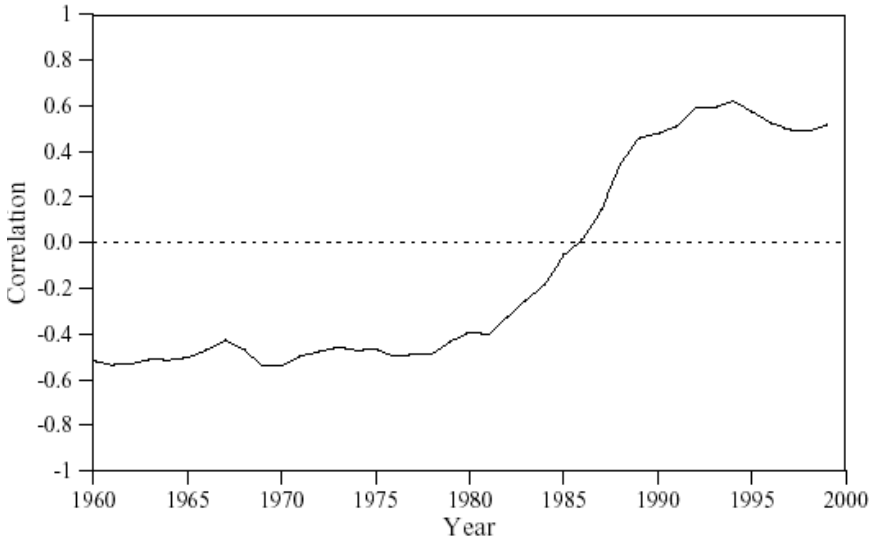
2.4.2 - Evidence from empirical analysis

Different parental and childcare leave policies, the availability and use of childcare services, working arrangements and the labour market conditions impact family and fertility decisions and the individuals' organization of professional and family life. Across Europe there is great variability in the provisions of these facilities and, accordingly, in the responses in terms of family and fertility behaviour.

A first starting point in the analysis of the link between work and family refers to the evaluation of the relationship between women's participation in the labour market and fertility. The existence of an inverse relationship between fertility and employment has been established both theoretically and empirically since the 1970s (i.e. Becker and Lewis, 1973; Mincer, 1985). Nevertheless, recent studies focusing on the time trend of fertility and female participation in Western European countries have shown that in the mid 1980s the cross-country correlation turned from negative to positive (Figure 7). Since that time women's participation in the labour market has continued increasing, but fertility decline has slowed down or, in some cases, there has been a slight recovery. Currently the countries with lowest fertility levels (i.e. Italy and Spain) are the countries which register relatively low female participation rates, while countries with higher fertility are countries where the female labour force participation rate is relatively high. Different studies (Brewster and Rindfuss, 2000; Ahn and Mira, 2002; Billari and Kohler, 2004) analysed empirically the cross-country correlation between female labour force participation and fertility. The inversion of the correlation has to be sought mainly in the changes in the social attitude towards working mothers, the set-up of policies aiming at reconciling work and childbearing, the availability of parental leaves, etc. Other studies, pooling cross-country and time series data, state that the sign of the correlation has not changed, but it has weakened over time. It turned out that in Southern Europe the correlation between fertility and female employment is still significantly negative (Engelhardt and Prskawetz, 2002 and 2005). It seems that in Southern Europe it is still difficult to reconcile work and family, while in Northern Europe the policy target is in facilitating women's participation in the labour market without hampering the childbearing outcome.

As regards countries of Central and Eastern Europe, there is not much empirical evidence of the effect of family policies and labour market regulation on fertility outcome. Before the end of the socialist regimes those countries were characterised by high female employment and higher fertility in comparison to the rest of Europe. Nevertheless, the direction these countries are following in terms of family and employment policies is not unique, some of them being closer to the Northern European model, some of them to the more liberal welfare policies.

Figure 7 - Cross-country correlation between the total fertility rate and female labour force participation rate for 22 OECD countries, 1960-2000 FIGURE PAGINA 44



Source: Engelhardt and Prskawetz (2005).

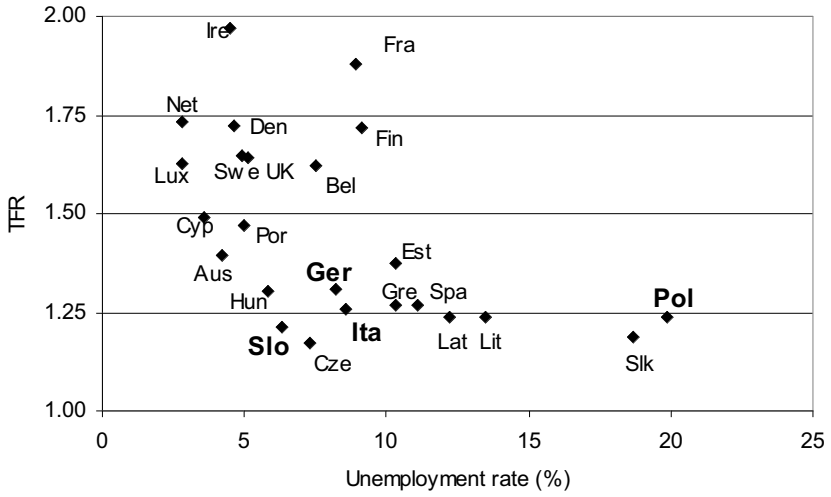
Labour market regulations have a significant impact on participation rates. Countries where labour markets are still highly regulated, namely Southern European countries, restrict opportunities to those who would like to enter the labour market, such as the young and women. In these countries, where there is high youth unemployment, the female participation rate is low (Del Boca and Pasqua, 2005). High unemployment and labour market rigidity force young couples to postpone their family and fertility decisions until they get a stable job. In Italy, women tend however to participate more in the labour market to have a further guarantee of a more secure household income together with their partner. Moreover, due to rather high unemployment rates, it would be much more difficult for Italian women to leave work during their childbearing, finding it hard to re-enter the labour market and, thus, they prefer to continue working to protect their own employment prospects (Bettio and Villa, 1998)

The capacity of the markets to accommodate women's labour force transitions in relation with childbirth and the burden of reconciliation between work and family varies substantially across European countries. Different working arrangements, more or less prompt to help the reconciliation between work and family, the way the transitions in/out the labour force and into unemployment occur, and the decision to withdraw from the labour market in relation to childbirth are also of great concern when studying the relationship between work and family. Across OECD countries whenever unemployment is low and institutions easily accommodate entries and exits of the labour market, fertility rates are higher and closer to replacement level (Adsera, 2004). Low unemployment reduces uncertainty of finding a job after birth (Adsera, 2005). Figure 8 suggests a negative relation between fertility and unemployment rates across the EU countries.

Apart from low unemployment, different types of contractual arrangements may decrease women's uncertainty when they face the decision of having a child and will, probably, exit the labour market for a while.

First, part-time job opportunities have an important impact on female employment and on the probability of having children. Southern Europe offers still very limited part-time working arrangements compared to the rest of Central and Northern Europe.

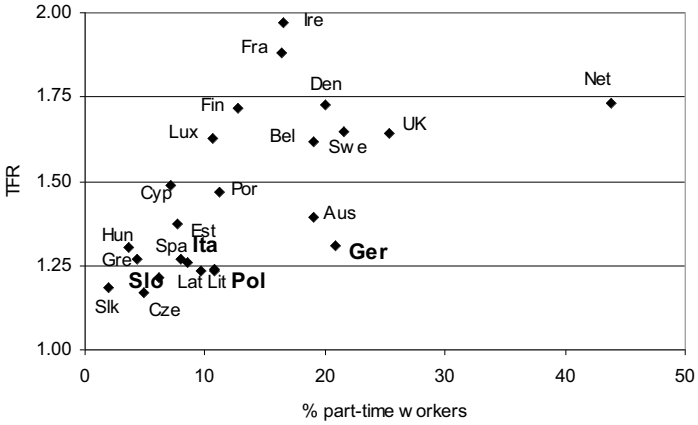
Figure 8 – Unemployment and fertility, EU, 2002 (FIGURE PAGINA 46)



Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006; Council of Europe (2005).

A similar situation seems to characterise the former socialist countries. Del Boca (2002) argues that the apparent anomaly found in Italy, where to the low labour market participation rates of married woman correspond low birth rates, is related to the Italian institutional structure, particularly regarding the rigidity of the labour market and the characteristics of the child care system. The limited availability of part-time employment and affordable child care services increases the costs of working mothers, who often cannot manage to combine family and work without the support of other relatives. Del Boca (2002a) shows that in Italy the availability of part-time opportunities and the available supply of public childcare have both a positive impact on both women's participation in the labour market and having children. Moreover, a positive effect is found also for family support, which favours both women's work and having children (Del Boca, 2002). Also in Poland part-time working arrangements are not commonly used to reconcile work and family, despite the severe conflict between these two dimensions (Matysiak, 2005a; Kotowska, 2006). It has been shown that part-time jobs in Poland concentrate among the low-skilled with lower wages, higher job insecurity and less opportunities for full-time employment (Matysiak, 2005a). Highly educated women opt for part-time jobs less frequently. Moreover, although the risk to choose part-time employment versus full-time employment is higher for mothers with small children than for others, it is more likely for women with a small child to withdraw from the labour market than to opt for a part-time solution (Matysiak, 2005a; Kotowska et al., 2005). In Poland a polarization of women between full-time employment and non-employment is observed (Matysiak and Steinmetz, 2006). This is in line with the commonly used family model labelled as "dual earner-female double burden" according to which in Poland women are engaged both in working commitments and family duties (Matysiak, 2005b). Despite different definitions of part-time work, different social benefits for part-time workers and different labour-market alternatives to part-time work used to combine work and family across European countries, Ariza et al. (2003) found evidence, carrying out a comparative analysis using ECHP data for eleven European countries, that for working women the part-time schedule affects positively fertility in some European countries, among others in Germany and in Italy. A similar direction of the effect of part-time employment on fertility is confirmed in Figure 9.

Figure 9 – % part-time workers and fertility, EU, 2002 (FIGURE PAGINA 47)



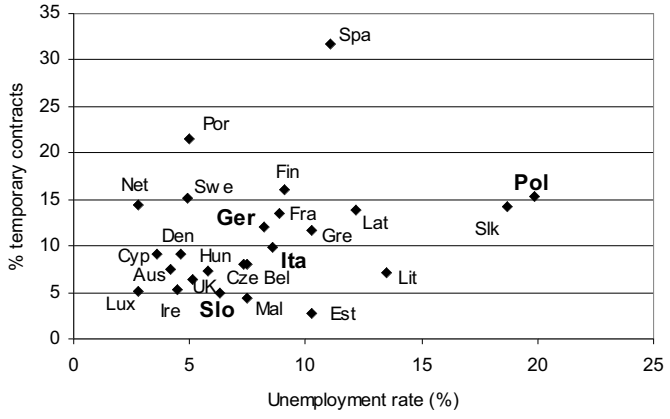
Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006; Council of Europe (2005).

However, it has to be pointed out that part-time work may have, on the other hand, negative effects on wages and career prospects for working mothers, particularly in countries where it is widespread (Del Boca and Pasqua, 2005).

Second, employment in the governmental sector constitutes in Europe a unique and valuable source of job stability. In countries, where a large share of employment is in the governmental sector, as in Northern Europe, women participate in the labour force before childbirth and easily re-enter afterwards (Gustafsson et al., 1996). In Italy and Spain ECHP data confirmed the importance of stable contracts, such as those of the public sector, for childbearing decisions, in contexts thus where unemployment rates are high (Adsera, 2005 and 2004).

Labour market instability induces women to reduce or postpone childbearing. High unemployment and a large share of fixed-term (unstable) contracts, which characterise in particular Southern Europe, act against the entry into the labour market, the exit of the labour market for childbearing and make the re-entry much more difficult. In such a situation the likelihood to enter unemployment after childbirth is higher (Adsera, 2005; Gutierrez-Doménech, 2002) and may lead to the withdrawal from the labour market. Specifically, for a group of OECD countries, it has been shown that unemployment, the share of self-employed and the fixed-term (unstable) contracts depress fertility for the 20-24 and 25-29 age groups (Adsera, 2004). On the contrary, a large percentage of public employment, through employment stability and generous benefits, rises fertility for older age groups (ibidem).

Figure 10 – Unemployment rate and temporary contracts, 2002 (FIGURE PAGINA 48)



Source: Eurostat Online Database, May 2006

Figure 10 suggests a slightly positive correlation between unemployment and temporary contracts, and thus labour market instability related to unemployment seems to be even enforced by labour market precariousness linked to increasing temporary contracts representing job insecurity.

Moreover, in regard to fertility timing Adsera (2005a) uses the ECHP data[15] to investigate how fertility timing varies, for a similar level of unemployment, as a function of country-specific institutional arrangements. The results show that part-time and permanent positions are correlated with a faster transition to motherhood, while short-term contracts are rather related to delayed childbearing. Furthermore, Adsera (2005b) finds out that, among the working women, the job stability in the public sector decreases the burden of balancing work and family and the difficulties of achieving the preferred number of children. Conversely, temporary contracts act in the opposite direction because of the intensified women's economic uncertainty (de la Rica and Iza, 2005). However, a recent work by Kreyenfeld (2005) stresses that in general job insecurity in female employment career does not impact first birth decision, while there exists an interaction effect between educational level and economic uncertainties. According to the author, the unemployment condition strongly defers fertility plans among the highly educated women, while among the lowly educated women economic uncertainty accelerate fertility decisions. According to Golsch (2002) men with permanent job are more likely to become fathers than men with precarious job.

Labour market instability has also an indirect negative effect on fertility. Maternity and parental leave regulation usually provides entitlement only to permanent workers, while part-time or temporary workers can seldom take advantage of it (Del Boca and Pasqua, 2005). The increase of the proportion of young people holding temporary and unstable jobs has led to the postponement of family formation and fertility due also to a lower coverage in terms of parental leave and benefits (de la Rica and Iza, 2003). Different studies show how fixed term contracts (and unemployment condition) affect men likelihood to get married compared with indefinite contract, while for women fixed-term contracts do not seem to be a greater deterrent for marriage (Golsch, 2002; de la Rica and Iza, 2005).

2.5 Concluding remarks

The relationship between demographic changes, namely family formation patterns and fertility trends, and the dynamics of the labour market needs certainly particular attention and further investigation both at macro and micro level. Low and late fertility is the *motto* in Western Europe and its consequences go beyond a mere period effect on demographic behaviour. In particular, such demographic changes have been taken seriously into account with regard to the process of population ageing. As regards the new EU members, especially the Eastern European countries, the still rather low age at first childbirth, though rising, leaves some space for later fertility recuperation, even though the phenomenon should not be underestimated.

Different factors have been cited as responsible for these demographic changes. From an economic perspective, the impact of labour market dynamics is particularly relevant in terms of changes in working arrangements, rising job instability and insecurity, the rise of female labour force participation, etc. Thus, in the EU context, where employment has become of major concern for greater socio-economic development and clear guidelines are given through the EES and its recent revisions for the set-up of employment policies, it is crucial to better understand the interdependence between family decisions and employment.

The current overview has shown that there is great heterogeneity across the EU regarding the intensity of demographic changes and the employment dynamics. Moreover, the negative relationship between female labour force participation and having children seems to fade out as soon as the labour market manages to accommodate family requirements and work commitments, for example, with increased part-time opportunities or flexible working hours, with the possibility to re-enter easily the labour market after childbirth and with more gender-equal policies. Temporary contracts, which in light of the EES should encourage the young and women to enter the labour market, seem not to have accomplished the target of guaranteeing also secure

employment. Fixed-short term contracts are acting in the direction of increased labour precariousness, economic instability and insecurity, together with high youth-unemployment rates. Moreover, such arrangements involve mainly the young and make more difficult the transition towards economic independency, crucial for family formation and reproductive behaviour choices.

Therefore, after six years of the Lisbon European Council (March 2000) and the recent revision of the EES, it seems of great importance to focus on the interrelationship between family formation decisions, fertility choices and intentions, and the labour market dynamics, using individual data and adopting an interdisciplinary approach.

The research project, focusing on four EU members, attempts to identify both the main socio-cultural and economic determinants of forming a family and having children for the young cohorts in order to formulate some policy recommendations, which might be useful more generally in the EU context, both as regards its old and new members.

Notes

2 It has to be pointed out that some countries report the mean age at first birth within current marriage and therefore the figures are obviously higher than those referred to the biological birth order.

3 Further information on Employment and Social Policy and the development of Community Employment Policies can be found under http://europa.eu/scadplus/leg/en/s02300.htm. More on Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities under: http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/index_en.html.

4 Lisbon European Council, March 2000, *Presidency Conclusions*, available online at: http://europa.eu.int/ISPO/docs/services/docs/2000/jan-march/doc_00_8_en.pdf

5 Stockholm European Council, March 2001, *Presidency Conclusions*, available online at: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/00100-r1.%20ann-r1.en1.html

6 Barcelona European Council, March 2002, *Presidency Conclusions*, available online at: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/71025.pdf

7 Information available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/social_policy_agenda/spa_en.pdf

8 Information available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/employment_strategy/index_en.htm

9 With regard to the Green Paper on Demographic Change launched in March 2005 by the European Commission, the European Commissioner of the DGV Vladimir ?pidla affirmed, referring to the constraints on families' choices, that politics alone cannot solve this problem: it is necessary to accompany politics with a wider and deeper socio-cultural change.

10 Such a result is relevant in terms of the effect on fertility. It has been pointed out that parttime working arrangements have a positive impact on fertility. The opposite is true for temporary jobs (Adsera, 2005a and 2005b). See also Section 4 on this topic.

11 See: OECD (1999, 2004).

12 New EU member states have also been included recently in some studies (i.e. Neyer, 2006).

13 We refer to the coverage rate as calculated in Plantenga and Siegel (2004), p. 39.

14 See also Section 3.

15 Italy but not Germany is included.

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3. Country Policies Overview

3.1 ITALY

3.1.1 Labour Market Policies

Italy used to be one of the OECD countries with highest labour market rigidity index (OECD 1994, 2000). However, during the last decade the Italian labour market legislation underwent some relevant changes. The most important measures were adopted in 1997, Law 196/97 (the so-called "Treu Package"), and in 2003, Law 30/2003 (known also as "Biagi Law"). These reforms concerned a wide range of sectors. Nevertheless, for the purpose of our work, in the next section we will focus only on the measures most directly related to the subject of our work, namely part-time employment, atypical contracts and passive policies.

a) Part-time

An important step towards the reorganization of part-time contracts - defined as those contracts characterized by lower working hours compared to the standard in each sector of activity - took place in Italy in 2000 with the aim of receiving the EU directive n. 81/1997/CE (till then the regulation went back to 1984). More recently, part-time employment was again reformed in 2003 with the approval of Law 30/2003 (known also as "Biagi Law") and the subsequent Legislative Decree 276/2003 (October 2003)[16].

The 2003 reform was originated by the poor effect of the previous legislation in stimulating part-time contracts. Indeed, despite the first strand of reform, that included economic benefit for enterprises offering part-time permanent job, the incidence of part-time employment in Italy changed slowly. It accounted for 10% of total employment in 1994 (comparing to 15% of the EU15) and increased only at 12% in 2002 (16% in EU15) (OECD, 2006).

With the aim of boosting part-time contracts, the 2003 reform provided for: facilitating the use of additional working hours in part time contracts (with a particular attention at horizontal part-time contracts); ii) stimulating the application of vertical or mixed part-time contracts; iii) extending the use of part time also in the case of fixed-term contracts, apprenticeships or temporary contracts; iv) facilitating the use of part time contract also with the agreement of single workers in lack of collective bargain.

After the reform, part-time contracts can be divided into three main categories: horizontal (when workers are employed for a few hours every working day); vertical (a few hours only in some days); and mixed (partly horizontal and partly vertical). In 2005 part-time accounted for 15% of total employment (18% in EU15).

b) Flexible labour contracts and contracts for young workers

The abovementioned reforms (the "Treu Package" in 1997 and the "Biagi Law" in 2003) introduced also more flexible labour contracts by regulating many contractual arrangements (mostly temporary). In particular, fixed-term contracts, apprenticeships, stages, provisional and temporary contracts, job on call, job shar-

ing and several types of relationships termed as "dependent self-employment" or "dependent outsourcing"[17] (ILO, 2003).

Among these contractual arrangements, the latter ("dependent self-employment" or "dependent outsourcing") deserves a specific attention. It refers to work relationships that are expected to be temporary but also to last longer than the period applied for "casual workers". These contracts are used both by the public and by the private sector and are currently defined, respectively, as "coordinated continuous collaborations" (co.co.co) or "contracts for a project" (co.pro.)[18]. People working with these contracts are formally self-employed. However, since their conditions of work are often similar to those of employees - most of them usually work only for one company and are characterized by a high dependency in term of time, place, and content of the work (Muehlberger-Pasqua, 2006; Raitano, 2006) - they are often considered as a specific category to which we referred as "atypical workers".

Given their legal status of self-employed, "atypical workers" are not entitle to receive TFR (a kind of deferred wage which is paid lump sum to employees when the job relationship ends (for firing, dismissal or retirement) nor to get unemployment benefits. Concerning the pension system, they are less protected than employees, since they pay a reduced pension contribution rate[19]. They are, also, less protected regarding the access to conciliation measures, such as parental leave.

The recent reforms applied also to the legislation aiming at stimulating young workers entrance in the labour market. More specifically, following the EU pronunciation, work/training contracts used until October 2003 for promoting young workers employment[20] have been replaced by apprenticeship contracts (L.30/2003). In addition, new integration contracts, more suited to the EU rules regarding employment incentives, have been introduced. Nevertheless, so far the application of the apprenticeship contracts has been poor mainly due to significant delays both in the provision of the related regulation (Italian Regions are also involved in regulating the subject) and in the finalization of agreements with trade unions. The ban of work/training contracts and the slow path towards the implementation of the apprenticeship contracts have been at the origin of changes in the gains for employers that, in turn, was linked to a parallel increase in the supply of more flexible contracts for young workers (Isfol, 2006).

c) Passive policies

Passive labour market policies aiming at mitigating the financial needs of the unemployed, such as unemployment insurance or income support, are very low and very fragmented in Italy. A universal transfer in favour of jobless is lacking, even though there are many specific benefits for different categories of workers (e.g. ordinary and reduced requirements unemployment benefits depending on the length of the previous job relationship; specific transfers for farmers and workers in the building sector are provided).

Briefly, these benefits can be divided into two main categories: a) Ordinary unemployment benefit for fired employees; b) CIG– Cassa Integrazione Guadagni – (Ordinary and Special Wage Supplementation Funds) and Mobility benefit provided in case of collective firing in firms with more than 15 employees[21].

Law 291/2004 regulates unemployment benefits. Currently, unemployed can receive ordinary unemployment benefit, equal to a percentage of the average gross earnings received in the last three months (from 50% to 40% according to the different characteristics of workers), for a maximum period of seven months (ten months for people over 50 years old). Concerning temporary workers, in case of unemployment, fixed-term employees receive a reduced requirement benefit, which is very low; while atypical workers (being formally self-employed) are not entitled to unemployment benefits at all.

The short incidence of passive policies in Italy is confirmed also by the data on public expenditure on labour market policies (LMP). According to the most recent data from Eurostat, in 2004, the total expenditure for LMP accounted in Italy for 1.4% of GDP, quite below the EU15 average of 2.3%, and the situation was even worse in the specific case of passive policies that accounted for 0.8% of GDP in Italy comparing with 1.5% of the EU15.

3.1.2 Family Policies

The Law 328/2000 (a "Framework law for the integrated system of social interventions and services") represents a main pillar in the Italian legislative system. It redefines the role of the institutions involved and gives greater planning and management responsibilities to regions and local bodies (Sgritta, 2003). This law is mainly aimed at encouraging social-health assistance interventions and services granting a valid support to people and families in difficulties. The main goal is to support individuals within their households.

These measures, which empower and support family in meeting their responsibilities, play a crucial role. An integrated system of social services and interventions supporting families in their daily duties is provided. The integrated social assistance services system provides for the following measures:

- *care cash benefits* and *other interventions* supporting responsible maternity and paternity, to be accompanied with other health, social and early educational services;
- *work and family reconciliation measures* promoted by local bodies provided for by current law;
- *training and information services* to sustain parenthood through the promotion of mutual solidarity among families;
- *residential services* accompanied with cash benefits to families with foster children aged under-18 and families with disabled children.

Moreover, to support individual and family duties as well as to favour financial autonomy of monoparental households, young couples with children and pregnant women in need, an honour loan[22] is provided by cities/municipalities. Municipalities can provide families with special care needs with tax credits.

Then, according to Law 285/1997 ("Promotion of rights and opportunities for childhood and teenage") and Law 451/1997 instituting both the Parliamentary Committee for Childhood and the National Observatory on Childhood as well as the National Plans on Childhood condition, a number of regions in Italy have provided innovative services for children under-18 years.

Traditional public and private nurseries have been supported by a number of experimental innovative services characterized by time flexibility, household proximity and family solidarity.

The following childcare services have been put into practice:

- *family nursery:* currently the most innovative and interesting service in Italy. Mostly managed by non profit organizations; serving children aged 0-3 years; characterized by high flexibility;
- *micro-nursery:* serving children aged 18 months – 3 years; more flexible than the nursery;
- *nursery:* serving children aged 0-3 years; services provided: refectory, napping and playing space, etc...;
- *working place nursery:* a service set up in or near parents working place; flexibility based on working mothers' needs;
- *integrated nursery:* serving children aged 12 months to 3 years; characterized by a link between a psycho-pedagogical strategy and preschool activity;
- *joint-ownership nursery:* widely supported by the reform of socio-educative services for early childhood; very flexible service;
- *baby parking service:* aimed at the care of children aged 0-3 years just for a few hours a day; set up in big commercial centres, supermarket, hospitals etc..;
- *Tagesmutter:* serving children 0-3 years providing in-home care; very flexible service based on an individual programme of child care;
- *atelier (workshop):* serving children from 15 months to 6 years and based on activities carried out in preschool centres;
- *children city:* (Law 152/99 Emilia Romagna) place where urban spaces and buildings are re-qualified to host integrated innovative services for early childhood;
- *centres for children and families/playing spaces for children and their families:* serving children up to 6 years and adults responsible for the children;

- *ludoteche (monitored playground spaces):* serving children aged up to 6 years for light play and entertainment.

3.1.3 Work and Family Reconciliation Measures

After some delays, Law 53/2000 and Legislative Decree 151/2001 (modified and integrated by the Legislative Decree 115/2003) implemented into the Italian law the Council Directive 96/34/EC of 3 June 1996 on the 'Framework agreement on parental leave'. This led to the introduction of significant changes in Italy for both regular and not regular employees.

a) Regular employees[23] *(permanent and fixed-term contracts*[24]*)*

a1. Maternity and Paternity Leaves

i) working mothers are entitled to apply for a compulsory maternity leave. During this period a cash benefit replacing 80% of wages is provided by the social security fund. Mothers can make use of the leave in a flexible way (2 months before expected childbirth + 3 months after or 1 month before and 4 months after). If the single parent is the father or he has sole custody of the child, he can apply for up to 3 months paternity leave after the childbirth. Moreover, in these cases, fathers can't be fired during the first year of the child. If the mother has been unemployed for less than 60 days from the beginning of the maternity leave, a maternity allowance is provided. But if she has been unemployed for more than 60 days from the beginning of the maternity leave: i) a maternity allowance is provided in place of the ordinary unemployment benefit; ii) a daily maternity allowance is provided, under some legal limits, if she is not entitled to apply for ordinary unemployment benefit. If the mother has been made redundant for more than 60 days from the beginning of the maternity leave (Cassa Integrazione Guadagni CIG – Ordinary and Special Wage Supplementation Funds -, Mobility benefits, etc..), a maternity allowance is provided in place of the benefits perceived.

a2. Parental Leaves

i) parents with children aged up to 8 years are entitled to apply for 6 months parental leave to use in a continuative or non continuative way: both parents can't apply for more than a total of 10 months parental leave. If fathers apply for at least 3 months, a further month is granted. So, the individual limit for fathers is increased to 7 months leave and for couples to 11 months leave;

ii) both parents, applying for 6 months parental leave until the child is 3 years old, are provided with a cash benefit replacing 30% of wages, independent of their income. For the remaining months of leave an allowance replacing 30% of wages is provided only if the individual income is lower than two and a half the minimum amount of the retirement allowance;

iii) mothers and fathers are entitled to take simultaneous parental leaves;

iv) fathers are also entitled to take parental leave when mothers are making use of maternity leave as well as of daily rest time.

a3. Sick leave (when the child is ill)

i) mothers and fathers can alternatively apply for sick leaves for each child aged up to 3 years when the child is ill. Five days leave a year are provided to both parents for illness of children aged 3-8 years;

ii) sick leaves are unpaid, but the correspondent periods are included in calculating seniority.

a4. Daily reduction of working time (daily rest time)

i) mothers and fathers are alternatively entitled to two hours a day of rest time until the child is 1 (parents working less than 6 hours a day are only entitled to 1 hour of rest time);

ii) the way to apply for daily rest time must be agreed with the employer.

a5. Daily reduction of working time and leave for parents with children with severe disabilities

i) parents with children with severe disability can apply for an extension of parental leave (job-protected leave) until the child is 3. The extended job-protected leave is paid at 30% of earnings. Alternatively, fathers or mothers are entitled to apply for daily reduction of working time until the child is 3;

ii) both parents of children with severe disability aged 3-18 years are alternatively entitled to apply for 3 paid off-work days a month. Each parent is entitled to apply for these paid off-work days, even if the other parent is making use of parental leave, of sick leave or is not entitled to apply for any benefits;

iii) when the child with severe disability is over 18 years, both parents are alternatively entitled to apply for 3 paid off-work days a month, if living with the child who is in need of continuous and exclusive care;

iv) parents of children over-18, under-18 but with severe disability certified for at least 5 years, are alternatively entitled to apply for an extra leave up to a maximum of 2 years in the whole working life. During the extra parental leave, mothers and fathers are alternatively provided with a wage allowance corresponding to the amount of the last wage they perceived.

b) Not regular employees

b1. Maternity allowance for self-employed and agricultural working mothers

i) self-employed and agricultural working mothers are entitled to apply for a daily maternity allowance 2 months before the expected childbirth and 3 months after (the allowance replaces 80% of the minimum daily wage fixed for permanent blue-collar farm workers or 80% of the minimum daily wage fixed for white-collar - office workers - commerce or skilled craftsmen workers) even if they continue to work;

ii) self-employed mothers of children born in 2000 are also entitled to apply for parental leave. Nevertheless, the allowance is granted only for 3 months until the child is

b2. Maternity allowance for professional women

i) all professional women registered in a National Insurance Fund are entitled to apply for maternity allowance 2 months before the expected childbirth and 3 months after. The allowance replaces 80% of 5/12 of the professional income declared and taxed two years prior to the childbirth. The allowance can't be lower than five-month wages or higher than five times this amount (the wage is 80% of the daily minimum wage of white-collar commerce workers);

ii) The allowance is provided even if professional mothers continue to work.

b3. Maternity allowance for mothers with co.co.co/co.pro contracts

i) Mothers with co.pro. contracts are not obliged to apply for maternity leave. Nevertheless, they can choose to stop working up to a maximum of 180 days. Working mothers registered in the Special Social Insurance Fund (titled "Gestione Separata INPS") are provided an allowance replacing 80% of the professional income for 5 months.

ii) During this period contracts are deferred and prolonged for the correspondent amount of days mothers are on leave.

b4. National cash maternity benefit for mothers with intermittent jobs

i) A cash maternity benefit of 1,747.82 euro (in 2005) is provided for mothers who:

- at the time of childbirth are entitled to apply for any kind of maternity protection measure and have paid at least 3 months contributions from 9 to 18 months prior to the childbirth;
- have lost the right to any kind of maternity protection measure no more than 9 months prior to the childbirth;
- have been fired or have left their job during the pregnancy, but have paid at least 3 months contributions from 9 to 18 months prior to the childbirth;

ii) Mothers who are not entitled to apply for any kind of maternity allowance are provided with the above-mentioned cash maternity benefit. Mothers, who receive an allowance lower than the amount provided for the cash maternity benefit, are entitled to apply for the difference.

b5. City/Municipal[25] *cash maternity benefit for unemployed mothers (housewives, EU and non-EU immigrants with legal residence permit (carta di soggiorno)*[26]*, students and unemployed up to 9 months)*

i) EU and non-EU immigrants mothers with legal residence permit (titled *carta di soggiorno*), not protected by maternity measures, are provided a city/municipal cash maternity benefit;

ii) Unemployed mothers receiving maternity allowances lower than the amount of the city/municipal cash benefit, can apply for the difference;

iii) Cash benefit amount is based on the household income and re-evaluated annually. In 2005 the maximum amount was 283.92 euro for 5 months. It is not included in taxable income. In the case of twin birth, the cash benefit is doubled.

Moreover, art.27 of Law 53/2000 institutes the Time Banks[27] to encourage proximity services; to simplify the use of city services and to foster a relationship with public administration; to increase solidarity among local communities and to enhance solidarity activities promoted by individuals, groups of citizens, associations, organizations that decide to share time and skills for mutual advantages. By the end of 2004, 240 Time Banks were operating in Italy. Most of them in Northern and Central Italy. Generally, they are medium-big associations whose members are women aged on average 40-49 years [Galeotti, 2005]. Time Banks represent a social capital for both individual members, their families and community.

In addition, recent legislation provides for funding for organizational flexibility projects for companies (e.g. regarding the testing of part-time contracts, flexible working hours, training during maternity leave or upon return to work, telework, replacement figures) with the aim of stimulating the design of new working hour reconciliation models related to maternity and paternity leaves. Furthermore, monitoring of the implementation of Legislative Decree 151/01 regarding the application of parental leave legislation has been set up.

3.1.4 Gender Equality Measures

Last 15 June 2006[28] the "Equal Opportunity Code" based on art. 6 of the Law 246 (28 November 2005) was adopted. The *Code* aims to reorganize rules which tackle gender discrimination as well as ensuring equality in working places, in businesses and political representation.

The *Code* encourages equal opportunities between men and women in socio-economical as well as in civil and political relationships; it reorganizes rules oriented to tackle gender discrimination. It specifically identifies preventive and removing measures to inhibit gender, racial, religious, disability, age and sexual behaviour based discrimination, in order to enforce equal opportunity goals stated by the European Union and by the art.117 of the Italian Constitution.

The *Code* prohibits every kind of discrimination concerning one of the following contexts:

- *access to work:* any gender based discrimination in access to regular or not regular work in any business sector is forbidden (art.27);
- *earnings:* women are entitled to equal wages in comparison with men if the same duties are required (art.28);
- *working duties and careers opportunities:* any discrimination between men and women concerning qualifications, duties and career growth is forbidden (art.29);
- *access to insurance benefits:* working women who are entitled to apply for retirement age pension (*pensione di vecchiaia*), can choose to continue working until they reach the same age required by men. The choice must be communicated to the employer 3 months before reaching the age required to apply for retirement age pension. Survivors' benefits are extended to the husband of an insured or retired

woman, under the same conditions as a wife of an insured or retired man (art.30);
- *access to public employment:* women can access any public office or profession, in various roles, careers or sectors, without limits of duties and career promotion, except for those provided for by law (art.31);
- *hiring in Armed Force and in Special Bodies:* Armed Force and Excise Office can hire both men and women to perform their duties (art.32, 33, 34);
- *prohibition of marriage based firing:* any clause, included in both individual and collective employment contracts, which allows for the firing of women who marry, is null and void (art.35).

Moreover, the *Code* grants:
- the institution of an *Equal Opportunity Commission within the Equal Opportunity Department* (art.3);
- the settlement of a *National Committee supporting positive actions to grant equal opportunities between working men and women* (art.8);
- the institution of an *Examination College* aimed at identifying and removing actions concerning gender discriminations;
- the activation of a *Women Entrepreneurship Committee* with the responsibility of setting guidelines and creating programmes based on interventions established by Book III, Title II of Law 246/05. Moreover, it encourages studies, research and dissemination of material and information on women entrepreneurship (art.21).

3.1.5 Future developments

The following measures have been included in the Financial Law approved last December 2006 in Italy to support families, couples with children and unstable working people:
- an increase in the Family Policies Fund 1) to finance positive actions undertaken by small and medium business to sustain the conciliation of work and family life as well as to enhance the dissemination of best practices adopted by local institutions and companies; 2) to adopt programmes aimed at sustaining family savings on electric energy, gas and water for households with three or more children;
- the definition of a Plan to organize a new network of services for early childhood education and care: an integrated system of local micro-nursery and nursery services as well as child care services inside or nearby the working place to provide all children with equal opportunities in early childhood development;
- the introduction of paid time off for health reasons and parental leaves for not regular employee/atypical workers; a leave time up to three months until the child is 1 with a 30% of earning for fixed-term contract working mothers;
- the creation of a Fund to promote the use of permanent contracts and to discourage the abuse of co.co.co/co.pro contracts;
- higher tax benefits in Southern Italy in order to encourage the hiring of women in the labour market with permanent contracts;
- tax benefits up to 210 euros a year to balance the cost of the entry-fee for sport and leisure time activities of children aged 5-18.

3.2 GERMANY

3.2.1. Labour market policies

a) Part-time regulations

With the **New Part-time and limited contracts law** (BGB 1. I S. 1966) of 2001 employees are entitled to work in part-time if they have worked at least for 6 months in the company and the company has at least 16 employees. Part time has to be applied for at least 3 months in advance and can be denied by the employer because of operational reasons. Moreover there are specially defined part-time models like parental part-time and partial retirement. Parental part-time applies during parental leave, where it is allowed to work up 30 hours a week additionally to the leave. Partial retirement can be applied for from age 55. It can be horizontal or vertical: The working time can be reduced to half until the moment of retirement or full-time work is continued with less earnings and the option for earlier retirement.

b) Temporary and Special working contracts

The **Law for the promote employment** (BGB1. I S. 710) from 1985 for the first time allowed temporary contracts without a special operational justification. These contracts could last up to 18 months with the exception of newly opened firms where a maximum length of 24 months was set. In a reform in 1996 the maximum length of all temporary contracts was raised to 24 months. The New Part-time and limited contracts law limited temporary contracts without operational justification to first-time contracts with the specific employer. The maximum length of the contract remained by 24 months with the specification of shorter contracts to be prolonged up to 3 times and/ or up to an overall length of all contracts of 24 months. For employees over age 58 the exemption of these restrictions for temporary contracts without operational justification not having to be fulfilled comes into place in order to promote the employment of the elderly.

In the course of the **Hartz-Reforms** – a set of four waves of reforms to the employment policy based on the report of the Commission on "Modern services at the employment market" of August 2002 new models of working contracts were introduced with the Hartz II-Reform. These included a model of state supported self-employment out of unemployment (Ich-AG; in force from January 2003 to June 2006) and two models of marginal or short-term employment, that are characterised by simplified tax regulations (Mini-Job and Midi-Job; come into force in April 2003). The Mini-Job model applies for employment with earnings up to 400 € a month or for not more than 2 months in a year. The Midi-Job model allows for earnings of 400,01 to 800 € per month.

c) Passive policies

The unemployment benefits were reformed in January 2005 by the Hartz IV-Reform. Previous to this reform these benefits were distinguished in Arbeitslosengeld for the first 12 up to 18 months of unemployment with the duration of Arbeitslosengeld paid depending on age and years worked up to the unemployment period and Arbeitslosenhilfe which was at a lower rate than the Arbeitslosengeld and paid after the former ran out.

The Hartz IV-Reform fused unemployment benefit and welfare aid. The new benefit system consists of Arbeitslosengeld I that compares to the former Arbeitslosengeld and Arbeitslosengeld II or Hartz IV that is a combination of the former Arbeitslosenhilfe and welfare aid. To benefit from Arbeitlosengeld I one year of accumulated employment within the last two years has to be given. Childless recipients get 60% and parents get 67%of their former earnings. Arbeitslosengeld is paid for 6 to 32 months depending on age and duration of employment in the last 7 years before unemployment (from 01.02.2006: 6 up to 12 months, for those aged

over 55 18 months). The Arbeitslosengeld II amounts to 345 € for an individual, 311 € for a partner and for children up to age 14 207 €. After the 14th birthday and for young adults up to age 25 living in the parents' household the benefit is 276 €.

3.2.2 Family and work-family policies

a) Parental leave regulation

German family policies are foremost in support of the traditional family and the male breadwinner model which shows in little developed childcare systems and tax benefits for married couples rather than for families. However there are some signs that family policy is moving away from the breadwinner model more into the direction of individual based benefits and a support of male involvement into child care showing in the reform of parental leave time and benefit regulations come into force in January 2007 with the Elterngeld (BEEG). The reform also has the purpose to encourage well-educated high-paid women to have a child via aligning the benefit to the previous income.

Up to this reform maternity leave amounted to 14 weeks with 100% wage compensation and no paternity leave. Parental leave could be taken for up to 3 years, the long duration hampering the re-entry into employment and therefore being blamed in part along with the lack of child care services for the low employment rate of mothers in Germany. The benefits during the parental leave consisted of a means tested flat-rate for the first 2 years with the maximum age of the child being 3 or 1 year paid until the child is 8 if the leave had not entirely been taken. Leave could be taken in part-time and also by the father.

With the new Elterngeld 67% of the previous net income is paid with a set maximum of 1800 € and a minimum of 300 €. The minimum is paid also if the recipient had not worked previously. If the net income was less than 1000 € per month the percentage can be raised from 67% up to 100% (for each two € below 1000 € the rate rises by 0,1%). If both parents work more than 30 hours per week after the birth of the child they are not entitled to benefits. On the other hand there is no income limit during parental leave if the working time regulations are met. A bonus of 10% is paid for every additional child up to age three of the sibling. The leave has a duration of up to 12 months with two additional months being granted if the partner who was employed before the birth of the child (in most cases the father) takes two months leave and reduces his work time to max 30 hours a week. Lone parents are entitled to 14 months leave.

For each child under age 12 a working parent may take up to 10 days care leave, with a maximum of 25 days per child and year for both parents.

b) Child Benefits, Allowances and Tax regulations

The regular child benefit can be claimed for children under age 18 or under age 21 if they are unemployed and under age 27 if they are in educational training (this is going to be reduced to 25 for born after 1982 in 2007). If the child is disabled there is no age limit set. In 2006 the benefits amounted to up to the third child 154 € per month and from the fourth child on 179 € a month. Some communes provide parents of newborns with a one-time "Welcome Money" of differing amount intended for purchases related to their child.

From January 2005 up to 140 € of allowance for children are granted to parents if their own income is proven to be sufficient for their needs but not for those of their children. An allowance for single parents taking care of a child (single mother's or father's allowance) or divorcees (post marital allowance) of up to 7680 € per year has to be paid by the other parent respectively by the ex-partner with the higher income with the recipient's income being credited if it is over 624 € a month. If the single mother's or father's allowance is substituted for by the state if the other parent can or does not pay. This child support advance for lone parents is granted for up to 72 months up to age 12 of the child with an amount covering maximum 170 € a month.

The amount varies according to the age of the child and the region (West or East Germany).

Moreover taxes are reduced for parents depending on the number of children in the family. This reduction is usually covered by child allowance, otherwise it is taken into account for the income tax. From January 2006 childcare costs brought up by working parents can be set off against tax liabilities. Lone parents and double earners can set off up to two third of child care costs for children up to 14 (max 4000 € per year and child) and single earner families can set off child care costs from age 3 to age 6 of the child.

The spouse tax splitting is a tax model favouring marriage rather than parenthood and strongly supporting the male breadwinner model. The yearly income of married couples - regardless if they have children or not – in Germany is taxed in summing both incomes, dividing the amount by two and treating these new amounts as two separated incomes which is most favourable if the difference between the two incomes is high and supporting a family model with one partner being inactive or in marginal or part-time employment.

In February 2007 the Federal Minister for Family Affairs addressed the instalment of a family instead of spouse tax splitting and the needed expansion of child care for the under three year olds – much to the protest of her fellow conservative party members who see her as supportive of a new double earner family model in line with her recent most prominent reform of child leave (Elterngeld reform).

3.2.3 Gender equality measures

The establishment of equal opportunities for men and women were set as an overall principle of the government 23.6.1999. The equality of genders should be boosted by all political, norm giving and administrative measures of the government. This strategy is also referred to as **Gender Mainstreaming**. Gender mainstreaming means to ‘consider for all societal projects the different life arrangements and interests of men and women because there is no gender neutral reality’.

The **Anti-Discrimination law** (AGG; 16/1780 and 16/2022), come into force in August 2006, is aiming to avert or abolish all disadvantages based on gender, age, ethnicity, religion, philosophy, handicap or sexual identity especially in relation to the access to and assortment for employment, payment and conditions of dismissal, social security and health services, social benefits and education.

3.3 POLAND

3.3.1 Labour market policies

a) Employment policies

Regulations regarding the labour market are formulated by the Labour Code of 26 June 1974 with many subsequent amendments (Dz.U.98.21.94[31]) and the Act on Employment Promotion and Labour Market Institutions of 2 April 2004 (Dz.U.04.99.1001).[32]

The first labour market regulations were introduced in December 1989 (28 December 1989), the year of beginning economic and political reforms in Poland. Almost since the beginning it was subjected to many amendments and replaced by the Act on Employment and Counteracting Unemployment of 14 December 1994 revised in subsequent years as well, especially in the years 1999-2000 (uniform text Dz.U.03.58.514 with further amendments)[33]. The bill on Employment Promotion and Labour Market Institutions of 2004 focuses on active labour market measures and includes the regulations, which have been introduced for the first time after 1990: the definition of the labour market institutions and their services, a clear distinction between basic labour market services and other labour market instruments, supporting for the local and regional labour markets, strengthening the social dialogue and partnership on the labour market. The law defines standard of public employment services and related requirements for the service staff.

Also the Labour Code was under several revisions since the beginning of the reforms. The recent most important amendments came from the years 2001-2004. They resulted mostly from needs to harmonize the law in Poland with the EU requirements and to diminish rigidities in the labour market. Amendments to the Labour Code of 2002 introduced solutions supporting more flexibility in work organization and reducing employer's costs related to sickness and paid job-breaks. Especially, a possibility to replace a full-time job by a part-time job by an employee during the period of an entitlement to a parental leave, use of 'replacement' contracts to replace an employee on a temporary leave, more flexibility in working time schedules and fixed-term contracts, and extended possibilities to use teleworking and job sharing patterns increased options for different work schemes and job contracts. Also some simplifications in formal procedures related to group dismissals, leaves and job security protections improved functioning of SME's.

Amendments to the Labour Code of 2004, which concerned among others working time patterns, extended remarkably possibilities to adapt working time to needs of both employers and employees. They can use task-related work schedules, reduced weekly working time and more flexible work schedules on Sundays etc. Altogether, these changes along with the Act on Specific Rules to Terminate Job Contracts due to Reasons Unrelated to Employees of March 2003 (Dz.U.03.90.844), which regulated group dismissals, contributed to more flexibility in the labour market. Job contracts and working time are supposed to be decided by negotiations between employers and employees. On the contrary, the Act on Temporary Jobs of 9 July 2003 (Dz.U.03.166.1608), being in force since January 2004, increased control over temporary contracts to counteract dualisation processes. Limitations to use of temporary contracts and their duration reduced their incidence[34].

As a result of undergoing regulation changes, work organization is evaluated in institutional terms as a relatively flexible among OECD countries. Also, the EPL (Employment Protection Legislation) indicator situates Poland in the middle position of the OECD countries between the most deregulated labour markets in the USA and the UK and the most rigid labour markets in Portugal and Turkey (Bukowski et al., 2005). The LFS data show that the share of employed on fixed-term contracts increased remarkably and reached 25% in 2005 (the second rank after Spain among the EU members). The incidence of fixed-term and temporary contracts

places Poland among countries with the relatively high use of these types of contracts. However, different employment contracts in use are predominantly decided by employers. When referring to effective use of regulations on work organization and decisions setting almost 80% of work contracts are set by the employer without any possibility to change (Working time and work-life balance: policy dilemma?, 2006)

On the contrary, part-time employment is on a limited scale and concerns more women than men (13% versus 8 % in 2004 (LFS data). The analyses by Matysiak (2005a) and Matysiak, Steinmetz (2006) showed very low interest in part-time employment. Nearly one third of part-timers were involuntarily part-time employed and less than 10% chose part-time work for family reasons. Those, who did it voluntarily (about 30%), were mainly the persons in the pre-retirement age. Women with the higher education opt for part-time jobs less frequently. Also those with the lowest education do not perceive part-time work as a measure to combine work and family probably due to low pay (World Bank, 2004).

The Labour Code (Chapter VIII) grants also women's job protection[35]. It refers to:
- employment stability[36] – contracts cannot be terminated during pregnancy, maternity and parental leaves,
- life and health protection[37] – against work environment hazards during pregnancy and breastfeeding as well as caring for children,
- flexible employment patterns.

There is no legal right to flexible working hours for parents, but it is possible to agree that with the employer. The employee is also entitled to two days off work a year with intact remuneration when a child is under 14 years old. If a child is under 4 parent has a right to refuse working overtime, at nights, more than 8 hours a day or outside the permanent place of residence.

b) Passive and active labour market policies

Under restructuring of the Polish economy in the 1990s large-scale unemployment has been a factor throughout this period, decreasing only between 1994 and 1997. And despite the fact that quite liberal regulations on entitlements to unemployment benefits changed gradually towards more rigid requirements[38] large-scale unemployment under budgetary restrictions made that measure used predominantly in labour market policies. Unemployment benefits and pre-pension allowances and benefits were the main component of Labour Fund expenditures, increasing over time.[39] The share of expenditures on active measures (training and retraining of unemployed persons, loans for unemployed individuals who wish to set up business, subsidized employment programs, and public works) was very low not only according to the EU 15 standards but also as compared to other post-socialistic countries from the Central Europe and declined during the period 1998–2002. The total expenditures on labour market polices (LMP) accounted for nearly 1.1% of GDP in 2002 and the expenditures on active labour market polices (ALMP) constituted 0.13 % of GDP (these indicators were in Nordic countries 2.71% and 1.17%, respectively) (Bukowski et al., 2005). It is supposed that limitations of active policies in the years of the second wave of unemployment increase might reduce declines in unemployment observed since 2003, especially among persons with low opportunities to find a job.

In 2003 financial resources spent on active measures increased. They concerned mostly activities related to young persons[40]. The special program named 'The first job' was established in 2002 to promote employment and self-employment among first labour market entrants.

Next years brought further increases of spendings on ALMP mainly due to a necessity to follow the EC recommendations and financial resources available under the EU funds. The Employment Taskforce recommendations for Poland are directed at: increasing adaptability of workers and enterprises, attracting people to

the labour market, making work a real option for all and investing more and more effectively, in human capital and lifelong learning (National Strategy of Employment Growth…., 2000; National Reform Program…, 2005).

In parallel, expenditures on unemployment declined mostly due to entitlement changes introduced by the Act on Employment Promotion and Labour Market Institutions of 2004. Unemployment benefit is granted to an unemployed with at least 12 months work record during the recent 18 months before registration in the labour office. The basic amount of 504,20 PLN (circa 128 euro at the exchange rate of 3.94 PLN for 1 euro) does not depend on the previous wage level. It is adjusted to work record: for people with more than 20 years work experience the amount is higher by 20% while for people with less than 5 years work record lower by 20% than the basic amount. The basic amount is related to the minimum wage by the net replacement rate at 73 percent. It is indexed annually by a price index.

Unemployment benefit is paid during 6 months. Upon some conditions payment might be prolonged:
- if the regional unemployment rate is higher than the national average the period of payment is prolonged either to 12 or 18 months,
- persons aged 50 years and more receive the benefit during 12 months,
- the period of payment is prolonged to 18 months for one of unemployed parents with at least one child up to 15 years.

As a result of more tight regulations the number of unemployed entitled to benefits was on a decline. Persons receiving benefits account for around 14% of the total registered unemployment in 2006.

Recent developments changes in both employment and unemployment policies allow to summarise their main changes in the Poland:
- gradually increasing flexibility due to diversity of work patterns and contracts,
- more emphasis is given on active labour market policies at regional and local level, which are supported by implementation of sectoral and regional operational programs,
- curbing the institutional barriers for the creation of employment opportunities through increased accessibility to the labour market services, support for adaptability of enterprises (especially those of small and medium-sized enterprises),
- gradual improvement in the labour market services,
- more attention paid to occupational activation of persons disadvantaged in the labour market,
- clear recognition of long-life learning as an instrument to increase adaptability of labour force, particularly by means of training as well as vocational and general development.

3.3.2 Family policies

Legal provisions for family policy are defined by the Law on Family Benefits (26 November 2003, being in force since May 2004; Dz.U.03.228.2255) and its subsequent amendments and by relevant chapters of Labour Code (regulations related to women's labour market protection, including female employee maternity and health protection and prerogatives to reconcile work and family obligations for both males and females).

a) Financial support

Since the beginning of the 1990s the state reduced its support to the families both in terms of income and provision of services. Changes in family related benefits resulted - on one hand - from a pressure to cut overall social spendings, and - on the other hand - from a necessity to implement anti-poverty measures. The major

changes in the family benefits implemented until 2003 could be characterised as follows:

- some benefits linked previously to employment were transferred to the state budget or the local governments,
- new type of social assistance was introduced to address rising poverty,
- support for multi-children families was expanded,
- universal benefits were converted into income testing,
- wage indexing was replaced by price indexing,
- more restrictive eligibility conditions were introduced.

The Law on Family Benefits of 2003, being in force since May 2004, supports low income families with children. Amendments to that law, implemented in late 2004, 2005 and 2006 did not change the main concept of family support: a basic family allowance is supplemented by financial additions, granted under special circumstances related to child care and rearing. Amendments made in 2005 remarkably reduced the access to financial supplements for lone parents (mothers)[41] and introduced additional financial support for families with three and more children. Recent changes increase financial support to the family: allowances and some supplements will increase as off 1 September 2006.

The basic family allowance is dependent on an income criterion.[42] The basic allowance is also dependent on the number of children (the monthly amount equals 43 PLN for the first and the second child, 53 PLN for the third child and 66 PLN for the fourth and subsequent children). Both the income limit and the amount of the allowance are verified every three years.[43]

The family allowance is paid for children up to 18 years of age. It might be extended to age of 21 years upon a condition of continuing education. For disabled children who stay in education receive the family allowance until 24 years of age.

The basic family allowance is supplemented by financial additions, granted under special circumstances related to the care and child-rearing (the financial supplements concern: lone mothers, lone mothers who lost their entitlement to unemployment benefit, persons on the parental leave, parents of disabled children) and nursing allowances. There are also educational supplements: for children attending schools outside the place of residence and lump sums paid once a year at the beginning of the school year for children from the low income families. Since most of them are income-tested they mostly support the low income families.

In April 2005 a new supplement to the basic family allowance was introduced to support families with three and more children. Families entitled to the family allowance will receive the additional amount of 50 PLN for the third and subsequent child.

Low income families receive the **birth grant** of 500 PLN (128 euro) which is granted for those families which are entitled to the basic family allowance. Since January 2006 its amount was doubled. Moreover, since January 2006 the new grant for a newborn baby (1000 PLN i.e. about 256 euro) was introduced, irrespective of the family income.[44]

Another dimension of the 2003 family assistance reform relates to institutions involved in the payment procedure. The aim is that as off September 2006 the family benefit system will function at the local level i.e. family allowances and related additions will be paid by local governments from resources granted by the state. In the transitory period i.e. between May 2004 and August 2006 various institutions were involved in providing different types of benefits (employers, social insurance agencies, local governments, etc.). This important organisational change and its many amendments to the basic 2003 law make the system difficult to manage and monitor.

3.3.3 Measures for reconciliation of work and family

Entitlements to different types of leaves and their use are defined by the Labour Code.

The maternity leave. It is granted to a female employee in the case of actual childbirth as well as adoption or providing foster care. Since the 1970s the length of maternity leave for the employees was 16 weeks upon the first birth, 18 weeks upon the each successive birth, and 26 weeks in the case of multiple birth. There were some attempts to extend the maternity leave under the term of the right-wing government (1997-2001): in 1999 to 20 weeks upon the first and each successive birth and 30 in the case of multiple birth, and in 2001 to 26 and 39 weeks respectively. In 2002 the leave was shortened to the previous duration i.e. existing till 1999: 16 weeks upon the first birth, 18 weeks upon each successive birth and 26 weeks in the case of the multiple birth.[45]

Since August 2001 fathers are entitled to take a paternity leave - the mother is obliged to take at least 14 weeks of the leave (possibly 2 weeks before a delivery) and the remaining part can be taken by the father.

As it has been mentioned, there are legal guarantees on a stability of employment relations, returns to work at an equivalent position and an inclusion of a leave period to a total work record (pension rights).

During this period a maternity (paternity) allowance is paid at the level of 100 percent of the average earnings for the three–month period preceding the maternity leave[46]. For individual farmers daily maternity benefit equals to the 1/30 of the minimum old age benefit from the agricultural social security system, it is granted as a lump sum for the period of eight weeks.

The parental leave. Employees with the work record at least 6 months are entitled to that leave which may be taken for 36 months in four pieces at most for a child up to the age of four. This may be extended for another 36 months if an employee is raising a child who is disabled, chronically ill, or mentally retarded and requires care, but for no more than until the age of 18 at the latest.

The leave is in total (36 months as a standard duration) assigned to parents (or people who take care for a child) and either a mother or a father may take the leave (the time of being jointly on the leave by parents cannot exceed three months). Since June 1996 fathers became entitled to the parental leave and allowance.

There are gender equal guarantees on stability of employment relations, return to work to an equivalent position and inclusion of the leave period to the total work record (pension rights). Additionally, there is a possibility to combine work, training, education and the parental leave if these activities allow to take care for the child (children).

The parental allowance is means-tested – the monthly household income per capita cannot exceed 504 PLN (583 PLN i.e. 148 euro in the case of the disable child). It is paid basically during 24 months. That period can be extended either to 36 months under a condition to care for more than one child or to 72 months when caring for a disabled child. Previously, it was possible to work and receive the parental allowance when the total income of the parent on leave did not exceed 60% of the monthly average remuneration in the national economy. Since 2004 persons who start a job under the parental leave lose their parental allowance irrespectively of the income criterion.

The parental leave scheme in Poland has been subjected to some criticism for its inflexibility (Matysiak, 2005b), recently moderated by a possibility to replace the parental leave by part-time employment. However, its use for a relatively small scale is mainly related to a drop in the family income since the income criterion for the parental allowance is rather tight[47]. One can also argue that a rigid regulation about the parental allowance may affect the leave use by fathers – since father's income is usually higher than mother's one the family welfare is much more deteriorated.

Childcare leave. The employee can take the leave to take care of a sick child aged up to 14 years or a healthy child up to 8 years in the case of:

- an unforeseen closure of a nursery school, kindergarten, or school attended by the child or the illness, childbirth, or
- the spouse caring permanently for the child is ill, in childbirth or stays in an in–patient healthcare institution.

Since February 1995 fathers can use that scheme.

During the childcare leave the employee is entitled to an allowance at the level of 80 percent of the remuneration, paid no longer than 60 days per year irrespective of the number of children.

Care leave. The employee can take time off to provide personal care for the family member. The allowance, which equals 80 percent of the remuneration, is paid for the period of 14 days.

a) Institutional child-care

Since 1970s attending the kindergartens by the children aged 6 years was obligatory. The childcare system was relatively well developed. After 1989 both the state and firms reduced provision of these services. The state delegated responsibility for running the childcare institutions to the local authorities while employers closed down their childcare centres. Under new arrangements, the childcare institutions could be public or non-public: nurseries (for children up to 3 years) and kindergartens (for children aged 3-6). Non-public kindergartens accounted only for 5% of children under institutional childcare.

The non-public institutions were eligible to receive payments from the local government up to 50% of the per child costs of public institutions. However, local governments very soon began to have problems with maintaining the public institutions and supporting non-public ones. It resulted from a decrease in public expenditures on childcare services and rising operating costs of these institutions. Moreover, local authorities moved some costs of running the public childcare institutions on parents (increased fee for meals, charges for services beyond the minimum educational program, contributions to parent's committee funds). Any additional educational and recreations services (foreign language, music lessons, swimming pool, sports activities, etc.) are paid additionally. For low-skilled mothers the cost of childcare can be an obstacle to start a job. Moreover, admission to the services is practically often conditioned upon employment of both parents.

The decline in the number of kindergartens and nurseries resulted in a deep underdevelopment of child care in Poland: only 2% of children aged 0-2 attend crèches, and 39% of children aged 3 up to the compulsory school age attend nursery schools. These figures belong to the lowest compared to other EU Member States (Matysiak, 2005). In addition, no childcare subsidies are offered to families. The basic payment for one child ranges from about 200 PLN (around 51 euro) in public facilities to 700 PLN (178 euro) in private ones. The estimated cost of childcare to a minimum income earner ranges from 23% to 82% and for a person with an average monthly income from 8.5% to 30%. Childcare is therefore less affordable to single and/or minimum income families and/or for families with more than one child requiring childcare (Plantenga and Remery, 2005). Moreover, there are huge regional discrepancies in provisions of childcare facilities.[48]

Taxes. There are no direct family related tax solutions, however several solutions could be considered as indirectly family friendly: the potential for joint returns by the spouses, the potential for a single parent to use rules as of married couple, tax relief in respect to various benefits and financial assistance.

3.3.4 Gender equality measures

In general, the legal system in Poland provides equal treatment for women and men as citizens and parents in access to work, professional training, and working conditions. Amendments to the Labour Code of

2001 resulted in the separate chapter on equal treatment of women and men and some modification of previous rules. They mostly concern: a precise definition of direct and indirect discrimination in the labour market, procedures to punish for discriminatory practices, clear statements about an equal treatment in access to work, pay, work contract dissolution, promotion, remuneration, professional training. In 2003, due to efforts of the Government Office of the Plenipotentiary for the Equal Status of Women and Men, new rules to the Labour Code were introduced with respect to mobbing and employer's responsibility for anti-discrimination activity in work environment[49].

But despite the rising social acceptance for the dual breadwinner model that with double burden of females still prevails and reconciling work and family remains almost exclusively women's issue (Matysiak, 2005b). Therefore, policies aimed at increasing recognition on gender issues perceived not only in terms of identifying inequalities but also in revealing their roots and getting more approval for the equality principle are of a high relevance along with activities focusing on strengthening existing law regulations to make them more efficient.

3.4 SLOVENIA

3.4.1 Labour market policies

The main goals of labour market and employment policy as set by the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs are the following:

- reducing structural distortions, meaning a reduction of the proportion of long-term unemployed people and the proportion of unemployed people with no vocational education;
- inclusion in active programmes of all young unemployed people who have failed to find new employment within 6 months, and of all others who have failed to find employment within 12 months;
- reduction of regional differences in the labour market;
- employment growth averaging in the period up to 2006 more than 1% annually through faster economic growth, which will enable reduction of the unemployment rate to around 5% under the international methodology, or to 8% registered rate of unemployment by the end of 2006;
- further development of the social partnership.

Passive labour market policy, as defined by the **Employment and Insurance Against Unemployment Act** (O.G. No. 5/91, 12/92, 71/93, 38/94, 69/98, 67/02) regulates the unemployment schemes. It is necessary for all employees to be insured, and the unemployment insurance is the basis for unemployment rights, such as unemployment benefits; unemployment assistance; mobility allowance; for inclusion in the unemployment programmes re-employment and retraining programme, as well as the basis for the right to health, pension and disability insurance (in the period of entitlement to unemployment benefits). The right to unemployment benefits depends on the duration of the previous employment as well as the registration at the Employment Offices.

With regard to the *active labour market policy*, new programmes for promoting employment were introduced at the beginning of 90s, such as co-financing new jobs, promotion of entrepreneurship etc. An important role in this regard is played by **Employment Service of Slovenia** (Employment offices are part of it), that is an independent legal entity with public institute status, it is the central implementation institution of the employment policy. Its tasks are to increase employment, to enable individual's successful vocational development, to ensure social security to those entitled to it, as well as to ensure equal service quality in Slovenia. In the last years, various measures have been taken in order to increase employment, such as various education and training programmes including assistance in career planning, job seeking, as well as functional training to acquire formally recognised certificate of education; self-employment promotion programmes, public work programmes, refunding of contribution to employer (also for 1sr job seekers unemployed longer than 6 months), subsidising jobs in non-profit sector etc.

One of the important documents in this field is *Programme laying down active employment policy measures in the Republic of Slovenia for 2007-2013*[50]. (previously set for each year) The program is defined by *Employment and Insurance Against Unemployment Act* (O.G. No. 5/91, 12/92, 71/93, 38/94, 69/98, 67/02). According to the document, in this period, the following set of measures will be focused on: counselling and help in searching for employment, education, enhancing employment and self – employment of unemployed, and programs to enhance social inclusion. Within this document, similarly as in previous special focus is set on young people, especially those searching for the 1st employment are one of the important target groups. Measures on the promotion of youth employment concentrate on improving employment opportunities for university graduates and preventive measures to reduce the dropout rate from schools. Through *Employment Service*, for example public works are one of the programmes intended to promote the development of new jobs and the development or preservation of the work skills of unemployed persons. Young people are offered help at the 1st employment, as well as self-employment and continuing the education.

3.4.2 Family policies and reconciliation, work-family policies

Family policy in Slovenia is, similarly as in other European countries, very child-centred. The attention is put on all dimensions of well being of children. The main function of the family is thus care for children, their development and well-being. The state provides support (financial and in the form of services) for family to perform this function.

The basic document that defines family policy on general in Slovenia is the *Resolution on the Principles of Formulation of Family Policy*, accepted in 1993, which pronounces plurality of family forms, recognises diversity of family subjects and of family policy and states the awareness that family policy cannot be based on fixed family model. Although, as some researchers note (?vab, 2003), it is in need of radical conceptual reconsideration, since its leading values and the working definition of family are not really oriented towards the declared plurality of family forms.

The family policy is characterised primarily by *Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act* (O.G. No. 97/2001,76/2003, 56/2005) that defines parental protection insurance and the rights deriving from it, such as *parental leave.* During the transition period rather generous parental leaves have not been changed, on the contrary, it has been especially stimulated the cooperation of both parents in the care of children. The law differentiates between 4 different leaves: maternity leave, paternal leave, adoption leave, and childcare leave. *Maternity leave* lasts 105 calendar days, of which 28 days before the confinement. *Childcare Leave* lasts 260 calendar days and prolongation is possible in case of multiple birth (additional 90 days for each additional child), premature birth (prolonged for as many days as pregnancy was shorter than 280 days), birth of a child suffering from physical or mental impairment (additional 90 days) or in case parents are already upbringing at least two children up to age of 8 at the time of a birth of another child: additional 30 days for upbringing two children, additional 60 days for three children, additional 90 days for four and more children. *Paternity Leave* (introduced in lasts 90 days of which 15 days have to be used during the mother's maternity leave; whereas the remaining 75 days are to be used until the child is 8 years old. *Adoptive Parent's Leave* lasts 150 days in case of adoption of a child aged between 1 and 4 or 120 days for a child aged between 4 and 10. In some companies there is however possibility for more flexible organization of time. *Parental allowance* is a parental supplement granted to those who are not eligible for the insurance based compensation of the parental leave. Wage compensation, to which are entitled those covered by health insurance amounts to 100% of average monthly gross wage during the 12 months before the leave. Birth grant is an in-kind or cash benefit (by choice of mother) granted upon the birth of the child. An important right for parents defined by the same law, however seldom used in practice, is the legal **right to work part-time** after the birth of the child – until the age of 3. The most important reason that the right is often not used in practice is economic one. The loss of income in this case is often too big. **Part-time** work, as stated, is not very widespread in Slovenia. In Yugoslavia it was introduced only in 1989. Women are participating in terms of full – time employment similarly to men and this does not change with parenthood. Slovenia, as a previously part of Yugoslavia has a long tradition of so called dual-breadwinner concept. Already the 1st Slovenian Constitution in 1947 considered the work as a right and a duty towards community and each citizen was supposed to participate in work according to his/her capabilities. Women were granted equal rights to men, including the right for equal pay. State was favouring full employment for both sexes and employment meant almost any social protection. This is one of the reasons for rather high full employment rate for both, men and women even nowadays. Employment is also still the basis for social protection.

Child benefit in Slovenia, as well defined by Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act, was first introduced after the 2nd world war in order to compensate for costs of children and to decrease disparities between families from different social backgrounds. In 1979 The Child Protection Law has introduced the concept of financial support for children and the child benefit is still in use now, and very widespread too. It is usually paid to one of the parents and the amount of benefit varies (according to the income per family member as a percentage of the average wage of all the employed persons in Slovenia in the previous years). It is paid until

the age of 18 or 25 (if in regular training). A large family supplement is a universal transfer to families with three or more children up to 18 or 26 if in regular training (between 340 and 415 € in 2006).

Guarantee and Alimony Fund of the Republic of Slovenia Act (O.G. No: 53/1999, 22/2000-ZJS, 119/2002, 61/2006) regulates the payment of the **alimony** and provides the maintenance replacement for who have been allocated maintenance which the person liable is not paying.

The main form of **childcare** in Slovenia is *public day care*, since the end of 70s widespread and subsidized. The main functions of day cares are to provide help for parents in upbringing children, the improvement of quality of life of the families and children, as well as formation of conditions to enable emotional and social development of children. Besides public day care, also private day care centres exist, and according to the **Kindergarten Act** (O.G. No. 12/1996, 44/2000, 78/2003,72/2005) parents are entitled to choose the programmes from either public or private institution. The care for children is organised within a day care centres or as a family day care. Children that due to an illness are not able to take part in these forms of day care, are entitled to preschool care at home. However, there is still significant number of children (almost half of children by the age of 7) included in different kind of care, many times informal care within the family network. There are, however, also uncontrolled private day-care services, which arise a question of the quality of care. Regarding the *payment* of these programs, according to the act, the level of payment by parents is based on the parent's income as a percentage of the price of the programme in which the child is taking part. Parents pay at most 80 per cent and at least 10 % of the programme's price. The municipality covers the difference between this payment and the programme's full price. Parents receiving **Financial Social Assistance** are exempt from payment. This is a means-tested financial assistance granted to those who need social assistance, regulated by **Social Assistance Act** (O.G. RS, No. Ur.l. RS, ?t. 54/1992 (56/1992 - popr.), 42/1994 Odl.US: U-I-137/93-24, 1/1999-ZNIDC, 41/1999, 60/1999 Odl.US: U-I-273/98, 36/2000-ZPDZC, 54/2000-ZUOPP, 26/2001, 110/2002-ZIRD, 2/2004 (7/2004 - popr.), 21/2006 Odl.US: U-I-116/03-22, 105/2006, 114/2006-ZUTPG). These people are granted an income calculated by multiplying the basic amount of the minimum income by the weighted number of family members.

The awareness of the importance of reconciliation of work and private life is rising. Slovenian government and social partners signed the **social agreement 2003-2005** (2006-2009 is still being negotiated) within which the government commits itself to develop policies, programmes and measures that will ensure and promote reconciliation of the work and family obligations of women and men, by: establishing a network of services for all generations; adjusting childcare provision to changes in working and business timetables; offering services to facilitate parenthood; enabling flexible forms of employment for people with young children; and implementing a family-friendly company campaign. Employer organisations on the other hand will encourage their members to take a more active attitude towards reconciling work and family life, and to prevent discrimination in recruitment and employment. Trade unions will offer their members the necessary support for resolving problems related to combining work and family obligations, and propose possible solutions for the resolution of those problems to employers.

With regard to reconciliation, the above mentioned **Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act**, as well as **Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2002)**[51]**.** (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 59/2002) and **Employment Relationship Act (2002) (O.G. RS, No. 42/2002,79/2006)** are the main acts defining the work-family relations. The first act with some of the above mentioned measures represents the basis for reconciliation and more equal distribution of work among parents – for example, the introduction of **paternal leave** as a non-transferable right of fathers or the right for women who are breast-feeding to take one hour off work.

3.4.3 Gender equality measures

The legal framework of gender equality issues in Slovenia is the following: Some, basic guidelines are defined already in the Slovenian **Constitution** (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 33/1991) which "guarantees human rights and basic freedoms for all, irrespective of ethnicity, race, **gender**, faith, political or other conviction, material standing, birth, education, social status, or any other personal circumstance«. However, the umbrella law providing a common basis for creating equal opportunities for women and men through further legislation is the **Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2002)** (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 59/2002). It defines common grounds for the improvement of the status of women and the establishment of equal opportunities for men and women in various fields (economic, social, educational, political). It also introduces an important measure, that is ***gender mainstreaming*** as a strategy for achieving this goal, thus gender equality policy is incorporated in any ministerial or governmental sectoral policy, sphere or activity, no longer being matter of specific institutions only (such as **Office for Equal Opportunities**, established in 1992 as a Women's Policy Office and renamed in 2001 – a self-standing government body responsible for realization of the rights of women guaranteed by the constitution and legislation. It played an important role).

Furthermore, the act allows for positive measures to ensure equality and foresees the Ombudsperson who handles cases of unequal treatment. It also highlights the importance of education in dealing with stereotypes in this field. The equal treatment and equality issues are also incorporated in other acts, such as *Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act (2001)* (O.G. RS, No. 97/2001) and *Employment Relationship Act (2002)* (O.G. RS, No. 42/2002,79/2006). The latter includes provisions on the prohibition of discrimination in the field of employment on the basis of gender and the provision requiring equal opportunities and equal treatment (ex. prohibition of priority to particular gender in advertising job vacancy) for all. In addition, principle for equal pay for work is stated and sexual harassment prohibited. Also, gender and family obligations cannot constitute a reason for termination of an employment contract and the right from absence from work due to parental leave is guaranteed to both parents. The act also specially protects some categories of workers

In 2004 also **Act Implementing the Principle of Equal Treatment**[52] **(**O.G. RS, No. 50/2004) has been implemented that upgraded the legal basis for ensuring equal treatment of persons in all areas of social life, irrespective of personal circumstances, including gender.

Slovenia has ratified various international agreements in the field of gender equality, taking into account the standards and recommendations of the UN, ILO, Council of Europe, etc. In relation to EU level, several Directives were adopted, particularly those that concern the area of employment and social security.[53] The first Directive which concerns, besides employment and social security, also other domains of social life, is Council Directive 2004/113/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services.

An **important strategic document in this field is the Resolution on the National Programme for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men** (2005[54]) that defines objectives and measures for the promotion of gender equality in different areas of life for men and women in the period from 2005 – 2013. The purpose of the Resolution is to improve the situation of women on general and to enhance equality between men and women. The objectives and measures are defined as guidelines for ministries and other government bodies that should integrate those measures into planning and implementation of policies and programmes. Concrete activities in achieving these goals are set in periodical two-year plans.

Notes

16 It should be notice that the specific focus of the reform implemented in 2003 is the private sector; whereas part time employment in the public sector is still regulated by the Legislative Decree 61/2000 (Rustichelli, 2005)
17 For a detailed description of the several Italian contractual arrangements, see Istat (2004). At this regard it should be noticed that some new contractual forms introduced by the Biagi law (in particular job sharing and job on call) have not still been used by employers.
18 Workers with these contracts are also defined as "parasubordinati".
19 It has to be remarked that in Italy unemployment benefit system has a pure insurance nature. Therefore, the access to such benefits depends on the accumulation of contributions requirements.
20 These contracts established special employment relationship to promote the hiring and training of individuals aged between 16 and 32. They were fixed-term contracts for a maximum of 24 months and not renewable. Originally, they were regulated by Law No. 863/1984, modified by Law No. 451/1994. In order to encourage the hiring of young persons under work/training contracts, the law granted employers both regulatory incentives relaxing the normal rules and financial incentives (reduction of social security and welfare contributions).
21 For details on the unemployment benefit system in Italy see Ferrera (2006) and Geroldi (2005).
22 It is a special loan granted at zero tax interest and based on an agreed plan of restitution.
23 Both men and women with working with contracts introduced by L.D. 276/2003 are entitled to apply for protection measures stated by Law 53/2000. Mothers and fathers working as domestic servants are entitled to apply for maternity and paternity leave, but cannot apply for other kind of leave or permits. Fathers and mothers involved in *lavori socialmente utili* (jobs characterized by social relevance) are entitled to apply for paternity and maternity leave and are provided with an allowance replacing 80% of their wage. Agricultural workers with permanent contracts are entitled to apply for any kind of leave and permit; those working with fixed-term contracts have the same rights, but under some limits.
24 Part-time workers are entitled to apply for the same benefits of those working full-time, but the allowances are calculated referring to working time fixed by the contract.
25 This contractual typology replaced the co.co.co typology, nowadays allowed only in the Public Administration.
26 In Italy the City referred to a little town; the Muncipality to a big town.
27 A kind of residence permit without deadline.
28 *Time Banks* link people to share their time and skill within a mutual volunteering system.
29 Legislative Decree 11th April 2006, n.198.
30 http://www.gender-mainstreaming.net
31 Dz.U. denotes an abbreviation of the Journal of Laws (Dziennik Ustaw), next the year of publication is given, no. of the issue, no. of the regulation.
32 There are also additional laws needed to be reformulated at the beginning of economic reforms to regulate the labour market: the Act on Trade Unions (Dz.U.01.79.854), the Act on Employer's Organisations (Dz.U.91.55.235), the Act on Specific Rules to Terminate Job Contracts due to Reasons Pertaining An Enterprise (Dz.U.02.112.980).
33 Most of the amendments were imposed by the administration reform introduced in 1998.
34 Temporary contracts are limited to specific situations only (seasonal work, replacement, special needs defined by employers). Moreover, the duration of the contract with the same employer cannot exceed 12 months during the 3-year period (except for the situation when a temporary worker replaces a persons on a leave).
35 Job protection refers to the pregnancy and the maternity as well as parental leaves. Regulations related to maternity and parental leaves are described in detail in Section 2.
36 Employment stability concerns women on stable contracts and those with either fixed-term or temporary

work contracts who work at least one month during the pregnancy period and a contract would be terminated after the third month of pregnancy. Women on other types of contracts and self-employed are entitled to maternity benefits under special conditions (related to payment of health insurance tax).

37 Life and health protection measures are defined against work environment hazards during pregnancy and breastfeeding. a breastfeeding mother is entitled to breaks included in the working hours (two half-hour breaks a day for a child).

38 According to the first law of December 1989 all unemployed persons were entitled to a benefit not limited in time. Its amount declined over time and started from the 70% of a previous salary (but at least at the minimum wage level and not more than the average wage. In the subsequent years entitlement requirements were revised and became more rigid.

39 The Labour Fund is the state appropriated fund to support unemployed persons and to counteract unemployment. The Fund is basically created from compulsory contributions by employers and other organisational units (for example, agricultural production co-operatives) and state budget allocations.

40 The most distinctive feature of the labour market in Poland is a high incidence of unemployment among the youngest persons and a high risk of the long-term unemployment. Between 2000 and 2003 the remarkable rise in unemployment rates for people below 25 years has been observed. In 2003 the unemployment rates for the persons aged 15-24 reached the highest level since May 1992 when the LFS started in Poland. The rates exceed 40% for males and females, the level unobserved in the EU in 2004 (national data). Also the youth unemployment ratio for both sexes shows the highest values despite a slight decline in 2003.

41 According to the 2002 Population Census lone mothers account for 89 percent of one-parent families.

42 The household income per person should not exceed 504 PLN (circa 128 euro) and for families with disabled children up to 25 years / 583PLN (144 euro) (the exchange rate is 3.94 PLN for 1 euro). That criterion refers to households with main income from non-agriculture sources. The calculation of farmers' incomes is based on the basic rate per 1 ha adjusted accordingly to price changes. For instance, for the period September 2005-August 2006 the basic rate was set at the level of 194 PLN (49 euro) while from September 2006 onwards at the level of 135.50 PLN (34 euro).

43 The recent amendments on the income threshold for a family allowance and the amount of allowances and financial supplements were implemented on 18 July 2006. Among others, they changed the basic family allowance, which was dependent on the number of children, to be dependent on the age of the child as off 1 September 2006. Also its level increased: to a monthly amount of 48 PLN (12 euro) for a child up to 5 years, 64 PLN (16 euro) for a child aged 6-18 and 68 (17euro) for a child aged 19-24; families with three or more children will receive 80 PLN (20 euro) additionally for third and subsequent children (if the income criterion holds).

44 Local governments can implement their own additional birth grants, financed from their resources. Entitlement criteria and the amount of payment is upon their own decisions.

45 Recent regulations prolonged the maternity leave to 18 weeks weeks upon the first birth, 20 weeks upon each successive birth and 28 weeks in the case of the multiple birth.

46 Regulations on the maternity allowance are formulated in the Act on Social Benefits related to Sickness and Maternity (Dz.U.99.60.636 with further amendments)

47 Data from the survey "Reconciling work and family", carried out on the Labour Force Survey in the second quarter of 2005, show the relatively moderate use of parental leave by women and the marginal use by men – around 50% of women and 2.5% of men entitled to a parental leave make use of it. Financial and work related reasons are indicated as important for not taking up a parental leave (Kotowska, Baranowska, 2006).

48 Data from the survey "Reconciling work and family", carried out on the Labour Force Survey in the second quarter of 2005, confirm the poor provision of institutional care – only around 20% of mothers in employment make use of public care centres, nearly 40 % of mothers with partners rely on care offered by relatives while 54% of lone mothers are supported by relatives (Kotowska, Baranowska, 2006).

49 The office was dissolved by the end of 2005.
50 http://www.ess.gov.si/SLO/DEJAVNOST/Programi/apz_2007_2013.pdf
51 http://www.uem.gov.si/fileadmin/uem.gov.si/pageuploads/Act_on_Equal_Opportunities_for_Women_and_Men-English_version.doc
52 http://www.uem.gov.si/fileadmin/uem.gov.si/pageuploads/ZUNEO-kon__na_lektorirana_verzija_1_.ang.doc
53 Directive 75/117/EEC on the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to the application of the principle of equal pay for men and women;- Directive 76/207/EEC on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions; Directive 2002/73/EC amending Directive 76/207/EEC; Directives 79/7/EEC and 86/378/EEC on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security; Directive 86/613/EEC on the application of the principle of equal treatment between men and women engaged in an activity, including agriculture, in a self-employed capacity, and on the protection of self-employed women during pregnancy and motherhood; Directive 92/85/EEC on the introduction of measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health at work of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding; Directive 96/34/EC on the framework agreement on parental leave concluded by UNICE, CEEP and the ETUC; Directive 97/80/EC on the burden of proof in cases of discrimination based on sex.
54 http://www.uem.gov.si/fileadmin/uem.gov.si/pageuploads/ReNPEMZM_EN.pdf

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4. Results in Figures: The Standard Tables

4.1 ITALY

4.1.1 General information (Tables 1-7)

In Rome the sample is quite well balanced between sex and age groups. Majority of respondents have a medium-high level of education (87%) with no significant differences between men and women. Thus, it is interesting to observe that low and medium levels of education characterize more respondents aged 35-44 years than those aged 25-34 years, who are mostly medium-high educated. It must be considered that a share of those aged 25-29, who has attained a secondary school certificate, could be still studying to get a higher degree. Then, being never married is more usual among males than among women (56,5% and 45,7% respectively), who are mostly married (47,8 vs. 40,5% of males). As the age group rises, the percentage of those who are married remarkably increases, while the condition of never married seems to fit best among youngest.

The *total employment rate* for individuals aged 25-44 and living in Rome is 77.0%. Employment rate is higher for men (84.4%) than for women (69.9%). The unemployment rate is 5.7% with only small gender differences (about 5% the unemployment rate for men and 6% for women). Men and women are characterised by a relevant difference in the incidence and composition of inactive people: 24.0% of women are inactive (half of them are house workers) comparing with 10.3% of men (most of which are students). The employment rate increases with age (68.6% in the 25-34 age class and 83.9% in 35-44 age class), while the unemployment rate decreases: to 8.3% (25-34) to 3.6% (35-44). Individuals with the highest educational level show the highest employment rate (82.7 comparing to 74.9% of low educated people and 72.9% of people with a medium educational level).

Concerning the *kind of activity*, 71.5% of total workers are regular employees, with no significant differences between men and women (respectively, 71.3% and 71.8%), 17.3% are self-employed and 11.2% are not regular employees. The share of self-employed and not regular employees in total workers is different between men and women. The former is more common among men (21.5% of men are self-employed and only 12.5% of women) while the latter is more frequent among women (15.7% comparing with 7.2% of men). The incidence of self-employment is highest among workers with the highest educational level (21.5%); it is 16.2% and 13.8%, respectively, for workers with low and medium educational level. Regular employees have mainly permanent contracts (58.1% of total workers). Workers with fixed term contracts are 13.4% of total workers. The incidence of fixed-term contracts increases with educational level (8.5% for workers with the lowest educational level; 12.3% for workers with medium educational level; and 16.2% for workers with the highest educational level), it is also slightly higher for women (14.6%) than for men (12.5%) and for younger workers (16.9%) than for the older (11.1%). The features of not regular employees are also relevant. The share of these contracts in total employment is quite high for women (15.7%), younger workers (19.5%) and for people working in the private sector (15.9%). Not regular employees increase monotonically with educational level (from 9.5% to 12.6%).

About 47% of the sample lives in couple or in couple with children; other respondents live mainly alone (28,9%) or with “other no relative persons” (16,8%). Among those who have attained high levels of education

is more relevant the percentage of those who live alone (35,9%); while among those with low and medium education, living in couple or in couple with children is more common (51,5%and 16,7%). Moreover, we must take into account that a share of those living with "other no relative persons" could include people who have not their residence in Rome but are living there cause they are still studying. In fact, Table 6 shows that among those with medium and high level of education the percentage of those who live with "other no relative persons" is quite high (19,7% and 15,5%). The type of activity seems to influence at some extent the choice to live alone or in couple. Regular employees or self-employed seem more frequently to live in couple or in couple with children, while not regular employees live more frequently alone. It must be noticed that it might be also associated with the age and the educational level of the respondents which influence their employment status.

Table 1 - Sample population by sex and 5year age groups

	5 year age groups				
	25-29	**30-34**	**35-39**	**40-44**	**Total**
by sex					
male					
abs.value	88.110	109.888	114.883	108.101	420.982
(%)	*20,9%*	*26,1%*	*27,3%*	*25,7%*	*100,0%*
female					
abs.value	92.642	117.951	118.387	112.764	441.744
(%)	*21,0%*	*26,7%*	*26,8%*	*25,5%*	*100,0%*
TOTAL	180.752	227.839	233.270	220.865	862.726

Total Missing values for sex: 2870

Table 2 - Educational level by sex - by 5year age groups

	Educational level			
	low education	**medium education**	**high education**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	62.949	197.636	160.397	420.982
(%)	*15,0%*	*46,9%*	*38,1%*	*100,0%*
female				
freq.	50.336	219.900	171.508	441.744
(%)	*11,4%*	*49,8%*	*38,8%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	113.285	417.536	331.905	862.726
(%)	*13,1%*	*48,4%*	*38,5%*	*100,0%*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	11.683	110.408	58.662	180.753
(%)	*6,5%*	*61,1%*	*32,5%*	*100,0%*
30-34				
freq.	26.525	89.600	112.313	228.438
(%)	*11,6%*	*39,2%*	*49,2%*	*100,0%*
35-39				
freq.	36.823	112.671	84.635	234.129
(%)	*15,7%*	*48,1%*	*36,1%*	*100,0%*
40-44				
freq.	39.118	104.857	78.302	222.277
(%)	*17,6%*	*47,2%*	*35,2%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	114.149	417.536	333.912	865.597
(%)	*13,2%*	*48,2%*	*38,6%*	*100,0%*

Total missing values for sex by educational level: 2870

Table 3 - Marital status by sex - 5year age groups

	Marital status			
	married	**never married**	**other**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	170.358	237.664	12.960	420.982
(%)	*40,5%*	*56,5%*	*3,1%*	*100,0%*
female				
freq.	211.250	201.693	28.801	441.744
(%)	*47,8%*	*45,7%*	*6,5%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	381.608	439.357	41.761	862.726
(%)	*44,2%*	*50,9%*	*4,8%*	*100,0%*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	15.706	163.168	1.879	180.753
(%)	*8,7%*	*90,3%*	*1,0%*	*100,0%*
30-34				
freq.	75.836	148.167	4.436	228.439
(%)	*33,2%*	*64,9%*	*1,9%*	*100,0%*
35-39				
freq.	136.848	81.905	15.376	234.129
(%)	*58,4%*	*35,0%*	*6,6%*	*100,0%*
40-44				
freq.	154.626	47.580	20.071	222.277
(%)	*69,6%*	*21,4%*	*9,0%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	383.016	440.820	41.762	865.598
(%)	*44,2%*	*50,9%*	*4,8%*	*100,0%*

Missing values for sex by marital status: 2870

Table 4 - Employment status by sex - 10year age groups - educational level

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Unemployed**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq	356.080	43.343	22.469	421.892
(%)	*84,4*	*10,3*	*5,3*	*100,0*
student				
freq		30.561		
(%)		*70,7*		
house workers				
freq		*na*		
(%)		*na*		
female				
freq	310.287	106.707	26.859	443.853
(%)	*69,9*	*24,0*	*6,1*	*100,0*
student				
freq		31399		
(%)		*29,4*		
house workers				
freq		48425		
(%)		*45,4*		

Table 4 continues... >>

>> Table 4 (continues)

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Unemployed**	**Total**
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	269.287	90.648	32.448	392.383
(%)	*68,6*	*23,1*	*8,3*	*100,0*
student				
freq		57636		
(%)		*63,6*		
house workers				
freq		(11.749)		
(%)		*(13,0)*		
35-44				
freq	397.080	59.402	16.880	473.362
(%)	*83,9*	*12,5*	*3,6*	*100,0*
student				
freq		(4.414)		
(%)		*(7,4)*		
house workers				
freq		36.676		
(%)		*61,7*		
by educational level				
Low				
freq	85.473	23.224	5.463	114.160
(%)	*74,9*	*20,3*	*4,8*	*100,0*
student				
freq		(516)		
(%)		*(2,2)*		
house workers				
freq		15.605		
(%)		*(67,2)*		
Medium				
freq	304.563	90.077	22.967	417.607
(%)	*72,9*	*21,6*	*5,5*	*100,0*
student				
freq		46.077		
(%)		*51,2*		
house workers				
freq		28.154		
(%)		*31,3*		
High				
freq	276.331	36.749	20.898	333.978
(%)	*82,7*	*11,0*	*6,3*	*100,0*
student				
freq		15461		
(%)		*42,1*		
house workers				
freq		4.666		
(%)		*12,7*		
Total				
freq	666.367	150.050	49.328	865.745
(%)	*77,0*	*17,3*	*5,7*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:	
sex	-
10years age groups	-
educational level	-

Table 5 - Type of activity by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
freq		253.737	76.529	25.814	356.080
(%)		*71,3*	*21,5*	*7,2*	*100,0*
freq	44.373	209.364			
(%)	*12,5*	*58,8*			
female					
freq		222.717	38.808	48.762	310.287
(%)		*71,8*	*12,5*	*15,7*	*100,0*
freq	45.211	177.506			
(%)	*14,6*	*57,2*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
freq		176.214	40.695	52.378	269.287
(%)		65,4	15,1	19,5	100,0
freq	45.518	130.696			
(%)	*16,9*	*48,5*			
35-44					
freq		300.240	74.642	22.198	397.080
(%)		*75,6*	*18,8*	*5,6*	*100,0*
freq	44.066	256.174			
(%)	*11,1*	*64,5*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq		63.565	13.829	8.079	85.473
(%)		*74,4*	*16,2*	*9,5*	*100,0*
freq	7.274	56.291			
(%)	*8,5*	*65,9*			
Medium					
freq		230.803	41967	31793	304.563
(%)		*75,8*	*13,8*	*10,4*	*100,0*
freq	37.531	193.272			
(%)	*12,3*	*63,5*			
High					
freq		182.086	59.541	34.704	276.331
(%)		*65,9*	*21,5*	*12,6*	*100,0*
freq	44.779	137.307			
(%)	*16,2*	*49,7*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq		265.603	-	50.183	315.786
(%)		*84,1*	-	*15,9*	*100,0*
freq	46.297	219.306			
(%)	*14,7*	*69,4*			
Public					
freq		205.987	-	21709	227.696
(%)		*90,5*	-	*9,5*	*100,0*
freq	40.228	165.759			
(%)	*17,7*	*72,8*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq		476.454	115.337	74.576	666.367
(%)		*71,5*	*17,3*	*11,2*	*100,0*
freq	89.584	386.870			
(%)	*13,4*	*58,1*			

Total missing value for:	
sex	-
10years age groups	-
educational level	-
sector of activity	122.885

Table 6 - Household composition by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	alone	in couple	in couple with children	other	Total
by sex						
male						
freq.	32.622	141.630	123.065	62.111	61.554	420.982
(%)	*7,7%*	*33,6%*	*29,2%*	*14,8%*	*14,6%*	*100,0%*
female						
freq.	26.724	107.909	157.508	66.425	83.179	441.745
(%)	*6,0%*	*24,4%*	*35,7%*	*15,0%*	*18,8%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	59.346	249.539	280.573	128.536	144.733	862.727
(%)	*6,9%*	*28,9%*	*32,5%*	*14,9%*	*16,8%*	*100,0%*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	41.950	157.218	75.047	32.280	102.695	409.190
(%)	*10,3%*	*38,4%*	*18,3%*	*7,9%*	*25,1%*	*100,0%*
35-44						
freq.	17.995	93.184	206.934	96.256	42.038	456.407
(%)	*3,9%*	*20,4%*	*45,3%*	*21,1%*	*9,2%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	59.945	250.402	281.981	128.536	144.733	865.597
(%)	*6,9%*	*28,9%*	*32,6%*	*14,8%*	*16,7%*	*100,0%*
by level of education						
low						
freq.	8.203	22.481	58.785	13.706	10.972	114.147
(%)	*7,2%*	*19,7%*	*51,5%*	*12,0%*	*9,6%*	*100,0%*
medium						
freq.	28.823	108.149	128.612	69.803	82.149	417.536
(%)	*6,9%*	*25,9%*	*30,8%*	*16,7%*	*19,7%*	*100,0%*
high						
freq.	22.919	119.772	94.583	45.026	51.612	333.912
(%)	*6,9%*	*35,9%*	*28,3%*	*13,5%*	*15,5%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	59.945	250.402	281.980	128.535	144.733	865.595
(%)	*6,9%*	*28,9%*	*32,6%*	*14,8%*	*16,7%*	*100,0%*
by employment status						
employed						
freq.	40.409	196.075	224.771	105.773	98.538	665.566
(%)	*6,1%*	*29,5%*	*33,8%*	*15,9%*	*14,8%*	*100,0%*
not employed						
freq.	6.138	15.918	10.804	5.526	10.373	48.759
(%)	*12,6%*	*32,6%*	*22,2%*	*11,3%*	*21,3%*	*100,0%*
inactive						
freq.	12.831	38.409	45.732	17.237	35.822	150.031
(%)	*8,6%*	*25,6%*	*30,5%*	*11,5%*	*23,9%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	59.378	250.402	281.307	128.536	144.733	864.356
(%)	*6,9%*	*29,0%*	*32,5%*	*14,9%*	*16,7%*	*100,0%*

Table 6 continues... >>

>> Table 6 (continues)

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	**alone**	**in couple**	**in couple with children**	**other**	**Total**
by type of activity						
regular employee						
freq.	24.995	129.622	168.396	85.492	67.853	476.358
(%)	*5,2%*	*27,2%*	*35,4%*	*17,9%*	*14,2%*	*100,0%*
self-employed						
freq.	8.122	34.975	45.519	13.542	13.160	115.318
(%)	*7,0%*	*30,3%*	*39,5%*	*11,7%*	*11,4%*	*100,0%*
not regular employee						
freq.	7.293	31.479	11.530	6.739	17.525	74.566
(%)	*9,8%*	*42,2%*	*15,5%*	*9,0%*	*23,5%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	40.410	196.076	225.445	105.773	98.538	666.242
(%)	*6,1%*	*29,4%*	*33,8%*	*15,9%*	*14,8%*	*100,0%*

Missing values for sex by household composition: 2870
Missing values for employment status by household composition: 1240
Missing values for type of activity by household composition: 199

Table 7 - Accomodation by household composition

	Housing			
	owned	**rented**	**free use**	**Total**
by household composition				
with family of origin				
freq.	48.672	9.310	1.473	59.455
(%)	*81,9%*	*15,7%*	*2,5%*	*100,0%*
alone				
freq.	159.249	64.958	22.146	246.353
(%)	*64,6%*	*26,4%*	*9,0%*	*100,0%*
in couple				
freq.	201.693	58.570	20.318	280.581
(%)	*71,9%*	*20,9%*	*7,2%*	*100,0%*
in couple with children				
freq.	98.481	20.144	6.767	125.392
(%)	*78,5%*	*16,1%*	*5,4%*	*100,0%*
other				
freq.	107.893	28.460	7.067	143.420
(%)	*75,2%*	*19,8%*	*4,9%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	615.988	181.442	57.771	855.201
(%)	*72,0%*	*21,2%*	*6,8%*	*100,0%*

Missing values for household composition by housing :10.395

4.1.2 Employment and job history (Tables 19-29)

The mean age at the first job is 21.1 with almost no differences between men and women (21.0 for men and 21.3 for women).

The average hours worked in a week by people with full-time contracts is 40.1. The duration of the working week is longer for self-employed (45.0 hours per week on average) and lower for regular employees with fixed-term contracts (36.0 hours on average). Generally, the average hours worked by women is lower comparing to those of men (respectively 37.7% and 41.6%). This is confirmed for all the different kinds of activities except for not regular employees: in this case, women work on average 40.1 hours per week and men 38.1 hours. The average hours worked per week for part-time employment is 23.0 hours with the longer working week for regular employees with permanent contracts (25.7) and the shorter for self-employed (18.3). On average, the working week for part-timers is longer for women (23.5) than for men (20.8); for the oldest part-time workers (25.2) than for the youngest (20.6); for people working in the private sector (25.0) than for those working in the public sector (22.1).

Part-time employment accounted for 19.4% of total employment. It is more common among women (33.1% of total employment) than among men (only 7.4%) and among people working in the private sector (25.5%) than for those employed within the public sector (10.5%). People working part-time are mostly not regular employees (46.9% of total workers with part time contracts) and fixed-term employees (29.6%), whilst only 12.2% of permanent regular employees hold a part-time job. Part-time is also more common among younger workers (22.5%) than older workers (17.3%), even though this difference is mainly due to the highest incidence of part-times among younger self-employed. The relevance of having children in working part-time is quite small: 21.3% of people with children are part-timers comparing to 18.1% of people without children. Within this class there is a strong incidence of not regular employees (41.2% of total part-timers without children).

Less than 32% of total workers are characterised by the existence of a recent job history (past three years). During this three years period, most of them experienced 2-3 contract changes (58.5%), 35.4% one, and only 6.1% changed their job more than three times. Among people with job history currently inactive, 55.5% experienced only 1 contract change and 38% 2 or 3 contract changes. On the opposite, 62.9% of people with job history that are currently employed experienced 2 or 3 contract changes and 31.9% only 1 contract change. Among the different kind of activities, the highest mobility is among people working as not regular employees: 45.5% of them changed 2 or contracts 3 during the last three years. Finally, the private sector is characterised by a higher mobility (as measured by the number of contract changes during the last three years) comparing with the public sector.

For either men or women, the reasons for job changes are mainly non-voluntary (46.7%), only 27.7% of changes are voluntary and 25.6% declared of having had other reasons for job changes. Non voluntary job changes are higher among oldest people (58.8%) than among the youngest (25-34); among highly educated people (50.2%); and among people currently unemployed (54.6%). Regular employed and not regular employees change their job more often because a non voluntary choice (respectively, 50.8% and 47.2%) than self-employed (33.3%).

Only 36.1% of people with job history (those who have at least one job change during the last three years) has not experienced unemployment period during the last three years. For 20.6% of them the longest unemployment period was shorter than 3 months, 27% experienced an unemployment period from 3 to 12 months, and 12.3% was unemployed for more than 12 months. The situation is worse for woman than for men. Only 22.7% of women with job history are characterised by the absence of unemployment period (comparing to 35.7% of men) and, on the opposite, the share of women with job history that experienced an unemployment period longer than 12 months during the last three years is 28% comparing with 11% of men.

Table 19 - Mean age at first job by sex

	Mean age at first job			
	mean	**std.error**	**95% confidence interval for mean**	**std.dev**
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	21,0	0,267	20.353-21.404	4,663
female	21,3	0,185	20.904-21.631	4,334
Total	21,1	0,152	20.829-21.428	4,455

Total missing value for:			
sex		Male: 149,892	Female: 137,786

Table 20 - People working part-time by type of activity and sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
freq	15.605		{3,567}	{7,299}	15.605
(%)	*6,2*		*{4.7}*	*{28.3}*	*7,4*
freq.	{9,964}	{5,641}			
(%)	*{22.5}*	*{2.7}*			
female					
freq	58.206		16.930	27.648	102.784
(%)	*26,1*		*43,6*	*56,7*	*33,1*
freq.	16.561	41.645			
(%)	*36,6*	*23,5*			
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq	27.525		{9,108}	23.874	51.399
(%)	*15,6*		*{22.4}*	*45,6*	*22,5*
freq.	13.281	14.244			
(%)	*29,2*	*10,9*			
35-44					
freq	46.286		11.389	{11,073}	57.675
(%)	*15,4*		*15,3*	*{49.9}*	*17,3*
freq.	13.244	33.042			
(%)	*30,1*	*12,9*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	14.049		{1,266}	{4,444}	14.049
(%)	*22,1*		*{9.2}*	*{55.0}*	*23,1*
freq.	{4,036}	{10,013}			
(%)	*{55.4}*	*{17.8}*			
Medium					
freq	37.936		{5,847}	16.976	54.912
(%)	*16,4*		*{13.9}*	*53,4*	*20,0*
freq.	{1,0257}	27.679			
(%)	*{27.3}*	*14,3*			
High					
freq	21.826		13.384	13.527	48.737
(%)	*12,0*		*22,5*	*3898,0*	*17,6*
freq.	{12,232}	{9,594}			
(%)	*{27.3}*	*{7.0}*			

Table 20 continues... >>

>> Table 20 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	52.658		-	27.785	80.443
(%)	*19,8*		-	*55,4*	*25,5*
freq.	14.824	37.834			
(%)	*32,0*	*17,3*			
Public					
freq	18.446		-	{5,497}	23.936
(%)	*9,0*		-	*{25.3}*	*10,5*
freq.	{9,014}	{9,452}			
(%)	*{22.4}*	*{5.7}*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	41.748		{8,878}	{10,254}	41.748
(%)	*18,3*		*{20.7}*	*{69.8}*	*21,3*
freq.	{9,365}	32.383			
(%)	*{29.7}*	*16,5*			
without children					
freq	32.063		{11,619}	24.693	56.756
(%)	*13,0*		*{16.0}*	*41,2*	*18,1*
freq.	17.160	14.903			
(%)	*29,5*	*7,9*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq	73.811		20.497	34.947	129.255
(%)	*15,5*		17,8	46,9	19,4
freq.	*26.525*	*47.286*			
(%)	*29,6*	*12,2*			

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
10years age groups	0
educational level	0
sector of activity	122.885
presence of children	2.380

Table 21 - Average hours worked for FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
mean	40,4		46,5	38,1	41,6
st dev	*10,9*		*14,7*	*14,4*	*12,3*
mean	39,3	40,6			
st dev	*10,2*	*11,0*			
female					
mean	37,1		39,9	40,1	37,7
st dev	*12,1*		*14,5*	*10,9*	*12,3*
mean	32,1	38,1			
st dev	*13,0*	*11,6*			

Table 21 continues... >>

>> Table 21 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean		40,6	42,8	38,3	40,6
st dev		*10,9*	*16,9*	*13,9*	*12,5*
mean	38,7	41,1			
st dev	*11,2*	*10,7*			
35-44					
mean		38,2	46,0	{41.6}	39,8
st dev		*11,8*	*13,6*	*{8.6}*	*12,5*
mean	33,2	38,9			
st dev	*12,4*	*11,5*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean		39,7	{49.5}	{37.7}	41,5
st dev		*11,3*	*{14.3}*	*{3.22}*	12,3
mean	{37.1}	39,9			
st dev	*{6.3}*	*11,6*			
Medium					
mean		39,2	45,2	39,4	40,1
st dev		*11,6*	*14,5*	*15,5*	*12,5*
mean	37,0	39,6			
st dev	*12,0*	*11,5*			
High					
mean		38,7	43,6	39,3	39,7
st dev		11,5	15,1	11,5	12,5
mean	35,2	39,6			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean		41,2	-	39,6	47,1
st dev		10,8	-	12,9	11
mean	40,6	41,3			
st dev	*9,8*	*10,9*			
Public					
mean		36,5	-	39,4	36,7
st dev		*11,8*	-	*11,7*	*11,9*
mean	31,2	37,6			
st dev	*12,2*	*11,5*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean		37,6	46,3	{44.1}	39
st dev		*12,5*	*12,6*	*{11.3}*	*12,9*
mean	32,7	38,2			
st dev	*12,9*	*12,3*			
without children					
mean		40,3	44,2	38,5	40,8
st dev		*10,5*	*15,9*	*12,8*	*12,1*
mean	37,8	40,8			
st dev	*11,2*	*10,2*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean		**39,0**	**45,0**	**39,2**	**40,1**
st dev		***11,5***	***14,9***	***12,7***	***12,3***
mean	**36,0**	**39,6**			
st dev	***12,1***	***11,3***			

Total missing value for:	
sex	Male: 1,749 Female: 2,306
10years age groups	25-34: 1,749 35-44: 2,306
educational level	low: 0 medium: 1,844 high: 2,211
sector of activity	private: 1,098 public: 2,310 missing: 647
presence of children	children: 2,393 no children: 1,662

Table 22 - Average hours worked for PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
mean		*25,2*	{12.7}	{16}	20,8
st dev		15,0	{5.2}	{10.6}	13,8
mean	*{27.0}*	*{22.4}*			
st dev	*{14.6}*	*{15.2}*			
female					
mean		24,8	19,5	23,7	23,5
st dev		11,1	12,1	12,2	11,8
mean	*20,7*	26,2			
st dev	*12,3*	*10,3*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean		22,2	{15.6}	20,6	20,6
st dev		11,4	{9.9}	10,9	11,2
mean	22,3	22,1			
st dev	*13,0*	*9,6*			
35-44					
mean		26,5	{20.6}	{24.4}	25,2
st dev		12,1	{12.2}	{14.5}	12,8
mean	{24.2}	27,3			
st dev	*{14.2}*	*11,3*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean		25,3	{28.5}	{20.5}	24,4
st dev		13,1	{16.5}	{11.2}	13,2
mean	{27.8}	{24.4}			
st dev	*{17.9}*	*{10.9}*			
Medium					
mean		24,6	{17.3}	20,0	22,5
st dev		9,9	{10.3}	9,8	10,3
mean	*{21.6}*	*25,6*			
st dev	{9.1}	10,1			
High					
mean		25,0	{17.7}	24,5	22,9
st dev		14,4	{10.9}	14,6	13,9
mean	{22.9}	{27.5}			
st dev	*{14.8}*	*{13.7}*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean		26,2	-	22,8	25,0
st dev		10,7	-	12,5	11,5
mean	25,2	26,5			
st dev	*14,8*	*8,7*			
Public					
mean		22,5	-	{20.6}	22,1
st dev		15,1	-	{9.8}	14,0
mean	{22.5	{22.6			
st dev	*{11.5*	*{17.3*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean		26,3	{20.7}	{19.8}	24,4
st dev		12,2	{13.9}	{9.6}	12,4
mean	{25.3}	26,6			
st dev	{16.3}	10,9			
without children					
mean		22,8	{16.6}	22,7	21,7
st dev		11,4	{8.9}	13,1	11,9
mean	21,8	23,8			
st dev	11,5	11,2			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean		**24,9**	**18,3**	**21,8**	**23,0**
st dev		**12,0**	**11,5**	**12,2**	**12,3**
mean	**23,1**	**25,7**			
st dev	***13,6***	***11,1***			

Total missing value for:		
sex	Male: 928	Female: 2,546
10years age groups	25-34:0	35-44: 3,474
educational level	Low: 633;	Medium: 928 High: 1,913
sector of activity	Private: 928	Public: 1,913 Missing: 633

Table 23 - Number of contracts during the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Number of contracts			
	1	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq	36.474	69.433	{11,948}	117.855
(%)	*30,9*	*58,9*	*{10.1}*	*100,0*
Female				
freq	59.126	88.832	{4,443}	152.401
(%)	*38,8*	*58,3*	*{2.9}*	*100,0*
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	62.591	104.085	{12,445}	179.121
(%)	*34,9*	*58,1*	*{7,0}*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq	33.009	54.180	{3,946}	91.135
(%)	*36,2*	*59,5*	*{4.3}*	*100,0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	{11,550}	{12,999}	{612}	25.161
(%)	*{45.9}*	*{51.7}*	*{2.4}*	*100,0*
Medium				
freq	43.365	60.210	{9,027}	112.602
(%)	*38,5*	*53,5*	*8,0*	*100,0*
High				
freq	40.685	85.056	{6,752}	132.493
(%)	*30,7*	*64,2*	*{5.1*	*94,9*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	66.621	131.699	{10,797}	209.117
(%)	*31,9*	*62,9*	*{5.2}*	*94,8*
Inactive				
freq	19.384	13.264	{2,253}	34.901
(%)	*55,5*	*38,0*	*{6.5}*	*93,5*
Unemployed				
freq	{9,595}	13.302	{3,341}	26.238
(%)	*36,6*	*50,7*	*12,7*	*100,0*
Total workers with job history				
freq	95.600	158.265	16.391	270.256
(%)	*35,4*	*58,5*	*6,1*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:	
sex	Male: 29,001 Female: 22,897
10years age groups	24-34: 29,361 35-44: 22,537
educational level	Low: 7,276 Medium: 20,473 High: 24,149
current employment condition	Employed: 39,062; Inactive: 9,266 Unemployed: 3,570

Table 24 - Contract changes during the last three years by type of activity (for employed)

	Contract changes				
	0	**1**	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by type of activity					
Regular employed					
freq	348.201	38.083	81.073	{6,303}	473.660
(%)	*73,5*	*8,0*	*17,1*	*{1.3}*	*100,0*
Self-employed					
freq	78.625	13.402	17.685	{2,032}	111.744
(%)	*70,4*	*12,0*	*15,8*	*{1.8}*	*100,0*
Not regular employed					
freq	21.836	15.136	32.941	{2462}	72.375
(%)	*30,2*	*20,9*	*45,5*	*{3.4}*	*100,0*
Total					
freq	**448.662**	**66.621**	**131.699**	**{10797}**	**657.779**
(%)	***68,3***	***10,1***	***20,0***	***{1.6}***	***100,0***

Total missing value for:			
type of activity	*RE: 2,794*	*SE: 3,593*	*NRE: 2,201*

Table 25 - Contract changes during the last three years by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Contract changes				
	0	**1**	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	198.681	32.938	75.683	{5,414}	312.716
(%)	*63,5*	*10,5*	*24,2*	*{1.8}*	*100,0*
Public					
freq	168.193	19.004	36.177	{3,351}	226.725
(%)	*74,2*	*8,4*	*16,0*	*{1.4}*	*100,0*
Total					
freq	366.874	51.942	111.860	{8,765}	539.441
(%)	*68,0*	*9,6*	*20,8*	*{1.6}*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:			
sector of activity	Private: 3,070	Public: 971	Missing: 7,548

Table 26 - Reasons for job changes by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	Non voluntary	Other	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq	33.277	53.738	25.219	112.234
(%)	*29,6*	*47,9*	*22,5*	*100,0*
Female				
freq	38.152	66.395	40.590	145.137
(%)	*26,3*	*45,8*	*27,9*	*100,0*
by 10 years age groups				
25-34				
freq	54.538	67.202	45.603	167.343
(%)	*32,6*	*40,2*	*27,2*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq	16.891	52.931	20.206	90.028
(%)	*18,8*	*58,8*	*22,4*	*100,0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	{5,416}	10.470	{6,444}	22.330
(%)	{24.2}	46,9	{28.9}	100,0
Medium				
freq	26.179	45.214	35.165	106.558
(%)	*24,6*	*42,4*	*33,0*	*100,0*
High				
freq	39.834	64.449	24.200	128.483
(%)	*31,0*	*50,2*	*18,8*	*100,0*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	63.532	91.183	39.183	193.898
(%)	*32,8*	*47,0*	*20,2*	*100,0*
Inactive				
freq	{6,362}	13.472	15.295	35.129
(%)	*{18.1}*	*38,4*	*43,5*	*100,0*
Unemployed				
freq	{1,535}	15.478	11.331	28.344
(%)	*{5.4}*	*54,6*	*40,0*	*100,0*
Total workers with job history				
freq	**71.429**	**120.133**	**65.809**	**257.371**
(%)	***27,7***	***46,7***	***25,6***	***100,0***

Total missing value for:			
sex	Male: 34,622	Female: 30161	
10years age groups	25-34: 41,139	35-44: 23,644	
educational level	Low: 10,107	Medium: 26,517	High: 28,159
current employment condition	Employed:54,281	Inactive: 9,038	Unemployed: 1,464

Table 27 - Reasons for job changes by type of activity (for employed)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by type of activity				
Regular employed				
freq	38.105	58.284	18.402	114.791
(%)	*33,2*	*50,8*	*16,0*	*100,0*
Self-employed				
freq	12.867	10.641	{8425}	31.933
(%)	*40,30*	*33,30*	*{26.4}*	*100,00*
Not regular employed				
freq	12.560	22.258	{12,356}	34.818
(%)	*26,6*	*47,2*	*{26.2}*	*100,0*
Total				
freq	**63.532**	**91.183**	**39.183**	**181.542**
(%)	***32,8***	***47,0***	***20,2***	***100,0***

Total missing value for:			
type of activity	*RE:361,663*	*SE: 83,404*	*NRE: 27,402*

Table 28 - Reasons for job changes by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by sector of activity				
Private				
freq	32.259	51.039	21.636	104.934
(%)	*30,8*	*48,6*	*20,6*	*100,0*
Public				
freq	17.257	28.416	{8,201}	53.874
(%)	*32,0*	*52,8*	*{15.2}*	*100,0*
Total				
freq	**49.516**	**79.455**	**29.837**	**158.808**
(%)	***31,2***	***50,0***	***18,8***	***100,0***

Total missing value for:			
sector of activity	Private:210,852	Public: 173,822	Missing:206,926

Table 29 - Longest unemployment period in the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition - type of activity - sector of activity

	Longest unemployment period					
	0	**< 3 months**	**3-6 months**	**7-12 months**	**> 1 year**	**Total**
by sex						
Male						
freq	43.636	17.805	31.525	15.329	13.882	122.177
(%)	*35,7*	*14,6*	*25,8*	*12,5*	*11,4*	*100,0*
Female						
freq	34.930	29.311	26.856	19.952	43.128	154.177
(%)	*22,7*	*19,0*	*17,4*	*12,9*	*28,0*	*100,0*

Table 29 continues... >>

>> Table 29 (continues)

	Longest unemployment period					
	0	**< 3 months**	**3-6 months**	**7-12 months**	**> 1 year**	**Total**
by 10years age groups						
25-34						
freq	49.975	32.263	35.122	24.392	41.100	182.852
(%)	*27,3*	*17,7*	*19,2*	*13,3*	*22,5*	*100,0*
35-44						
freq	28.591	14.853	23.259	{10,889}	15.910	93.502
(%)	*30,6*	*15,9*	*24,9*	*{11.6}*	*17,0*	*100,0*
by educational level						
Low						
freq	{11,473}	{3,234}	{2,746}	{3,333}	{4,257}	25.007
(%)	*{45.7}*	*{12.9}*	*{11.0}*	*{13.3}*	*{17.0}*	*100,0*
Medium						
freq	26.068	23.917	21.822	12.787	31.141	115.735
(%)	*22,5*	*20,6*	*18,9*	*11,1*	*26,9*	*100,0*
High						
freq	41.061	19.965	33.813	19.161	21.612	135.612
(%)	*30,3*	*14,7*	*24,9*	*14,2*	*15,9*	*100,0*
by current employment condition						
Employed						
freq	766.586	41.900	39.490	23.861	29.633	901.470
(%)	*36,2*	*19,8*	*18,7*	*11,3*	*14,0*	*100,0*
Inactive						
freq	{895}	{2,903}	{9,185}	{5,683}	18.230	36.896
(%)	*{2.4}*	*{7.9}*	*{24.9}*	*{15.4}*	*49,4*	*100,0*
Unemployed						
freq	{1,085}	{2,313}	{9,706}	{5,737}	{9,147}	27.988
(%)	*{3.9}*	*{8.3}*	*{34.7}*	*{20.5}*	*{32.6}*	*100,0*
by type of activity						
Regular employed						
freq	49.401	22.926	22.516	14.358	14.677	123.878
(%)	*39,9*	*18,5*	*18,2*	*11,6*	*11,8*	*100,0*
Self-employed						
freq	15.012	{6096}	{7125}	{2652}	{5827}	36.712
(%)	*40,9*	*{16.6}*	*{19.4}*	*{7.2}*	*{15.9}*	*100,0*
Not regular employed						
freq	{12,173}	{12,878}	{9,849}	{6,851}	{9,129}	50.880
(%)	*{23.9}*	*{25.3}*	*{19.4}*	*{13.5}*	*{17.9}*	*100,0*
by sector of activity						
Private						
freq	40.960	23.807	19.080	13.236	15.246	112.329
(%)	*36,5*	*21,2*	*16,9*	*11,8*	*13,6*	*100,0*
Public						
freq	20.614	{11,253}	13.285	{7,163}	{5,729}	58.044
(%)	*35,5*	*19,4*	*22,9*	*12,3*	*{9.9}*	*90,1*
Total workers with job history						
freq	*61.574*	*35.060*	*32.365*	*20.399*	*20.975*	*170.373*
(%)	*36,1*	*20,6*	*19,0*	*12,0*	*12,3*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:	
sex	Male:24,679 Female: 21,121
10years age groups	25-34: 25,630 35-44: 20,170
educational level	Low: 7,430 Medium: 17,340 High: 21,030
current employment condition	Empl: 36,709 Inact: 7,271 Unempl:1,820
type of activity	RE: 25,293 SE: 6,613 NRE:4,803 Missing: 73,975
sector of activity	Private: 18,987 Public: 11,109 Missing:121,685

4.1.3 Social representation of work (Tables 30-32)

If we consider in general the most important aspects in a job, the respondents focus their preferences on "good pay", on the possibility to express their own skills and on "good working hours", with no significant differences between women and men, excepted for the "good working hours" that seem to be more attractive for women than for men. But, if we consider the aspects that can influence and support long-term family choices, the respondents change the order of their preferences, with the exception of the economic aspects that seem to be a basic pre-condition to make family choices. "Flexible working arrangements" are indicated by more than one out of five women; by those who are well educated and who are working in private sector; their preferences concern also work and family reconciliation measures (13,6%) as well as protection measures. Data seem to confirm that women are more involved than men in child-care and child-rearing. Work-family reconciliation is still a problem that women must manage adopting different strategies: so, in order to plan long-term family choices, it is worth both having a stable economic condition and managing working time in a flexible way.

Then, if we focus on those who perceive themselves as precarious workers, we can observe that among female with not regular employee their percentage is higher than among men (36,4% versus 23,8%) as well as among young people aged 25-34 years than among those aged 35-44 years. Not regular employees working in private sector (42,3%) perceive themselves more precarious than those in public sector (37%)

Table 30 - Social representation of occupation by sex - 10year age groups - level of education (multiple response)

	Most important aspects in a job			
	Good pay and job security	**Good working hours**	**Job that meets one's abilities**	**Total**
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
male				
freq.	355.329	115.333	275.597	746.259
(%)	*87,0*	28,2	*67,5*	182,7
female				
freq.	361.828	147.296	272.936	782.060
(%)	*86,0*	*35,0*	*64,9*	*185,9*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	347.313	116.054	261.780	725.147
(%)	*88,9*	*29,7*	*67,0*	*185,6*
35-44				
freq.	372.115	146.574	289.024	807.713
(%)	*84,5*	*33,3*	*65,6*	*183,4*
by level of education				
low				
freq.	101.657	31.870	52.028	185.555
(%)	*94,1*	*29,5*	*48,2*	*171,8*
medium				
freq.	352.285	137.357	259.678	749.320
(%)	*86,9*	*33,9*	*64,0*	*184,8*
high				
freq.	265.485	93.402	239.097	597.984
(%)	*83,5*	*29,4*	*75,2*	188,1

Table 31 - Characteristics a job should heve to support long-term family choices by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - type of activity - sector of activity - presence of children (multiple response)

	Main characteristics a job should have to support long-term family choices				
	Favourable financial aspects	Flexible working arrangements	Protection measures for women and family	Management aspects to reconcile work and family	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male					
freq.	272.108	57.040	27.556	36.930	393.634
(%)	*80,5*	*16,9*	*8,2*	*10,9*	*116,5*
Female					
freq.	284.665	74.996	52.881	49.553	462.095
(%)	*78,1*	*20,6*	*14,5*	*13,6*	*126,8*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	268.011	64.123	36.982	39.073	408.189
(%)	*81,4*	*19,5*	*11,2*	*11,9*	*124,0*
35-44					
freq.	290.220	68.512	44.864	48.273	451.869
(%)	*77,1*	*18,2*	*11,9*	*12,8*	*120,0*
by level of education					
Low					
freq.	81.307	14.927	8.509	12.170	116.913
(%)	*83,1*	*15,3*	*8,7*	*12,4*	*119,5*
Medium					
freq.	265.516	56.731	38.732	40.514	401.493
(%)	*78,3*	*16,7*	*11,4*	*11,9*	*118,3*
High					
freq.	211.408	60.976	34.604	34.662	341.650
(%)	*78,8*	*22,7*	*12,9*	*12,9*	*127,3*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	305.982	73.975	37.076	49.842	466.875
(%)	*78,7*	*19,0*	*9,5*	*12,8*	*120,0*
Self-employed					
freq.	69.999	23.774	7.699	8.452	109.924
(%)	*79,4*	*27,0*	*8,7*	*9,6*	*124,7*
Not regular employee					
freq.	52.223	11.968	13.003	7.940	85.134
(%)	*82,8*	*19,0*	*20,6*	*12,6*	*135,0*
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq.	203.545	51.907	30.788	30.287	316.527
(%)	*79,5*	*20,3*	*12,0*	*11,8*	*123,6*
Public					
freq.	149.258	32.255	17.259	26.300	225.072
(%)	*79,0*	*17,1*	*9,1*	*13,9*	*119,1*
by presence of children					
With children					
freq.	87.338	19.799	15.531	13.400	136.068
(%)	*75,7*	*17,2*	*13,5*	*11,6*	*118,0*
Without children					
freq.	470.894	112.836	66.314	73.947	723.991
(%)	*79,8*	*19,1*	*11,2*	*12,5*	*122,6*

Table 32 - People perceiving themselves as precarious workers by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male	*(regular employee)*				
freq	37.317		26.678	19.323	83.318
(%)	*44,8*		*30,3*	*23,8*	*100,0*
freq.	21.397	15.920			
(%)	*26,3*	*19,6*			
female					
freq	53.396		20.234	42.218	115.848
(%)	*46,1*		*17,5*	*36,4*	*100,0*
freq.	37.386	16.010			
(%)	*32,3*	*13,8*			
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq	46.671		20.886	45.758	113.315
(%)	*41,2*		*18,4*	*40,4*	*100,0*
freq.	32.258	14.413			
(%)	*28,5*	*12,7*			
35-44					
freq	44.042		24.574	15.783	84.399
(%)	*52,2*		*29,1*	*18,7*	*100,0*
freq.	26.525	17.517			
(%)	*31,4*	*20,8*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	8.834		4.989	7.037	20.860
(%)	*42,3*		*24,0*	*33,7*	*100,0*
freq.	4.224	4.610			
(%)	*20,2*	*22,1*			
Medium					
freq	40.364		14.314	23.824	78.502
(%)	*51,4*		*18,2*	*30,4*	*100,0*
freq.	21.134	19.230			
(%)	*26,9*	*24,5*			
High					
freq	41.516		26.158	30.680	98.354
(%)	*42,2*		*26,6*	*31,2*	*100,0*
freq.	33.425	8.091			
(%)	*34,0*	*8,2*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	55.765			40.833	96.598
(%)	*57,7*			*42,3*	*100,0*
freq.	29.220	26.545			
(%)	*30,2*	*27,5*			
Public					
freq	32.344			19.044	51.388
(%)	*63,0*			*37,0*	*100,0*
freq.	26.959	5.385			
(%)	*52,5*	*10,5*			

Table 32 continues... >>

>> Table 32 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	12.217		5.614	7.386	25.217
(%)	*48,5*		*22,3*	*29,2*	*100,0*
freq.	5.334	6.883			
(%)	*21,2*	*27,3*			
without children					
freq	78.497		39.847	54.155	172.499
(%)	*45,5*		*23,1*	*31,4*	*100,0*
freq.	53.449	25.048			
(%)	*31,0*	*14,5*			

Total missing value for:
sex: 1627
10years age groups: 1078
educational level: 1078
sector of activity: 50807
presence of children: 1078

4.1.4 Transition to adulthood and partnership history (Tables 10; 16-18)

Mean age at leaving parental home to marry or to cohabit is slightly higher for men than for women (27,1versus 25,9). The mean age also rises up to 28,6 as the level of education of respondents increases. So, people well educated seem to postpone their choice to leave parental home. Longer periods of education added to the delay in entering the labour market sustain the growing postponement in leaving parental home.

Mean age at first marriage is almost perfectly correspondent to mean age at leaving family of origin for both women and men. It means that in Italy a traditional model to conceive the family persist. Regular employees seem to leave parental home later than not employed and not regular employees. However it might depend on the level of education.

What about the intentions to start a union?

Among females those who declare the intention to start a union during next three years are more numerous than males. Respondents aged 30-39 years declare positive intentions to start a union. Regular employees have stronger intentions to enter a union than those who are unemployed or not regular employees.

Table 10 - Mean age when people left the family of origin to marry or to cohabit by sex - level of education - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at leaving family to marry or to cohabit			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	27,110	0,0111	27,088-27,132	3,89
female	25,912	0,0098	25,893-25,931	4,30
by level of education				
low	24,653	0,0151	24,623-24,682	3,92
medium	25,901	0,0104	25,881-25,921	4,16
high	28,650	0,0115	28,628-28,673	3,36
by employment status at time of event				
regular employee	26,662	0,0085	26,646-26,679	4,04
not regular employee	26,110	0,0206	26,070-26,150	3,59
not employed	25,051	0,0213	25,010-25,093	4,85
other	29,159	0,0236	29,113-29,205	1,62

Table 16 - Mean age at first marriage by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first marriage			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	27,151	0,0120	27,128-27,175	3,73
female	25,756	0,0010	25,736-25,775	3,96
by employment status at time of event				
regular employee	26,527	0,0089	26,509-26,544	3,91
not regular employee	26,121	0,0234	26,075-26,167	3,36
not employed	25,125	0,0208	25,084-25,166	4,13
other	28,307	0,0252	28,257-28,356	1,25

Table 17 - Mean age at first cohabitation by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first cohabitation			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	27,432	0,0231	27,387-27,477	3,60
female	27,263	0,0265	27,211-27,314	4,76
by employment status at time of event				
regular employee	28,091	0,0186	28,055-28,128	3,40
not regular employee	26,086	0,0405	26,007-26,166	4,02
not employed	25,550	0,0539	25,445-25,656	5,88
other	30,110	0,0307	30,050-30,171	1,45

Table 18 - People who intend to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	39.645	22.490	62.135
(%)	*63,8%*	*36,2%*	*100,0%*
female			
freq.	48.144	18.427	66.571
(%)	*72,3%*	*27,7%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	87.789	40.917	128.706
(%)	*68,2%*	*31,8%*	*100,0%*

Table 18 continues... >>

>> Table 18 (continues)

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	37.218	26.870	64.088
(%)	*58,1%*	*41,9%*	*100,0%*
30-34			
freq.	36.901	5.913	42.814
(%)	*86,2%*	*13,8%*	*100,0%*
35-39			
freq.	9.464	3.256	12.720
(%)	*74,4%*	*25,6%*	*100,0%*
40-44			
freq.	4.806	4.878	9.684
(%)	*49,6%*	*50,4%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	88.389	40.917	129.306
(%)	*68,4%*	*31,6%*	*100,0%*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	5.176	1.652	6.828
(%)	*75,8%*	*24,2%*	*100,0%*
medium			
freq.	40.272	25.035	65.307
(%)	*61,7%*	*38,3%*	*100,0%*
high			
freq.	42.939	14.231	57.170
(%)	*75,1%*	*24,9%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	88.387	40.918	129.305
(%)	*68,4%*	*31,6%*	*100,0%*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	65.014	29.230	94.244
(%)	*69,0%*	*31,0%*	*100,0%*
not employed			
freq.	6.947	2.917	9.864
(%)	*70,4%*	*29,6%*	*100,0%*
inactive			
freq.	16.427	8.204	24.631
(%)	*66,7%*	*33,3%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	88.388	40.351	128.739
(%)	*68,7%*	*31,3%*	*100,0%*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	42.351	18.050	60.401
(%)	*70,1%*	*29,9%*	*100,0%*
self-employed			
freq.	10.127	4.086	14.213
(%)	*71,3%*	*28,7%*	*100,0%*
not regular employee			
freq.	12.536	7.094	19.630
(%)	*63,9%*	*36,1%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	65.014	29.230	94.244
(%)	*69,0%*	*31,0%*	*100,0%*

4.1.5 Fertility choices and intentions (Tables 8-9; 11-15)

If we consider the realized fertility, Table 8 shows that the average number of children is considerably lower than the population substitution threshold for both women and men. As the age rises, the average number of children increases up to 1,3 among those aged 40-44 years. Moreover, the higher the level of education, the lower the average number of children. It could mean that people more educated are more interested in reaching a stable economic position as well as in career progression. In general, among those who have children the average age of the youngest child is 6 years, but if we consider only those who have children <=5 years the number drops significantly to 2,5 years. As young-adults respondents seem to postpone their leaving home, they also have a considerable delay in having the first child. The mean age at first child is 29 years for women and about 31 years for men. The mean age for regular employees people is constantly higher than the one for not regular employees and not employed. Thus, it could be due to gender and educational level differences among the respondents.

As expected, the highest age on average to have a child is higher for men than for women (41,4 versus 39,3). As the respondents' age rises the highest age to have a child steadily increases. The higher the level of education, the higher the age to have a child. In general, those who have high level of education seem to postpone their family plans.

If we pass on to consider the desired number of children, we can observe an interesting figure. Table 13 shows that the desired number of children for both women and men is significantly higher than the population substitution threshold (2,4 for men and 2,3 for women). This local data, referred to Rome, is slightly higher than those available at national level. This could suggest that there is a "context effect" due to the metropolitan character of a city as Rome. The desired number of children increases as the age of respondents rises, while it steadily decreases as the level of education grows. Not employed and self-employed people show the highest desired number of children.

If we consider the intentions to have the first child in the next three years, among females the percentage of those who declare appositive intention is significantly higher than among men (54,3 versus 40,8). The intentions to have the first child characterizes those who are aged 30-39 years, with lower levels of education and who are regular employed.

But if we consider the intentions to have another child, the figures considerably change. In fact, men more than women declare the intention to have another child (32,4% versus 24,9%).

It could indirectly confirm that the burden of work related to child-care on the one hand and the problems of work-family reconciliation on the other hand concern women more than men; so that women, after the first child, are less favourably disposed to have another child. Also the age range is shorter than the previous one: in fact the intentions to have another child are more evident among those who are aged 30-34 years (50,9%). Moreover, the higher the level of education, the higher the percentage of those who declare the intention to have another child.

Regular as well as not regular employed people do not show significant differences.

Table 8 - Average number of children by sex - 5year age groups - level of education

	Average number of children			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	0,592	0,0013	0,589-0,595	0,87
female	0,776	0,0014	0,773-0,778	0,95
by 5year age groups				
25-29	0,098	0,0010	0,096-0,100	0,45
30-34	0,351	0,0014	0,349-0,354	0,67
35-39	0,865	0,0018	0,861-0,868	0,91
40-44	1,324	0,0020	1,320-1,328	0,98
by level of education				
low	1,183	0,0032	1,177-1,190	1,10
medium	0,715	0,0014	0,713-0,718	0,91
high	0,486	0,0013	0,484-0,489	0,79

Excluded case for sex: 2870

Table 9 - Average age of the youngest child...

	Average age of the youngest child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
...Among those who have children			(lower bound-upper bound)	
	6,028	0,0128	6,003-6,053	4,79
...Among those who have children aged <=5 years				
	2,487	0,0038	2,479-2,495	1,57

Table 11 - Mean age at first child by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	30,724	0,0131	30,698-30,750	5,05
female	28,942	0,0112	28,920-28,963	5,02
by employment status at time of event				
regular employee	30,334	0,0091	30,316-30,352	4,72
not regular employee	29,290	0,0402	29,212-29,369	5,86
not employed	27,195	0,0230	27,149-27,240	5,63
other	29,934	0,0594	29,818-30,051	2,00

Tabel 12 - Highest age on average to have a child by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Highest age on average to have a child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	41,396	0,0106	41,376-41,417	6,68
female	39,344	0,0069	39,330-39,358	4,50
by 5year age groups				
25-29	38,483	0,0128	38,458-38,508	5,37
30-34	40,017	0,0114	39,995-40,039	5,32
35-39	41,355	0,0107	41,334-41,376	5,02
40-44	41,236	0,0148	41,207-41,265	6,73
by level of education				
low	39,241	0,0201	39,202-39,280	6,72
medium	40,122	0,0095	40,103-40,141	5,98
high	41,046	0,0089	41,028-41,063	4,93
by employment status				
employed	40,675	0,0075	40,660-40,690	5,92
not employed	40,272	0,0221	40,229-40,315	4,82
inactive	38,994	0,0133	38,968-39,020	5,05
by type of activity				
regular employee	40,551	0,0088	40,534-40,569	5,85
self employed	41,956	0,0185	41,920-41,992	6,11
not regular employee	39,545	0,0210	39,503-39,586	5,67

Table 13 - Desired number of children on average by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Desired number of children on average			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	2,402	0,0019	2,398-2,405	1,21
female	2,392	0,0015	2,389-2,395	0,96
by 5year age groups				
25-29	2,365	0,0020	2,361-2,369	0,83
30-34	2,301	0,0020	2,297-2,305	0,97
35-39	2,385	0,0023	2,380-2,389	1,09
40-44	2,533	0,0029	2,528-2,539	1,35
by level of education				
low	2,450	0,0033	2,444-2,457	1,11
medium	2,434	0,0018	2,430-2,437	1,15
high	2,331	0,0017	2,328-2,335	0,99
by employment status				
employed	2,380	0,0014	2,377-2,382	1,10
not employed	2,501	0,0045	2,489-2,507	1,00
inactive	2,444	0,0028	2,439-2,450	1,06
by type of activity				
regular employee	2,386	0,0016	2,383-2,390	1,09
self employed	2,392	0,0037	2,385-2,400	1,25
not regular employee	2,313	0,0035	2,306-2,320	0,95

Table 14 - People who declare the intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	89.941	130.498	220.439
(%)	*40,8%*	*59,2%*	*100,0%*
female			
freq.	103.967	87.521	191.488
(%)	*54,3%*	*45,7%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	193.908	218.019	411.927
(%)	*47,1%*	*52,9%*	*100,0%*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	45.736	104.873	150.609
(%)	*30,4%*	*69,6%*	*100,0%*
30-34			
freq.	84.273	53.672	137.945
(%)	*61,1%*	*38,9%*	*100,0%*
35-39			
freq.	51.050	27.709	78.759
(%)	*64,8%*	*35,2%*	*100,0%*
40-44			
freq.	12.850	31.764	44.614
(%)	*28,8%*	*71,2%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	193.909	218.018	411.927
(%)	*47,1%*	*52,9%*	*100,0%*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	18.645	13.388	32.033
(%)	*58,2%*	*41,8%*	*100,0%*
medium			
freq.	87.259	107.108	194.367
(%)	*44,9%*	*55,1%*	*100,0%*
high			
freq.	88.003	97.523	185.526
(%)	*47,4%*	*52,6%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	193.907	218.019	411.926
(%)	*47,1%*	*52,9%*	*100,0%*

Table 14 continues... >>

>> Table 14 (continues)

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	159.409	145.350	304.759
(%)	*52,3%*	*47,7%*	*100,0%*
not employed			
freq.	11.367	20.463	31.830
(%)	*35,7%*	*64,3%*	*100,0%*
inactive			
freq.	23.132	51.640	74.772
(%)	*30,9%*	*69,1%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	193.908	217.453	411.361
(%)	*47,1%*	*52,9%*	*100,0%*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	105.783	90.320	196.103
(%)	*53,9%*	*46,1%*	*100,0%*
self-employed			
freq.	30.067	25.975	56.042
(%)	*53,7%*	*46,3%*	*100,0%*
not regular employee			
freq.	23.559	29.054	52.613
(%)	*44,8%*	*55,2%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	159.409	145.349	304.758
(%)	*52,3%*	*47,7%*	*100,0%*

Missing values for sex by intention to have first child: 453.669
Missing values for 5-year age groups by intention to have first child: 453.669
Missing values for educational level by intention to have first child: 453.669
Missing values for employment status by intention to have first child: 454.235
Missing values for working activity by intention to have first child: 560.837

Table 15 - People who declare the intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	43.932	91.562	135.494
(%)	*32,4%*	*67,6%*	*100,0%*
female			
freq.	45.664	137.979	183.643
(%)	*24,9%*	*75,1%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	89.596	229.541	319.137
(%)	*28,1%*	*71,9%*	*100,0%*

Table 15 continues... >>

>> Table 15 (continues)

	Intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	3.177	5.539	8.716
(%)	*36,5%*	*63,5%*	*100,0%*
30-34			
freq.	23.782	22.898	46.680
(%)	*50,9%*	*49,1%*	*100,0%*
35-39			
freq.	39.241	69.129	108.370
(%)	*36,2%*	*63,8%*	*100,0%*
40-44			
freq.	23.396	131.974	155.370
(%)	*15,1%*	*84,9%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	89.596	229.540	319.136
(%)	*28,1%*	*71,9%*	*100,0%*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	11.745	53.773	65.518
(%)	*17,9%*	*82,1%*	*100,0%*
medium			
freq.	36.156	122.645	158.801
(%)	*22,8%*	*77,2%*	*100,0%*
high			
freq.	41.694	53.123	94.817
(%)	*44,0%*	*56,0%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	89.595	229.541	319.136
(%)	*28,1%*	*71,9%*	*100,0%*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	72.992	179.374	252.366
(%)	*28,9%*	*71,1%*	*100,0%*
not employed			
freq.	3.875	9.163	13.038
(%)	*29,7%*	*70,3%*	*100,0%*
inactive			
freq.	12.728	40.331	53.059
(%)	*24,0%*	*76,0%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	89.595	228.868	318.463
(%)	*28,1%*	*71,9%*	*100,0%*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	59.157	144.512	203.669
(%)	*29,0%*	*71,0%*	*100,0%*
self-employed			
freq.	10.093	26.770	36.863
(%)	*27,4%*	*72,6%*	*100,0%*
not regular employee			
freq.	3.743	8.765	12.508
(%)	*29,9%*	*70,1%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	72.993	180.047	253.040
(%)	*28,8%*	*71,2%*	*100,0%*

Missing values for sex by intention to have another child: 546.459
Missing values for 5-year age groups by intention to have another child: 546.459
Missing values for educational level by intention to have another child: 546.459

4.1.6 Time use and work-family reconciliation (Tables 33-43)

The percentage of women who spend time for housekeeping is much higher than men. These figures confirm that there are still some problems with sharing roles and duties in couples. One woman out of four spends on average from 2 to 4 hours a day for housekeeping, while the same percentage of men spends less than 30 minutes a day for this duty.

However, it is interesting to observe that among youngest age groups the percentage of those who dedicate more time to housekeeping is higher than among the older ones. Then, when we consider the daily time spent for taking care of the family, the figures are much more evident. The percentage of women who spend 4 and more hours a day for family care is more than double that of men (49,8% versus 22,1%). However, there is a 37,6% of men who dedicate from 2 to 4 hours a day to this duty. There are no significant differences among age groups, while the household composition seems to make the difference. Those who are living in couple /alone with children spend much more time for family care activities than those who live in couple. The employment condition and the type of activity seem to influence the possibility to spend time for family care. The time spent on average for family care reduces sharply as people are employed and vice versa.

People have also some problems of mobility. Both men and women spend on average from 30 minutes to 1 hour to getting around the city.

If we consider the daily time spent on average for paid work, it is worth stressing some significant gender differences. There are considerably more women than men working less than or equal to 6 hours a day (part-time workers): in fact, part-time is conceived by women as a work-family reconciliation measure. The largest number of men works 8 hours a day or more. The household composition seems to influence the time spent for paid work: the presence of children increases the percentage of those who work <=6 hours a day, while among those living in couple the hours daily worked increases up to 8 and more. Having a job and a family with children seems to influence the possibility to have and spend spare time. Females seem having considerably far less spare time than men (62% of women have <=1 hour spare time a day versus 45,7% of men). Living in couple with children as well as having two or more children seems to reduce considerably the availability of spare time. Moreover, if we consider the way of sharing responsibility within the couple in taking care of children, it is worth pointing out that women continue assuming most of child care burden. 64,6% of women declares to take mostly care of their children. Child-care seems also to be a duty of the member of the couple who does not work or who is inactive.

Then, focusing on respondents with children aged <=5 years making use of public or private services, Table 39 shows that those who are living alone with children make the major use of public services (76,8%). Private services are more used by couples with children. This figure could be related to the higher costs of private services, that can be easier sustained by couples than by singles. Nursery, refectory and summer camps seem to be the services mostly used by employed people, trying to reconcile work and family duties. The monthly amount spent for public services seem to be significantly fewer than that for private ones.

In general, respondents seem to be able to reconcile work and family commitments, without significant gender or employment differences. But if we investigate the difficulties that they encounter in reconciling work and family, some interesting aspects emerge. On the one hand, the work burden that has as a consequence working on week-end, the shift work; on the other hand the inflexibility of working hours and the difficulties in reaching the working places (due to distance and traffic).

Table 33 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for housekeeping by sex - 10year age groups - household composition

	Daily time spent for housekeeping (in hours)					
	lowest - 0,30	**0,31-1,00**	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex						
Male						
freq.	49.983	98.150	30.686	6.291	1.400	186.510
(%)	*26,8*	*52,6*	*16,5*	*3,4*	*0,8*	*100,0*
Female						
freq.	11.129	64.021	75.251	60.086	29.169	239.656
(%)	*4,6*	*26,7*	*31,4*	*25,1*	*12,2*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	61.112	162.171	105.937	66.377	30.569	426.166
(%)	*14,3*	*38,1*	*24,9*	*15,6*	*7,2*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	13.909	42.231	24.355	19.115	11.270	110.880
(%)	*12,5*	*38,1*	*22,0*	*17,2*	*10,2*	*100,0*
35-44						
freq.	47.202	120.489	81.582	47.262	20.158	316.693
(%)	*14,9*	*38*	*25,8*	*14,9*	*6,4*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	61.111	162.720	105.937	66.377	31.428	427.573
(%)	*14,3*	*38,1*	*24,8*	*15,5*	*7,4*	*100,0*
Household composition						
In couple						
freq.	38.032	109.107	71.462	41.125	22.255	281.981
(%)	*13,5*	*38,7*	*25,3*	*14,6*	*7,9*	*100,0*
In couple with children						
freq.	21.970	48.559	28.204	21.179	8.625	128.537
(%)	*17,1*	*37,8*	*21,9*	*16,5*	*6,7*	*100,0*
Alone with children						
freq.	1.109	5.055	6.271	4.074	549	17.058
(%)	*6,5*	*29,6*	*36,8*	*23,9*	*3,2*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	61.111	162.721	105.937	66.378	31.429	427.576
(%)	*14,3*	*38,1*	*24,7*	*15,5*	*7,4*	*100,0*

Table 34 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for taking care of the family by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status - type of activity

	Daily time spent for taking care of the family (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01-4,00	4,01 and more	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	28.876	46.270	70.129	41.235	186.510
(%)	*15,5*	*24,8*	*37,6*	*22,1*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	23.447	28.919	67.745	119.545	239.656
(%)	*9,8*	*12,1*	*28,3*	*49,8*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	52.323	75.189	137.874	160.780	426.166
(%)	*12,3*	*17,6*	*32,4*	*37,7*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	16.842	18.280	35.500	40.259	110.881
(%)	*15,2*	*16,5*	*32,0*	*36,3*	*100,0*
35-44					
freq.	35.481	56.909	102.923	121.381	316.694
(%)	*11,2*	*18,0*	*32,5*	*38,3*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	52.323	75.189	138.423	161.640	427.575
(%)	*12,2*	*17,6*	*32,4*	*37,8*	*100,0*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.	38.451	51.074	91.580	100.876	281.981
(%)	*13,6*	*18,1*	*32,5*	*35,8*	*100,0*
In couple with children					
freq.	13.323	20.355	41.027	53.830	128.535
(%)	*10,4*	*15,8*	*31,9*	*41,9*	*100,0*
Alone with children					
freq.	549	3.761	5.815	6.934	17.059
(%)	*3,2*	*22,0*	*34,2*	*40,6*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	52.323	75.190	138.422	161.640	427.575
(%)	*12,2*	*17,6*	*32,4*	*37,8*	*100,0*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	43.939	69.002	121.373	109.572	343.886
(%)	*12,8*	*20,1*	*35,3*	*31,8*	*100,0*
Inactive					
freq.	4.322	5.620	11.600	45.142	66.684
(%)	*6,5*	*8,4*	*17,4*	*67,7*	*100,0*
Not employed					
freq.	4.062	567	4.776	6.926	16.331
(%)	*24,9*	*3,5*	*29,2*	*42,4*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	52.323	75.189	137.749	161.640	426.901
(%)	*12,3*	*17,6*	*32,3*	*37,9*	*100,0*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	30.095	47.833	100.765	85.788	264.481
(%)	*11,4*	*18,1*	*38,1*	*32,4*	*100,0*
Self-employed					
freq.	13.211	16.481	16.601	14.870	61.163
(%)	*21,6*	*26,9*	*27,1*	*24,4*	*100,0*
Not-regular employee					
freq.	633	4.687	4.681	8.914	18.915
(%)	*3,3*	*24,8*	*24,7*	*47,1*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	43.939	69.001	122.047	109.572	344.559

Table 35 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for moving by sex

	Daily time spent for moving (in hours)				
	lowest - 0,30	0,31-1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01 and more	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	46.053	106.997	19.475	6.291	178.816
(%)	*25,8*	*59,8*	*10,9*	*3,5*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	29.648	96.771	30.459	8.318	165.196
(%)	*17,9*	*58,6*	*18,4*	*5,1*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	75.701	203.768	49.934	14.609	344.012
(%)	*22,0*	*59,2*	*14,5*	*4,3*	*100,0*

Table 36 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for paid work by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - household composition

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	6,01-8,00	8,01 and more	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq.	29.790	94.106	54.920	178.816
(%)	*16,7*	*52,6*	*30,7*	*100,0*
Female				
freq.	83.290	63.426	18.480	165.196
(%)	*50,4*	*38,4*	*11,2*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	113.080	157.532	73.400	344.012
(%)	*32,9*	*45,8*	*21,3*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	27.557	42.596	13.892	84.045
(%)	*32,8*	*50,7*	*16,5*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq.	85.523	115.485	59.509	260.517
(%)	*32,8*	*44,3*	*22,8*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	113.080	158.081	73.401	344.562
(%)	*32,8*	*45,9*	*21,3*	*100,0*
Level of education				
Low				
freq.	18.027	25.076	9.888	52.991
(%)	*34,0*	*47,3*	*18,7*	*100,0*
Medium				
freq.	55.119	75.647	33.127	163.893
(%)	*33,6*	*46,2*	*20,2*	*100,0*
High				
freq.	39.934	57.358	30.386	127.678
(%)	*31,3*	*44,9*	*23,8*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	113.080	158.081	73.401	344.562
(%)	*32,8*	*45,9*	*21,3*	*100,0*

Table 36 continues... >>

>> Table 36 (continues)

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	6,01-8,00	8,01 and more	Total
Household composition				
In couple				
freq.	71.762	103.106	50.577	225.445
(%)	*31,8*	*45,7*	*22,5*	*100,0*
In couple with children				
freq.	34.731	50.131	20.910	105.772
(%)	*32,8*	*47,4*	*19,8*	*100,0*
Alone with children				
freq.	6.586	4.844	1.913	13.343
(%)	*49,4*	*36,3*	*14,3*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	113.079	158.081	73.400	344.560
(%)	*32,8*	*45,9*	*21,3*	*100,0*

Table 37 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for spare time by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - number of children (in classes)

	Daily spare time (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01-4,00	4,01 and more	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	85.211	53.156	34.550	13.593	186.510
(%)	*45,7*	*28,5*	*18,5*	*7,3*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	148.526	45.109	31.930	14.091	239.656
(%)	*62,0*	*18,8*	*13,3*	*5,9*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	233.737	98.265	66.480	27.684	426.166
(%)	*54,8*	*23,1*	*15,6*	*6,5*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	57.684	26.262	15.754	11.181	110.881
(%)	*52,0*	*23,7*	*14,2*	*10,1*	*100,0*
35-44					
freq.	177.460	72.003	50.726	16.503	316.692
(%)	*56,0*	*22,7*	*16,1*	*5,2*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	235.144	98.265	66.480	27.684	427.573
(%)	*55,0*	*23,0*	*15,5*	*6,5*	*100,0*

Table 37 continues... >>

>> Table 37 (continues)

	Daily spare time (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01-4,00	4,01 and more	Total
Household composition					
In couple					
freq.	155.914	59.758	50.935	15.373	281.980
(%)	*55,3*	*21,2*	*18,1*	*5,4*	*100,0*
In couple with children					
freq.	72.486	34.936	13.041	8.073	128.536
(%)	*56,4*	*27,1*	*10,1*	*6,4*	*100,0*
Alone with children					
freq.	6.744	3.571	2.505	4.238	17.058
(%)	*39,5*	*20,9*	*14,8*	*24,8*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	235.144	98.265	66.481	27.684	427.574
(%)	*55,0*	*23,0*	*15,5*	*6,5*	*100,0*
Number of children					
No children					
freq.	43.024	29.945	24.230	11.911	109.110
(%)	*39,4*	*27,4*	*22,3*	*10,9*	*100,0*
One child					
freq.	79.230	38.507	15.546	12.311	145.594
(%)	*54,4*	*26,4*	*10,7*	*8,5*	*100,0*
Two or more children					
freq.	112.890	29.813	26.705	3.462	172.870
(%)	*65,3*	*17,2*	*15,4*	*2,1*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	235.144	98.265	66.481	27.684	427.574
(%)	*55,0*	*23,0*	*15,5*	*6,5*	*100,0*

Table 38 - Sharing responsibility in taking care of children by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status

	Persons responsible in taking care of the children				
	Mostly the respondent	Both the respondent and the partner equally	Mostly the partner	Other persons	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	6.999	59.341	62.969	1.337	130.646
(%)	*5,4*	*45,4*	*48,2*	*1,0*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	115.415	56.530	586	6.361	178.892
(%)	*64,5*	*31,6*	*0,3*	*3,6*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	122.414	115.871	63.555	7.698	309.538
(%)	*39,5*	*37,5*	*20,5*	*2,5*	*100,0*

Table 38 continues... >>

>> Table 38 (continues)

	Persons responsible in taking care of the children				
	Mostly the respondent	**Both the respondent and the partner equally**	**Mostly the partner**	**Other persons**	**Total**
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	31.412	16.077	7.370	1.537	56.396
(%)	*55,7*	*28,5*	*13,1*	*2,7*	*100,0*
35-44					
freq.	91.861	99.795	56.185	6.710	254.551
(%)	*36,1*	*39,2*	*22,1*	*2,6*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	123.273	115.872	63.555	8.247	310.947
(%)	*39,6*	*37,3*	*20,4*	*2,7*	*100,0*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.	66.952	67.665	32.375	4.871	171.863
(%)	*39,0*	*39,4*	*18,8*	*2,8*	*100,0*
In couple with children					
freq.	42.986	48.206	31.179	1.547	123.918
(%)	*34,7*	*38,9*	*25,2*	*1,2*	*100,0*
Alone with children					
freq.	13.334	ata (without partner)	ta (without partner)	1.829	15.163
(%)	*87,9*			*12,1*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	123.272	115.871	63.554	8.247	310.944
(%)	*39,6*	*37,3*	*20,4*	*2,7*	*100,0*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	72.915	101.550	60.446	8.247	243.158
(%)	*30,0*	*41,8*	*24,8*	*3,4*	*100,0*
Inactive					
freq.	42.192	10.423	1.494	no data available	54.109
(%)	*78,0*	*19,3*	*2,7*		*100,0*
Not employed					
freq.	7.492	3.898	1.614	no data available	13.004
(%)	*57,6*	*30,0*	*12,4*		*100,0*
Total					
freq.	122.599	115.871	63.554	8.247	310.271
(%)	*39,5*	*37,3*	*20,5*	*2,7*	*100,0*

Table 39 - Current use of public or private services by household composition - employment status (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Sector of services currently used		
	Public	Private	Total
by household composition			
In couple			
freq.	37.032	12.692	49.724
(%)	*74,5*	*25,5*	*100,0*
In couple with children			
freq.	15.544	13.876	29.420
(%)	*52,8*	*47,2*	*100,0*
Alone with children			
freq.	2.139	647	2.786
(%)	*76,8*	*23,2*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	54.715	27.215	81.930
(%)	*66,8*	*33,2*	*100,0*
by employment status			
Employed			
freq.	44.630	16.933	61.563
(%)	*72,5*	*27,5*	*100,0*
Inactive			
freq.	9.486	8.561	18.047
(%)	*52,6*	*47,4*	*100,0*
Not employed			
freq.	599	1.721	2.320
(%)	*25,8*	*74,2*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	54.715	27.215	81.930
(%)	*66,8*	*33,2*	*100,0*

Table 40 - Kind of services used by employment status - type of activity (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Kind of services currently used								
	Micro-nursery	Nursery	Pre-After opening time school	Summer holidays services	Baby sitter	Transfer home/school	Refectory	Tagesmutter (Germany)	Total
by employment status	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*	*% on cases*
Employed									
freq.	5.162	53.125	-	6.347	2.949	-	7.457	-	75.039
(%)	*8,5*	*87,1*	-	*10,4*	*4,8*	-	*12,2*	-	*123,0*
Inactive									
freq.	1.227	17.299	-	1.496	859	-	479	-	21.362
(%)	*6,8*	*95,9*	-	*8,3*	*4,8*	-	*2,7*	-	*118,4*
Not employed									
freq.	-	1.765	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.765
(%)	-	*100,0*	-	-	-	-	-	-	*100,0*
by type of activity									
Regular employee									
freq.	5.162	41.281	-	5.798	2.400	-	6.120	-	60.762
(%)	*10,6*	*84,9*	-	*11,9*	*4,9*	-	*12,6*	-	*125,0*
Self-employed									
freq.	-	8.113	-	549	549	-	1.337	-	10.547
(%)	-	*93,7*	-	*6,3*	*6,3*	-	*15,4*	-	*121,8*
Not regular employee									
freq.	-	3.730	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.730
(%)	-	*100,0*	-	-	-	-	-	-	*100,0*

Table 41 - Monthly amount spent on average for services for children by kind of services - sector of services

	Monthly amount spent on average for services for children			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by kind of services			(lower bound-upper bound)	
Micro-nursery	237,71	2,0633	233,667-241,757	164,9
Nursery	146,34	0,5737	145,211-147,460	154,1
Pre-after opening time school	-	-	-	-
Summer holidays services	84,39	0,5033	83,404-85,378	44,6
Baby sitter	487,39	8,6448	470,438-504,336	533,4
Trasfer home/school	-	-	-	-
Refectory	147,85	1,2654	145,373-150,334	112,7
Tagesmutter (Germany)	-	-	-	-
by sector of services				
Public	99,53	0,4761	98,601-100,467	111,4
Private	279,27	1,5911	276,148-282,386	262,5

Table 42 - People reconciling family commitments with work engagements by sex - household composition - number of children

	Do you reconcile work and family?			
	Yes	Hardly	No	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq.	111.652	56.576	6.620	174.848
(%)	*63,9*	*32,4*	*3,7*	*100,0*
Female				
freq.	111.340	48.577	4.790	164.707
(%)	*67,6*	*29,5*	*2,9*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	222.992	105.153	11.410	339.555
(%)	*65,6*	*31,0*	*3,4*	*100,0*
by household composition				
In couple				
freq.	142.061	75.153	7.577	224.791
(%)	*63,2*	*33,4*	*3,4*	*100,0*
In couple with children				
freq.	72.157	27.077	2.736	101.970
(%)	*70,8*	*26,6*	*2,6*	*100,0*
Alone with children				
freq.	8.773	3.472	1.097	13.342
(%)	*65,8*	*26,0*	*8,2*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	222.991	105.702	11.410	340.103
(%)	*65,5*	*31,1*	*3,4*	*100,0*

Tabel 42 continues... >>

>> Table 42 (continues)

	Do you reconcile work and family?			
	Yes	**Hardly**	**No**	**Total**
by number of children				
No children				
freq.	69.371	21.856	3.932	95.159
(%)	*72,9*	*23,0*	*4,1*	*100,0*
One child				
freq.	80.930	30.549	3.834	115.313
(%)	*70,2*	*26,5*	*3,3*	*100,0*
Two or more children				
freq.	72.691	53.297	3.645	129.633
(%)	*56,1*	*41,1*	*2,8*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	222.992	105.702	11.411	340.105
(%)	*65,5*	*31,1*	*3,4*	*100,0*

Table 43 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family by sex - household composition - type of activity (multiple response)

	Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family							
	Shiftwork/work on week-end/too much burden	**Inflexibility of working hours**	**Frequent business trip**	**Too long distance to reach the working place**	**Inflexibility of school opening time and lack of care services**	**Too high cost of paid care personnel/lack of tax benefit**	**Partner is not collaborating**	**Total**
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male								
freq.	39.887	24.255	2.119	8.992	3.968	-	-	79.221
(%)	*69,6*	*42,4*	*3,7*	*15,7*	*6,9*	-	-	*138,3*
Female								
freq.	31.792	23.510	2.320	8.318	7.572	-	-	73.512
(%)	*64,2*	*47,5*	*4,7*	*16,8*	*15,3*	-	-	*148,4*
by household composition								
In couple								
freq.	49.420	31.722	2.554	10.759	9.857	-	-	104.312
(%)	*66,4*	*42,6*	*3,4*	*14,5*	*13,2*	-	-	*140,2*
In couple with children								
freq.	19.896	13.204	1.337	6.551	1.683	-	-	42.670
(%)	*70,1*	*46,5*	*4,7*	*23,1*	*5,9*	-	-	*150,4*
Alone with children								
freq.	2.912	2.840	549	-	-	-	-	6.300
(%)	*63,7*	*62,1*	*12,0*	-	-	-	-	*137,9*
by type of activity								
Regular employee								
freq.	50.836	40.790	2.479	14.166	10.916	-	-	119.186
(%)	*61,5*	*49,4*	*3,0*	*17,1*	*13,2*	-	-	*144,3*
Self-employed								
freq.	17.586	6.415	1.337	1.744	-	-	-	27.082
(%)	*86,3*	*31,5*	*6,6*	*8,6*	-	-	-	*132,8*
Not regular employee								
freq.	3.805	561	624	1.400	624	-	-	7.014
(%)	*87,2*	*12,8*	*14,3*	*32,1*	*14,3*	-	-	*160,6*

4.2 GERMANY

4.2.1 General information (Tables 1-7)

In Hamburg the sample is equally distributed between age groups and sexes. Respondents with medium education (24% of the sample) are less frequent than respondents with low and high education (respectively, 40% and 36%). Women are slightly less educated than men. Respondents with a medium level of education are more represented in the youngest age group, as expected if at least a share of them still studies in order to get a higher degree; the percentage of respondents with a high education increases with age, with the exception of the last age group (this probably reflects an increase in schooling in the last decades).

In Hamburg being married is less usual than in the other European cities: about 60% of men and 50% of women have never married, though they may live with a partner. As expected the percentage of people married increases by age, from 19% in the age group 25-29 to 45% in the age group 40-44. At the same time also the percentage of respondents who are separated, divorced or widow increases with age from a negligible percentage in the 25-29 age groups up to 22% in the last age group.

The large majority of men and women are employed in Hamburg (91% and 78% respectively). Hamburg has one of the most dynamic labour market in Germany and unemployment is relatively low. In our sample the share of unemployed men and women does not bypass the 5% (3% for men). Among the inactive there is a clear prevalence of women, people below age 35 and with a medium level of education. While some of these inactive are full-time university students, more than half of the students work "some hours" during the week preceding the interview. The inactive students are those with a lower level of education represent an exception. Among those who declared to be mainly house workers, about 30% worked in the last week at least some hours, on average about 11. Among the employed, slightly less than 70% have a permanent position. Self employed men are 19%, while women represent only the 14%. One fourth of the highly educated people works as self-employed. About 4% of men and the double of women (8%) have a not regular contract, and 10% of both sexes work as regular employees with a fixed-term contract.

Holding a not regular contract is typical for the younger age group of respondents with a medium level of education. A permanent position is more characteristic for respondents with a low level of education, and more common in the private sector than in the public one. In the public sector about 18% of contracts are fixed term contracts, as compared to 9% of the private one.

Virtually all respondents already left the parental home at the time of the interview. 35% of the sample lives alone, around 20% lives with a partner, 33% lives with partner and children. Women experience union or childbearing earlier then men, as expected. The percentage of individuals living alone decreases with age, while those living with partner and children are more represented in the older age group than couples without children. Most of the inactive respondents live in couple and with children, (probably the women house workers). as well as regular employees.

About 80% of respondents live in a rented accommodation at the moment of the interview. Among those who own their accommodation individuals living in couple and even more couple and with children is over represented.

Table 1 - Sample population by sex and 5year age groups

	5 year age groups				
	25-29	**30-34**	**35-39**	**40-44**	**Total**
by sex					
male					
abs.value	65.230	71.523	86.086	76.838	299.677
(%)	*21,8*	*23,9*	*28,7*	*25,6*	*100,0*
female					
abs.value	66.043	66.966	76.854	70.727	280.590
(%)	*23,5*	*23,9*	*27,4*	*25,2*	*100,0*
Total					
abs. value	131.273	138.489	162.940	147.565	580.267
(%)	*22,6*	*23,9*	*28,1*	*25,4*	*100,0*

Table 2 - Educational level by sex and 5year age groups

	Educational level			
	low education	**medium education**	**high education**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	114.852	74.632	110.193	299.677
(%)	*38,3*	*24,9*	*36,8*	*100,0*
female				
freq.	116.797	62.738	99.956	279.491
(%)	*41,8*	*22,4*	*35,8*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	231.649	137.370	210.149	579.168
(%)	*40,0*	*23,7*	*36,3*	*100,0*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	47.514	51.736	32.023	131.273
(%)	*36,2*	*39,4*	*24,4*	*100,0*
30-34				
freq.	58.847	24.449	55.193	138.489
(%)	*42,5*	*17,7*	*39,9*	*100,0*
35-39				
freq.	58.540	28.393	75.421	162.354
(%)	*36,1*	*17,5*	*46,5*	*100,0*
40-44				
freq.	66.748	32.793	47.512	147.053
(%)	*45,4*	*22,3*	*32,3*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	231.649	137.371	210.149	579.169
(%)	*40,0*	*23,7*	*36,3*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:

educational level 1.099

Table 3 - Marital status by sex and 5year age groups

	Marital status			
	married	**never married**	**other**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	92.825	181.157	25.695	299.677
(%)	*31,0*	*60,5*	*8,6*	*100,0*
female				
freq.	109.592	139.080	31.918	280.590
(%)	*39,1*	*49,6*	*11,4*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	202.417	320.237	57.613	580.267
(%)	*34,9*	*55,2*	*9,9*	*100,0*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	24.955	105.132	-	131.273
(%)	*19,0*	*80,1*	-	*100,0*
30-34				
freq.	45.494	85.856	-	138.489
(%)	*32,9*	*62,0*	*5,2*	*100,0*
35-39				
freq.	65.497	80.762	16.681	162.940
(%)	*40,2*	*49,6*	*10,2*	*100,0*
40-44				
freq.	66.471	48.487	32.607	147.565
(%)	*45,0*	*32,9*	*22,1*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	202.417	320.237	57.613	580.267
(%)	*34,9*	*55,2*	*9,9*	*100,0*

Table 4 - Employment status by sex - 10year age groups - educational level

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Not Employed**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq	272.497	17.826	-	299.118
(%)	*91,1*	*6,0*	*2,9*	*100,0*
student				
freq	12.549	-	-	21.126
(%)	*59,4*	*37,8*	*2,8*	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	559
(%)	-	*100,0*	-	*100,0*
female				
freq	216.251	48.975	13.636	278.862
(%)	*77,5*	*17,6*	*4,9*	*100,0*
student				
freq	13.685	-	-	24.981
(%)	*54,8*	*38,4*	*6,8*	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	21.746	-	33.971
(%)	*29,6*	*64,0*	*6,4*	*100,0*

Table 4 continues... >>

>> Table 4 (continues)

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Not Employed**	**Total**
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	220.328	36.955	-	268.620
(%)	*82,0*	*13,8*	*4,2*	*100,0*
student				
freq	26.235	15.402	-	43.938
(%)	*59,7*	*35,1*	*5,2*	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	12.574
(%)	*18,2*	*72,7*	*9,1*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq	268.420	29.845	-	309.359
(%)	*86,8*	*9,6*	*3,6*	*100,0*
student				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	*100,0*	-	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	13.163	-	21.956
(%)	*35,4*	*60,0*	*4,7*	*100,0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	193.145	28.104	-	230.520
(%)	*83,8*	*12,2*	*4,0*	*100,0*
student				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	*33,3*	*58,2*	*8,5*	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	16.791
(%)	*26,4*	*63,8*	*9,9*	*100,0*
Medium				
freq	107.785	22.641	-	136.798
(%)	*78,8*	*16,6*	*4,7*	*100,0*
student				
freq	17.276	-	-	29.340
(%)	*58,9*	*37,2*	*4,0*	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	*22,1*	*71,2*	*6,7*	*100,0*
High				
freq	186.718	16.055	-	209.561
(%)	*89,1*	*7,7*	*3,2*	*100,0*
student				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	*66,8*	*27,6*	*5,6*	*100,0*
house workers				
freq	-	-	0	-
(%)	*39,0*	*61,0*	*0,0*	*100,0*
Total				
freq	488.748	66.801	22.431	577.980
(%)	*84,6*	*11,6*	*3,9*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:

educational level	1.099
employment status	2.287

Table 5 - Type of activity by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male	*(regular employee)*				
freq	207.524		50.881	-	268.973
(%)	77,2		18,9	3,9	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	27.693	179.831			
(%)	10,3	66,9			
female	*(regular employee)*				
freq	165.474		29.932	17.010	212.416
(%)	77,9		14,1	8,0	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	21.982	143.492			
(%)	10,3	67,6			
by 10years age groups					
25-34	*(regular employee)*				
freq	169.234		30.054	17.621	216.909
(%)	78,1		13,9	8,1	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	28.754	140.480			
(%)	13,3	64,8			
35-44	*(regular employee)*				
freq	203.763		50.759	-	264.479
(%)	77,0		19,2	3,8	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	20.921	182.842			
(%)	7,9	69,1			
by educational level					
Low	*(regular employee)*				
freq	164.811		18.621	-	190.782
(%)	86,4		9,8	3,9	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	17.017	147.794			
(%)	8,9	77,5			
Medium	*(regular employee)*				
freq	75.617		17.631	-	105.002
(%)	72,0		16,8	11,2	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	-	66.894			
(%)	8,3	63,7			
High	*(regular employee)*				
freq	131.470		44.561	-	184.505
(%)	71,3		24,2	4,6	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	23.935	107.535			
(%)	13,0	58,3			
by sector of activity					
Private	*(regular employee)*				
freq	258.114			16.052	274.166
(%)	94,1			5,9	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	26.895	231.219			
(%)	9,8	84,3			
Public	*(regular employee)*				
freq	114.312			-	122.116
(%)	93,6			6,4	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	22.208	92.104			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
	(regular employee)				
freq	372.998		80.813	27.578	481.389
(%)	77,5		16,8	5,7	100,0
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
freq	49.675	323.323			
(%)	10,3	67,2			

Total missing value for:

educational level 1.099

Table 6 - Household composition by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	alone	in couple	in couple with children	other	Total
by sex						
male						
freq.	-	128.394	71.401	77.341	19.717	299.676
(%)	-	*42,8*	*23,8*	*25,8*	*6,6*	*100,0*
female						
freq.	-	72.552	46.504	116.115	44.846	280.589
(%)	-	*25,9*	*16,6*	*41,4*	*16,0*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	-	200.946	117.905	193.456	64.563	580.265
(%)	-	*34,6*	*20,3*	*33,3*	*11,1*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	-	102.446	69.356	64.674	29.891	269.762
(%)	-	*38,0*	*25,7*	*24,0*	*11,1*	*100,0*
35-44						
freq.	-	98.500	48.549	128.783	34.673	310.505
(%)	-	*31,7*	*15,6*	*41,5*	*11,2*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	-	200.946	117.905	193.457	64.564	580.267
(%)	-	*34,6*	*20,3*	*33,3*	*11,1*	*100,0*
by level of education						
low						
freq.	-	75.715	38.988	89.732	25.527	231.649
(%)	-	*32,7*	*16,8*	*38,7*	*11,0*	*100,0*
medium						
freq.	-	49.548	27.099	36.029	22.986	137.370
(%)	-	*36,1*	*19,7*	*26,2*	*16,7*	*100,0*
high						
freq.	-	75.171	51.817	67.109	16.051	210.148
(%)	-	*35,8*	*24,7*	*31,9*	*7,6*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	-	200.434	117.904	192.870	64.564	579.167
(%)	-	*34,6*	*20,4*	*33,3*	*11,1*	*100,0*

Table 6 continues... >>

>> Table 6 (continues)

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	**alone**	**in couple**	**in couple with children**	**other**	**Total**
by employment status						
employed						
freq.	-	177.889	104.722	150.096	53.761	488.748
(%)	-	*36,4*	*21,4*	*30,7*	*11,0*	*100,0*
not employed						
freq.	-	-	-	-	-	22.430
(%)	-	*46,4*	*12,9*	*27,8*	*12,9*	*100,0*
inactive						
freq.	-	12.080	-	35.963	-	66.801
(%)	-	*18,1*	*14,6*	*53,8*	*11,8*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	-	200.374	117.347	192.300	64.563	577.979
(%)	-	*34,7*	*20,3*	*33,3*	*11,2*	*100,0*
by type of activity						
regular employee						
freq.	-	133.793	79.567	118.323	40.150	372.998
(%)	-	*35,9*	*21,3*	*31,7*	*10,8*	*100,0*
self-employed						
freq.	-	29.754	19.464	21.319	-	80.813
(%)	-	*36,8*	*24,1*	*26,4*	*11,3*	*100,0*
not regular employee						
freq.	-	-	-	-	-	27.577
(%)	-	*35,8*	*18,8*	*29,3*	*16,1*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	-	173.409	104.209	147.729	53.761	481.388
(%)	-	*36,0*	*21,6*	*30,7*	*11,2*	*100,0*

Table 7 - Accomodation by household composition

	Accomodation			
	owned	**rented**	**free use**	**Total**
by household composition				
with family of origin				
freq.	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	*50,3*	*49,7*	*100,0*
alone				
freq.	12.920	184.556	-	200.946
(%)	*6,4*	*91,8*	-	*100,0*
in couple				
freq.	19.688	96.949	-	117.905
(%)	*16,7*	*82,2*	-	*100,0*
in couple with children				
freq.	65.915	126.396	-	193.457
(%)	*34,1*	*65,3*	-	*100,0*
other				
freq.	-	53.196	-	64.563
(%)	*14,0*	*82,4*	*3,6*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	107.542	462.805	-	580.266
(%)	*18,5*	*79,8*	-	*100,0*
Missing values accomodation	559			

4.2.2 Employment and job history (Tables 19-29)

The respondents from Hamburg start to work at relatively young ages (21.7 for men and 21.8 for women). Part time jobs are relatively diffused and account for 23% of the regular contracts (in particular 35% of the fixed term contracts and 21% of the unlimited positions), 26% of the self-employed jobs and a very high 87% of the not regular jobs. Part time jobs are typical for women; 44% of women as compared to 13% of men have this kind of contract. Having a part-time contract is also typical for older people, with medium education, who work in the public sector and have children. Part-time workers worked on average 20.9 hours in the week preceding the interview, as compared to the 40.7 hours of the full-time workers. Usually not regular employees work slightly shorter than the average both in part-time and in full-time contracts. If the current or the last working contract respectively began or ended less than three years before the interview, the respondents are also asked about the number of contracts they had during this period. Most of them had 2-3 contracts (65%) and 12% had more than 3 contracts. Only 23% of respondents did not have more than one contract, which for most employed respondents means a relative job stability. Men experienced more contract changes than women, but more often for a voluntary reason (34% of men vs. 27% of women) linked to the hope of having a better job.

For all employed respondents in the sample, by definition the category which experiences the highest number of contract changes is the not regular employee. Only 47% of them had no changes, as compared to the 76% among regular employees and among self-employed.

According to this indicator, job stability seems higher in the public sector than in the private one. For not regular employee and for private ones it is more usual to experience involuntary contract interruptions than for the other categories of workers.

Among those who have had some contract interruptions in the last three years, the longest unemployment period is on average higher than 1 year, but this percentage is much higher for women than for men.

Table 19 - Mean age at first job by sex

	Mean age at first job			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	21,752	0,00786	21.737-21.767	4,13
female	21,840	0,00852	21.824-21.857	4,29

Missing on age at first job 593

Table 20 - People working part-time by type of activity and sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male	*(regular employee)*				
freq	16.259		-	-	34.121
(%)	*7,8*		*20,7*	*75,6*	*12,8*
freq.	-	-			
(%)	*19,1*	*6,1*			
female					
freq	68.047		-	15.868	94.345
(%)	*41,1*		*34,8*	*93,3*	*44,4*
freq.	12.321	55.726			
(%)	*56,1*	*38,8*			
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq	25.583		-	14.771	49.455
(%)	*15,1*		*30,3*	*83,8*	*22,8*
freq.	-	17.099			
(%)	*29,5*	*12,2*			
35-44					
freq	58.723		-	-	79.011
(%)	*28,8*		*23,4*	*92,5*	*30,0*
freq.	-	49.585			
(%)	*43,68*	*27,12*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	32.929		-	-	44.383
(%)	*20,0*		*25,1*	*92,2*	*23,3*
freq.	-	27.422			
(%)	*32,4*	*18,6*			
Medium					
freq	17.233		-	-	33.987
(%)	*22,8*		*39,6*	*88,3*	*32,6*
freq.	-	15.549			
(%)	*19,3*	*23,2*			
High					
freq	33.559		-	-	49.512
(%)	*25,5*		*20,9*	*80,1*	*26,9*
freq.	-	23.128			
(%)	*43,6*	*21,5*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	51.140			14.937	66.077
(%)	*19,8*			*93,1*	*24,1*
freq.	-	42.064			
(%)	*33,7*	*18,2*			
Public					
freq	33.167			-	39.809
(%)	*29,0*			*85,1*	*32,6*
freq.	_	24.620			
(%)	*38,5*	*26,7*			

Table 20 continues... >>

>> Table 20 (continues)

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee	Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term *Permanent*			
by presence of children				
with children				
freq	55.646	-	-	74.191
(%)	*40,2*	*36,8*	*88,6*	*42,5*
freq.	- | 49.073			
(%)	*43,8* *39,7*			
without children				
freq	28.660	-	14.239	54.275
(%)	*12,2*	*20,9*	*85,7*	*17,8*
freq.	- | 17.611			
(%)	*31,9* *8,8*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED				
freq	84.306	20.829	23.331	128.466
(%)	*22,6*	*26,0*	*86,8*	*26,8*
freq.	17.622 | 66.684			
(%)	*35,5* *20,6*			

Total missing value for:

sex	0
10years age groups	0
educational level	587
part-time	3082

Table 21 - Average hours worked for FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Regular Employee	Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term *Permanent*			
by sex				
male				
mean	41,12	47,37	23,83	42,00
st dev	*15,72*	*18,07*	*13,44*	*16,40*
mean	41,97 41,00			
st dev	*11,85* *16,17*			
female				
mean	37,68	40,10	45,01	37,15
st dev	*15,76*	*22,40*	*5,00*	*16,99*
mean	43,95 37,01			
st dev	*13,27* *15,86*			
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
mean	39,75	43,01	37,42	40,11
st dev	*15,45*	*20,03*	*7,15*	*16,02*
mean	40,68 39,60			
st dev	*11,45* *16,03*			
35-44				
mean	40,19	46,11	-	41,28
st dev	*16,17*	*19,68*	-	*17,27*
mean	45,90 39,69			
st dev	*13,08* *16,32*			

Table 21 continues... >>

>> Table 21 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean		38,87	40,05	-	39,02
st dev		*15,92*	*26,24*	-	*17,12*
mean	41,94	38,56			
st dev	*10,51*	*16,34*			
Medium					
mean		40,29	48,47	15,40	41,09
st dev		*13,20*	*20,01*	*13,46*	*15,20*
mean	*40,67*	*40,24*			
st dev	13,44	13,17			
High					
mean		41,18	45,82	35,76	42,29
st dev		*16,97*	*16,32*	*3,27*	*16,84*
mean	44,09	40,73			
st dev	*12,95*	*17,46*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean		40,87		33,60	40,83
st dev		*14,57*		*1,50*	*14,54*
mean	45,21	40,46			
st dev	*7,10*	*15,02*			
Public					
mean		37,68		-	37,64
st dev		*18,44*		-	*18,32*
mean	39,06	37,39			
st dev	*16,27*	*18,85*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean		37,36	38,51	39,82	37,58
st dev		*17,34*	*23,64*	*10,00*	*18,48*
mean	41,87	36,87			
st dev	*12,71*	*17,70*			
without children					
mean		41,01	47,63	26,16	41,98
st dev		*15,04*	*17,47*	*15,17*	*15,75*
mean	42,77	40,78			
st dev	*12,17*	*15,37*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean					
st dev			*45,03*	*30,65*	*40,72*
mean	42,54	39,64	19,86	15,12	16,69
st dev	*12,31*	*16,18*			

Total missing value for:

educational level 513

Table 22 - Average hours worked for PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
mean		24,15	24,77	19,97	23,48
st dev		*11,42*	*12,93*	*14,53*	*12,72*
mean	26,80	23,12			
st dev	*8,19*	*12,56*			
female					
mean		21,79	14,34	16,04	19,98
st dev		*13,03*	*10,07*	*12,01*	*12,89*
mean	19,92	22,18			
st dev	*14,74*	*12,61*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean		21,77	17,90	19,79	20,42
st dev		*12,32*	*13,57*	*14,47*	*13,33*
mean	22,15	21,59			
st dev	*11,80*	*12,54*			
35-44					
mean		22,47	20,82	12,49	21,25
st dev		*12,93*	*11,83*	*7,49*	*12,68*
mean	21,82	22,59			
st dev	*14,45*	*12,62*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean		21,96	16,46	17,08	20,60
st dev		*13,85*	*10,57*	*10,62*	*13,26*
mean	16,73	22,93			
st dev	*13,16*	*13,76*			
Medium					
mean		22,12	17,64	15,22	19,22
st dev		*9,24*	*13,16*	*11,95*	*11,37*
mean	19,86	22,37			
st dev	*4,02*	*9,60*			
High					
mean		22,59	22,57	21,56	22,47
st dev		*13,37*	*12,69*	*16,36*	*13,61*
mean	24,95	21,51			
st dev	*13,57*	*13,13*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean		22,40		18,57	21,60
st dev		*11,98*		*13,21*	*12,34*
mean	19,26	22,99			
st dev	*11,13*	*12,04*			
Public					
mean		22,03		15,37	20,86
st dev		*13,93*		*13,78*	*14,13*
mean	24,48	21,10			
st dev	*14,65*	*13,53*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean		21,86	16,13	12,28	20,05
st dev		*12,98*	*11,53*	*9,77*	*12,92*
mean	21,51	21,91			
st dev	*16,46*	*12,42*			
without children					
mean		23,09	22,39	20,23	22,17
st dev		*12,25*	*12,93*	*13,73*	*12,87*
mean	22,27	23,58			
st dev	*0,11*	*0,10*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean		22,26			
st dev		*12,76*	*19,55*	*17,30*	*20,93*
mean	21,97	22,34	0,09	13,00	12,94
st dev	*13,33*	*12,61*			

Total missing value for:

educational level	587

Table 23 - Number of contracts during the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Number of contracts			
	1	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq	15.482	66.902	12.375	94.759
(%)	*16,3*	*70,6*	*13,1*	*100,0*
Female				
freq	26.919	54.491	-	91.537
(%)	*29,4*	*59,5*	*11,1*	*100,0*
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	26.565	70.652	16.717	113.934
(%)	*23,3*	*62,0*	*14,7*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq	15.836	50.741	-	72.362
(%)	*21,9*	*70,1*	*8,0*	*100,0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	16.525	38.376	-	62.266
(%)	*26,5*	*61,6*	*11,8*	*100,0*
Medium				
freq	12.430	26.155	-	44.191
(%)	*28,1*	*59,2*	*12,7*	*100,0*
High				
freq	13.445	56.350	-	79.326
(%)	*16,9*	*71,0*	*12,0*	*100,0*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	30.058	106.556	19.079	155.693
(%)	*19,3*	*68,4*	*12,3*	*100,0*
Inactive				
freq	-	-	-	18.698
(%)	*50,9*	*49,1*		*100,0*
Not employed				
freq	-	-	-	10.790
(%)	*26,2*	*52,4*	*21,4*	*100,0*
Total workers with job history				
freq	42.401	121.393	22.502	186.296
(%)	*22,8*	*65,2*	*12,1*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:

educational level	513
current employment condition	1115
Number of contracts	1156

Table 24 - Contract changes during the last three years by type of activity (for employed)

	Contract changes				
	0	**1-2**	**3+**		**Total**
by type of activity					
Regular employed					
freq	282.480	78.834	-		372.998
(%)	*75,7*	*21,1*	*3,1*		*100,0*
Self-employed					
freq	61.493	15.818	-		80.812
(%)	*76,1*	*19,6*	*4,3*		*100,0*
Not regular employed					
freq	12.833	-	-		26.991
(%)	*47,5*	*40,0*	*12,5*		*100,0*
Total					
freq	356.806	105.438	18.557		480.801
(%)	*74,2*	*21,9*	*3,9*		*100,0*

Total missing value for:

type of activity *587,00*

Table 25 - Contract changes during the last three years by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Contract changes				
	0	**1-2**	**3+**		**Total**
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	196.819	67.858	-		273.579
(%)	*71,9*	*24,8*	*3,3*		*100,0*
Public					
freq	95.359	20.603	-		122.116
(%)	*78,1*	*16,9*	*5,0*		*100,0*
Total					
freq	292.178	88.461	15.056		395.695
(%)	*73,8*	*22,4*	*3,8*		*100,0*

Total missing value for:

sector of activity 587

Table 26 - Reasons for job changes by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	Non voluntary	Other	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq	27.102	38.543	13.632	79.277
(%)	*34,2*	*48,6*	*17,2*	*100,0*
Female				
freq	17.872	33.738	13.595	65.205
(%)	*27,4*	*51,7*	*20,8*	*100,0*
by 10 years age groups				
25-34				
freq	26.901	40.786	19.682	87.369
(%)	*30,8*	*46,7*	*22,5*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq	18.073	31.495	-	57.113
(%)	*31,6*	*55,1*	*13,2*	*100,0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	-	26.108	-	46.327
(%)	*21,7*	*56,4*	*22,0*	*100,0*
Medium				
freq	-	16.452	-	31.761
(%)	*26,8*	*51,8*	*21,4*	*100,0*
High				
freq	26.430	29.721	-	65.882
(%)	*40,1*	*45,1*	*14,8*	*100,0*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	41.589	62.012	22.621	126.222
(%)	*32,9*	*49,1*	*17,9*	*100,0*
Inactive				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	*11,3*	*66,2*	*22,5*	*100,0*
Not employed				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	*27,9*	*43,4*	*28,7*	*100,0*
Total workers with job history				
freq	44.974	72.281	27.227	144.482
(%)	*31,1*	*50,0*	*18,8*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:	
educational level	*569,00*
current employment condition	*2287,00*
reasons for job changes	*569,00*

Table 27 - Reasons for job changes by type of activity (for employed)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by type of activity				
Regular employed				
freq	31.573	43.171	15.774	90.518
(%)	*34,9*	*47,7*	*17,4*	*100,0*
Self-employed				
freq	-	-	-	19.319
(%)	*31,4*	*50,9*	*17,7*	*100,0*
Not regular employed				
freq	-	-	-	14.744
(%)	*26,8*	*50,0*	*23,2*	*100,0*
Total				
freq	41.588	60.371	22.622	124.581
(%)	*33,4*	*48,5*	*18,2*	*100,0*

Table 28 - Reasons for job changes by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by sector of activity				
Private				
freq	25.178	37.505	14.664	77.347
(%)	*32,6*	*48,5*	*19,0*	*100,0*
Public				
freq	-	-	-	26.757
(%)	*38,7*	*44,4*	*16,9*	*100,0*
Total				
freq	35.527	49.382	19.195	104.104
(%)	*34,1*	*47,4*	*18,4*	*100,0*

Table 29 - Longest unemployment period in the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition - type of activity - sector of activity

	Longest unemployment period					
	0	**< 3 months**	**3-6 months**	**7-12 months**	**> 1 year**	**Total**
by sex						
Male						
freq	49.742	13.526	14.784	-	-	94.759
(%)	*52,5*	*14,3*	*15,6*	*12,5*	*5,1*	*100,0*
Female						
freq	37.550	-	17.013	14.735	92.694	173.799
(%)	*21,6*	*6,8*	*9,8*	*8,5*	*53,3*	*100,0*
by 10years age groups						
25-34						
freq	50.486	21.420	21.420	12.310	-	114.504
(%)	*44,1*	*18,7*	*18,7*	*10,8*	*7,7*	*100,0*
35-44						
freq	36.806	-	-	14.289	-	72.949
(%)	*50,5*	*5,4*	*14,2*	*19,6*	*10,4*	*100,0*
by educational level						
Low						
freq	24.024	-	-	-	-	62.853
(%)	*38,2*	*9,9*	*18,7*	*17,4*	*15,8*	*100,0*
Medium						
freq	18.468	-	-	-	-	44.761
(%)	*41,3*	*22,8*	*14,2*	*16,8*	*4,9*	*100,0*
High						
freq	44.800	-	13.165	-	-	79.327
(%)	*56,5*	*11,2*	*16,6*	*10,3*	*5,4*	*100,0*
by current employment condition						
Employed						
freq	78.296	22.460	24.345	19.759	-	156.280
(%)	*50,1*	*14,4*	*15,6*	*12,6*	*7,3*	*100,0*
Inactive						
freq	-	-	-	-	-	20.382
(%)	*27,7*	*8,4*	*22,3*	*25,1*	*16,5*	*100,0*
Not employed						
freq	-	-	-	-	-	-
(%)	*31,1*	*10,8*	*26,9*	*15,9*	*15,3*	*100,0*
by type of activity						
Regular employed						
freq	58.489	16.292	15.430	-	-	109.996
(%)	*53,2*	*14,8*	*14,0*	*10,5*	*7,5*	*100,0*
Self-employed						
freq	-	-	-	-	-	23.176
(%)	*51,5*	*9,5*	*19,0*	*13,2*	*6,9*	*100,0*
Not regular employed						
freq	-	-	-	-	-	20.442
(%)	*28,2*	*19,4*	*22,1*	*22,4*	*7,8*	*100,0*
by sector of activity						
Private						
freq	45.891	14.638	13.544	12.284	-	92.992
(%)	*49,3*	*15,7*	*14,6*	*13,2*	*7,1*	*100,0*
Public						
freq	18.372	-	-	-	-	35.713
(%)	*51,4*	*12,5*	*16,3*	*10,8*	*8,9*	*100,0*
Total workers with job history						
freq	87.292	25.333	31.797	26.599	97.537	268.558
(%)	*32,5*	*9,4*	*11,8*	*9,9*	*36,3*	*100,0*

Total missing value for:

educational level	513
current employment condition	2287

4.2.3 Social representation of work (Tables 30-32)

For the respondents a good job is characterized by a good pay and security (more than 70% of respondents) and to the possibility to express their own skills (more than 60%). The first aspect is especially relevant for low educated people, and the last one for high educated respondents. About 27% of respondents find that good working hours makes the attractiveness of a job rise, especially women, 32% versus the 23% of men. As far as the characteristics that a job should have to support long term family choices, financial aspects and flexible working arrangements are included by the vast majority of respondents. The possibility to have a flexible working arrangement was indicated by the 81% of women, as compared to the 68% of men. Flexible working arrangements were also very important for highly educated people and people with children, while financial aspects were relevant above all for private employees.

Beside the official definition of not-regular employee, a self-impression of being a precarious worker was asked to the respondents. The higher percentage giving this definition of themselves is found between the self-employed (37%), followed by fixed-term employees (33%) and not regular employees (29%).

Table 30 - Social representation of occupation by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - (multiple response)

	Most important aspects in a job			
	Good pay and job security	**Good working hours**	**Job that meets one's abilities**	**Total**
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
male				
freq.	214.071	64.127	182.519	460.717
(%)	*76,8*	*23,0*	*65,5*	*165,4*
female				
freq.	191.287	82.827	162.193	436.307
(%)	*73,4*	*31,8*	*62,2*	*167,4*
Total				
freq.	405.358	146.954	344.712	897.024
(%)	*75,2*	*27,3*	*63,9*	*166,4*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	193.810	69.859	160.828	424.497
(%)	*75,7*	*27,3*	*62,8*	*165,9*
35-44				
freq.	211.548	77.095	183.884	472.527
(%)	*74,7*	*27,2*	*64,9*	*166,8*
Total				
freq.	405.358	146.954	344.712	897.024
(%)	*75,2*	*27,3*	*63,9*	*166,4*
by level of education				
low				
freq.	169.143	64.978	106.559	340.680
(%)	*79,3*	*30,4*	*49,9*	*159,6*
medium				
freq.	91.477	31.651	84.189	207.317
(%)	*72,5*	*25,1*	*66,7*	*164,2*
high				
freq.	143.639	50.326	153.963	347.928
(%)	*72,4*	*25,4*	*77,6*	*175,4*
Total				
freq.	404.259	146.955	344.711	895.925
(%)	*75,1*	*27,3*	*64,1*	*166,5*

Missing
Level of education 1099

Table 31 - Characteristics a job should heve to support long-term family choices by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - type of activity - sector of activity - presence of children (multiple response)

	Main characteristics a job should have to support long-term family choices				
	Favourable financial aspects	**Flexible working arrangements**	**Protection measures for women and family**	**Management aspects to reconcile work and family**	**Total**
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male					
freq.	186.551	189.757	115.654	152.678	644.640
(%)	*67,0*	*68,2*	*41,6*	*54,9*	*231,6*
Female					
freq.	157.463	214.158	163.960	155.513	691.094
(%)	*59,4*	*80,7*	*61,8*	*58,6*	*260,6*
Total					
freq.	344.014	403.915	279.614	308.191	1.335.734
(%)	*63,3*	*74,3*	*51,4*	*56,7*	*245,8*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	166.904	192.039	137.016	146.730	642.689
(%)	*64,4*	*74,1*	*52,9*	*56,6*	*248,0*
35-44					
freq.	177.110	211.877	142.598	161.461	693.046
(%)	*62,3*	*74,5*	*50,2*	*56,8*	*243,8*
Total					
freq.	344.014	403.916	279.614	308.191	1.335.735
(%)	*63,3*	*74,3*	*51,4*	*56,7*	*245,8*
by level of education					
Low					
freq.	137.556	150.896	114.130	112.446	515.028
(%)	*65,5*	*71,8*	*54,3*	*53,5*	*245,1*
Medium					
freq.	86.688	90.756	67.968	68.945	314.357
(%)	*65,2*	*68,3*	*51,1*	*51,9*	*236,5*
High					
freq.	119.184	161.164	96.417	126.800	503.565
(%)	*59,8*	*80,8*	*48,4*	*63,6*	*252,6*
Total					
freq.	343.428	402.816	278.515	308.191	1.332.950
(%)	*63,3*	*74,3*	*51,3*	*56,8*	*245,7*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	220.086	263.807	183.280	198.776	865.949
(%)	*62,9*	*75,4*	*52,4*	*56,8*	*247,5*
Self-employed					
freq.	43.681	54.478	28.776	43.109	170.044
(%)	*59,1*	*73,8*	*39,0*	*58,4*	*230,2*
Not regular employee					
freq.	16.931	20.013	13.976	14.487	65.407
(%)	*61,4*	*72,6*	*50,7*	*52,5*	*237,2*
Total					
freq.	280.698	338.298	226.032	256.372	1.101.400
(%)	*62,2*	*75,0*	*50,1*	*56,8*	*244,0*
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq.	168.883	194.465	130.306	146.907	640.561
(%)	*65,7*	*75,7*	*50,7*	*57,2*	*249,3*
Public					
freq.	65.557	86.331	63.802	63.354	279.044
(%)	*56,4*	*74,3*	*54,9*	*54,5*	*240,2*
Total					
freq.	234.440	280.796	194.108	210.261	919.605
(%)	*62,8*	*75,2*	*52,0*	*56,3*	*246,4*
by presence of children					
With children					
freq.	134.235	164.919	126.670	127.566	553.390
(%)	*64,8*	*79,7*	*61,2*	*61,6*	*267,3*
Without children					
freq.	209.779	238.996	152.945	180.625	782.345
(%)	*62,3*	*71,0*	*45,5*	*53,7*	*232,5*
Total					
freq.	344.014	403.915	279.615	308.191	1.335.735
(%)	*63,3*	*74,3*	*51,4*	*56,7*	*245,8*

Misisng values	
Level of education	1099
type of activity	6685

Table 32 - People perceiving themselves as precarious workers by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee	Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term *Permanent*			
by sex				
male	*(regular employee)*			
freq	36.461	18.636	-	59.460
(%)	*17,9*	*37,0*	*43,7*	*22,6*
freq.	- 27.812			
(%)	*32,5* *15,7*			
female				
freq	29.780	-	-	43.604
(%)	*18,7*	*35,5*	*19,9*	*21,2*
freq.	- 22.340			
(%)	*33,8* *16,3*			
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq	30.750	-	-	44.098
(%)	*18,7*	*31,1*	*23,4*	*20,9*
freq.	- 21.180			
(%)	*33,9* *15,6*			
35-44				
freq	35.491	19.721	-	58.966
(%)	*17,9*	*39,7*	*37,7*	*22,8*
freq.	- 28.971			
(%)	*32,0* *16,3*			
by educational level				
Low				
freq	32.301	-	-	41.857
(%)	*20,5*	*39,9*	*31,9*	*22,9*
freq.	- 27.246			
(%)	*31,7* *19,3*			
Medium				
freq	12.869	-	-	21.841
(%)	*17,5*	*29,8*	*31,7*	*21,2*
freq.	- -			
(%)	*33,1* *15,4*			
High				
freq	20.485	16.617	-	38.780
(%)	*15,6*	*37,7*	*21,3*	*21,2*
freq.	- 12.337			
(%)	*34,0* *11,5*			
by sector of activity				
Private				
freq	45.542		-	49.084
(%)	*18,1*		*22,9*	*18,4*
freq.	- 36.814			
(%)	*33,8* *16,3*			
Public				
freq	20.700		-	22.910
(%)	*18,7*		*28,3*	*19,3*
freq.	- 13.338			
(%)	*33,2* *15,1*			

Table 32 continues... >>

>> Table 32 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	19.743		11.150	-	33.263
(%)	*15,0*		*46,6*	*24,5*	*20,1*
freq.	-	15.851			
(%)	*27,0*	*13,5*			
without children					
freq	46.497		17.930	-	69.799
(%)	*20,2*		*32,1*	*31,1*	*23,0*
freq.	12.197	34.300			
(%)	*35,7*	*17,5*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq	66.241		29.080	-	103.064
(%)	*18,3*		*36,5*	*28,7*	*22,0*
freq.	16.089	50.152			
(%)	*33,1*	*16,0*			

Total missing value for:

educational level	1099
precarious	12022

4.2.4 Transition to adulthood and partnership history (Tables 10; 16-18)

98% of the respondents have already left the parental home, and did so mostly for reasons different than entering a union (75%). Among those who left for entering a union, the mean age of those who left parental home for marriage (4.6%) or cohabitation (16.6%) is relatively low: 21.6 for the women and 23.2 for the men. For this selected subgroup the age at leaving home increases with the level of education. The mean age at leaving home is higher also for those who declared that when t they left the parental home they were regular (permanent or fixed term) employee. Not regular employees left home on average about 8 months before those who had a regular employed.

As far as differences by type of union are concerned, men and women who left the parental home to marry directly do so at a later age than those who left for cohabitation. In this case respondents who declared to be not regular employee at the moment of marriage are on average one year and half older than those who declared to be regular employee.

For those who are currently living in a so called "living-apart-together" relationship (so called "lat"),[55] the intention to start living together in the next 3 years is relatively high: about 64% (women 67% and men 61%). This percentage is lower in the youngest age groups, where "lat" relationships are probably represented by students with little perspective to be able to move together before the end of their studies. The much higher share of "lats" among higher educated respondents is instead possibly related to the high percentage of German couples separated by having accepted jobs in different cities and who try to rejoin their partner.

Table 10 - Mean age when people left the family of origin to marry or to cohabit by sex - level of education - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at leaving family to marry or to cohabit			
	mean	**std.error**	**95% confidence interval for mean**	**std.dev**
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	23,212	0,1558	22.907-23.518	3,69
female	21,608	0,1291	21.355-21.861	3,25
by level of education				
low	21,78	0,01	21.755-21.806	3,40
medium	22,53	0,22	22.094-22.970	3,48
high	23,80	0,0219	23.761-23.847	3,56
by employment status at time of event				
employed	23,02	0,02	22.989-23.050	3,81
not regular employee	22,32	0,04	22.246-22.397	2,97
not employed	21,66	0,015	21.634-21.692	3,26
other	21,47	0,026	21.423-21.526	2,04

Missing	
level of education	587
Mean age at leaving…	3414

Table 16 - Mean age at first marriage by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first marriage			
	mean	**std.error**	**95% confidence interval for mean**	**std.dev**
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	25,617	0,04522	25.528-25.705	4,27
female	22,924	0,02964	22.866-22.982	3,94
by employment status at time of event				
employed	24,177	0,0331	24.112-24.242	4,16
not regular employee	25,797	0,0572	25.685-25.909	2,47
not employed	22,797	0,0471	22.705-22.890	4,44
other	-	-	-	-

Table 17 - Mean age at first cohabitation by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first cohabitation			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	22,757	0,0156	22.727-22.788	3,38
female	21,116	0,0130	21.091-21.142	2,78
by employment status at time of event				
employed	22,606	0,0170	22.573-22.639	3,59
not regular employee	20,720	0,0219	20.677-20.763	1,39
not employed	21,400	0,0146	21.372-21.429	2,86
other	21,475	0,0262	21.423-21.526	2,04

Missing
Age at first cohabitation 3414

Table 18 - People who intend to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	*19.250*	*12.319*	*31.569*
(%)	*61,0*	*39,0*	*100,0*
female			
freq.	*18.186*	-	*27.240*
(%)	*66,8*	*33,2*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	*37.436*	*21.373*	*58.809*
(%)	*63,7*	*36,3*	*100,0*

Table 18 continues... >>

>> Table 18 (continues)

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	13.379	-	23.247
(%)	*57,6*	*42,4*	*100,0*
30-34			
freq.	-	-	12.982
(%)	*79,1*	*20,9*	*100,0*
35-39			
freq.	-	-	16.012
(%)	*64,6*	*35,4*	*100,0*
40-44			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*52,5*	*47,5*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	37.436	21.373	58.809
(%)	*63,7*	*36,3*	*100,0*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	-	-	18.517
(%)	*45,8*	*54,2*	*100,0*
medium			
freq.	-	-	14.887
(%)	*50,1*	*49,9*	*100,0*
high			
freq.	21.499	-	25.405
(%)	*84,6*	*15,4*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	37.436	21.373	58.809
(%)	*63,7*	*36,3*	*100,0*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	34.559	18.984	53.543
(%)	*64,5*	*35,5*	*100,0*
not employed			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*67,5*	*32,5*	*100,0*
inactive			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*48,4*	*51,6*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	37.436	21.373	58.809
(%)	*63,7*	*36,3*	*100,0*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	25.397	16.822	42.219
(%)	*60,2*	*39,8*	*100,0*
self-employed			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*70,2*	*29,8*	*100,0*
not regular employee			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*100,0*	_	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	33.407	18.984	52.391
(%)	*63,8*	*36,2*	*100,0*

Missing

Intention to start living together 13102

4.2.5 Fertility choices and intentions (tables 8-9; 11-15)

About 56% of the sample does not have children, 23% have only one child, and 19.5% have at least two children. As expected the average number of children increases by age. Middle educated respondents have the lowest average number of children, (some of them are still young and studying). Among those who have children, the average age of the children is about 6 years, and 2 years for those who have children of age less or equal 5.

The mean age of fathers at the birth of the first child is slightly higher than 29, the mean age of the mother is almost 28. These values reflect the general postponement of childbearing in the last decades and are similar to the values registered for Germany in the official statistics. If the respondent had a job at the moment of the birth of the first child, usually he or she was older (especially if not regularly employed) than those who did not work at that time. This could reflect the prevalence of women in the 'not employed or other' group.

If asked about the highest age at which to have a child, the men answer on average 42 years, the women 38. The value increases by level of education and for the self employed. This last finding could be related to the fact that more men (who declared an higher possible age) are self employed than women.

Although the realized fertility is not high in Hamburg, both men and women (above all women) would desire a number of children that is close to 2. This number is higher for inactive respondents (who are usually women), and unexpectedly for not regular employee.

Only about 37% of the childless respondents declare a positive intention to have a first child in the next 3 years, with small gender variation. The intention is higher for respondents who are between 30 and 39 years old, among people with high education and for those who are employed. This can be interpreted as a birth postponement effect: respondents in those categories may have waited until their mid-thirties in order to become parents.

Only one fourth of parents with one child intend to have another in the next 3 years (23%), but only 18% of the mothers versus the 29% of the fathers. The average value results from the combination of the higher share of positive childbearing intentions expressed by the younger people and the lower one characterizing the older couples, who are likely to be more realistic Once again the intention is higher for highly educated people, and surprisingly lower for the regular employee with respect to the other categories of reference.

Table 8 - Average number of children by sex - 5year age groups - level of education

	Average number of children			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	0,52	0,001	0.518-0.522	0,82
female	0,88	0,002	0.876-0.884	1,00
by 5year age groups				
25-29	0,23	0,001	0.228-0.232	0,54
30-34	0,48	0,002	0.476-0.484	0,74
35-39	0,82	0,002	0.816-0.824	0,95
40-44	1,17	0,003	1.164-1.176	1,07
by level of education				
low	0,84	0,002	0.836-0.844	0,94
medium	0,55	0,002	0.546-0.554	0,92
high	0,63	0,002	0.626-0.634	0,89

Missing

Number of children	*1.798*
Education	*1.099*

Table 9 - Average age of the youngest child...

	Average age of the youngest child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
...Among those who have children			(lower bound-upper bound)	
	6,117	0,1104	5.901-6.333	5,13
...Among those who have children aged <=5 years				
	1,943	0,0050	1.933-1.952	1,49

Warning: included are only the children <=5 living in the household

Missing
Number of children *1.798*

Table 11 - Mean age at first child by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	29,364	0,0166	29.331-29.396	5,37
female	27,808	0,0133	27.782-27.834	5,12
by employment status at time of event				
employed	29,082	0,0118	29.059-29.105	5,14
not regular employee	30,294	0,0434	30.209-30.379	4,51
not employed	25,840	0,0224	25.796-25.884	5,07
other	23,553	0,1338	23.291-23.815	4,50

Tabel 12 - Highest age on average to have a child by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Highest age on average to have a child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	42,35	0,0160	42.319-42.381	8,37
female	38,41	0,0080	38.394-38.426	4,03
by 5year age groups				
25-29	37,41	0,0140	37.383-37.437	4,77
30-34	39,72	0,0160	39.689-39.751	5,76
35-39	42,34	0,0220	42.297-42.383	8,45
40-44	41,61	0,0180	41.575-41.645	6,59
by level of education				
low	39,18	0,0140	39.153-39.207	6,44
medium	40,59	0,0250	40.541-40.639	8,72
high	41,82	0,0130	41.794-41.845	5,71
by employment status				
employed	40,67	0,0110	40.648-40.692	7,18
not employed	41,33	0,0180	41.295-41.365	4,50
inactive	38,65	0,0450	38.562-38.738	6,17

Table 12 continues... >>

>> Table 12 (continues)

	Highest age on average to have a child			
	mean	**std.error**	**95% confidence interval for mean**	**std.dev**
by type of activity				
regular employee	40,11	0,0110	40.088-40.132	6,40
self employed	43,97	0,0380	43.895-44.044	10,05
not regular employee	38,76	0,0320	38.697-38.823	4,87

Missing
Level of education *1.099*
Employment status *1.728*

Table 13 - Desired number of children on average by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Desired number of children on average			
	mean	**std.error**	**95% confidence interval for mean**	**std.dev**
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	1,90	0,002	1.896-1.904	1,23
female	2,22	0,002	2.216-2.224	1,31
by 5year age groups				
25-29	2,20	0,003	2.194-2.206	1,13
30-34	2,15	0,003	2.144-2.156	1,16
35-39	1,86	0,003	1.854-1.866	1,13
40-44	2,04	0,004	2.032-2.048	1,60
by level of education				
low	1,97	0,003	1.964-1.976	1,32
medium	2,19	0,004	2.182-2.198	1,40
high	2,06	0,003	2.054-2.066	1,13
by employment status				
employed	2,00	0,002	1.996-2.004	1,24
not employed	2,17	0,005	2.160-2.180	1,65
inactive	2,45	0,011	2.428-2.472	1,32
by type of activity				
regular employee	1,94	0,002	1.936-1.944	1,19
self employed	1,89	0,005	1.880-1.900	1,41
not regular employee	2,95	0,007	2.936-2.964	1,20

Missing
Level of education *1.099*
Employment status *2.287*

Table 14 - People who declare the intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by sex			
male			
freq.	108.609	64.099	172.708
(%)	*37,1*	*62,9*	*100,0*
female			
freq.	41.909	71.998	113.907
(%)	*36,8*	*63,2*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	150.518	136.097	286.615
(%)	*37,0*	*63,0*	*100,0*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	30.743	61.651	92.394
(%)	*33,3*	*66,7*	*100,0*
30-34			
freq.	40.613	38.324	78.937
(%)	*51,4*	*48,6*	*100,0*
35-39			
freq.	28.365	42.672	71.037
(%)	*39,9*	*60,1*	*100,0*
40-44			
freq.	-	37.960	44.247
(%)	*14,2*	*85,8*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	106.008	180.607	286.615
(%)	*37,0*	*63,0*	*100,0*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	25.825	65.975	91.800
(%)	*28,1*	*71,9*	*100,0*
medium			
freq.	26.323	53.399	79.722
(%)	*33,0*	*67,0*	*100,0*
high			
freq.	53.860	60.721	114.581
(%)	*47,0*	*53,0*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	106.008	180.095	286.103
(%)	*37,1*	*62,9*	*100,0*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	96.234	155.989	252.223
(%)	*38,2*	*61,8*	*100,0*
not employed			
freq.	-	-	12.200
(%)	*37,6*	*62,4*	*100,0*
inactive			
freq.	-	15.873	21.061
(%)	*24,6*	*75,4*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	106.008	179.476	285.484
(%)	*37,1*	*62,9*	*100,0*

Table 14 continues... >>

>> Table 14 (continues)

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	75.066	112.531	187.597
(%)	*40,0*	*60,0*	*100,0*
self-employed			
freq.	12.680	32.993	45.673
(%)	*27,8*	*72,2*	*100,0*
not regular employee			
freq.	-	-	16.711
(%)	*47,7*	*52,3*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	95.713	154.268	249.981
(%)	*38,3*	*61,7*	*100,0*

Missing	
Level of education	512
Employment status	1.131
Intention (don't know)	37535

Table 15 - People who declare the intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by sex			
male			
freq.	27.490	66.998	94.488
(%)	*29,1*	*70,9*	*100,0*
female			
freq.	24.414	108.239	132.653
(%)	*18,4*	*81,6*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	51.904	175.237	227.141
(%)	*22,9*	*77,1*	*100,0*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	-	12.738	22.606
(%)	*43,7*	*56,3*	*100,0*
30-34			
freq.	19.800	24.480	44.280
(%)	*44,7*	*55,3*	*100,0*
35-39			
freq.	14.783	53.564	68.347
(%)	*21,6*	*78,4*	*100,0*
40-44			
freq.	-	84.454	91.906
(%)	*8,1*	*91,9*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	51.903	175.236	227.139
(%)	*22,9*	*77,1*	*100,0*

Table 15 continues... >>

>> Table 15 (continues)

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by level of education			
low			
freq.	18.262	92.253	110.515
(%)	*16,5*	*83,5*	*100,0*
medium			
freq.	-	33.925	42.581
(%)	*20,3*	*79,7*	*100,0*
high			
freq.	24.985	48.473	73.458
(%)	*34,0*	*66,0*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	51.903	174.651	226.554
(%)	*22,9*	*77,1*	*100,0*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	41.619	140.433	182.052
(%)	*22,9*	*77,1*	*100,0*
not employed			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*14,2*	*85,8*	*100,0*
inactive			
freq.	-	27.378	36.531
(%)	*25,1*	*74,9*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	51.903	174.667	226.570
(%)	*22,9*	*77,1*	*100,0*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	30.723	112.765	143.488
(%)	*21,4*	*78,6*	*100,0*
self-employed			
freq.	-	20.122	28.181
(%)	*28,6*	*71,4*	*100,0*
not regular employee			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*28,3*	*71,7*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	41.050	138.635	179.685
(%)	*22,8*	*77,2*	*100,0*

Missing	
Level of education	*587*
Employment status	*1.156*
Intention (don't know)	19131

4.2.6 Time use and work-family reconciliation (Tables 33-43)

Women and men still share in an unequal way the time for housekeeping: about 70% of the men spend less than 1 hour a day, while almost 60% of the women spend more than 1 hour a day. The time spent on housekeeping is higher for families with children than for couples without children, as expected. A similar picture can be drawn for the time spent for taking care directed to family members.

As far as the time for moving is concerned, about half of the employed spend daily between 30 minutes and one hour in order to reach the workplace, and another 25% needs more than one hour. Men have usually moving times slightly longer than women.

The quantity of spare time is usually smaller for women than for men, and it shrinks further when there are children. Only 21% of the respondents share equally the responsibility for taking care of the children, and usually mothers are more involved than fathers in such care. The percentage of couples equally sharing the responsibility for taking care of the children rises slightly with age, and is much lower for respondents (mainly women) who are inactive or not employed, as expected.

Among families who have at least one child aged less than 6, about 29% make use of some public or private service for childcare. The services are slightly more often private than public, and usually consist of kindergarten services. On average families spend about 115 euros if they make use of public services, and 200 euros if they make use of private services.

The vast majority of men and women are able to reconcile family and work commitments. The reconciliation becomes more difficult when there are children, and above all when there is a single child. This could be due to the fact that in the families with two children or more the mother usually reduces her paid working load in order to make reconciliation easier. For the 22% of respondents who answered that they had problems related to job-family reconciliation, this is attributed in 23 of the cases to the excessive working burden, and for 30% to the inflexibility of the working hours, with small variations by household composition and type of activity.

Table 33 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for housekeeping by sex - 10year age groups - household composition

	Daily time spent for housekeeping (in hours)					
	lowest - 0,30	**0,31-1,00**	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex						
Male						
freq.	24.184	189.826	59.805	20.032	-	297.757
(%)	*8,1*	*63,8*	*20,1*	*6,7*	-	*100,0*
Female						
freq.	16.369	104.770	68.467	69.275	20.553	279.434
(%)	*5,9*	*37,5*	*24,5*	*24,8*	*7,4*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	40.553	294.596	128.272	89.307	24.463	577.191
(%)	*7,0*	*51,0*	*22,2*	*15,5*	*4,2*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	19.213	143.986	56.396	41.110	-	268.670
(%)	*7,2*	*53,6*	*21,0*	*15,3*	*3,0*	*100,0*
35-44						
freq.	21.340	150.610	71.876	48.197	16.498	308.521
(%)	*6,9*	*48,8*	*23,3*	*15,6*	*5,3*	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	40.553	294.596	128.272	89.307	24.463	577.191
(%)	*7,0*	*51,0*	*22,2*	*15,5*	*4,2*	*100,0*
Household composition						
In couple						
freq.	-	69.718	31.540	-	-	117.319
(%)	*5,4*	*59,4*	*26,9*	*7,3*	-	*100,0*
In couple with children						
freq.	13.979	65.541	44.969	49.433	18.836	192.758
(%)	*7,3*	*34,0*	*23,3*	*25,6*	*9,8*	*100,0*
Alone with children						
freq.	-	-	-	-	-	27.122
(%)		*32,1*	*33,9*	*30,3*	-	*100,0*
Total						
freq.	20.884	143.956	85.698	66.156	20.505	337.199
(%)	*6,2*	*42,7*	*25,4*	*19,6*	*6,1*	*100,0*

Table 34 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for taking care of the family by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status - type of activity

	Daily time spent for taking care of the family (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex					
Male					
freq.	216.897	30.186	32.073	15.145	294.301
(%)	*73,7*	*10,3*	*10,9*	*5,1*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	134.373	14.095	37.502	91.809	277.779
(%)	*48,4*	*5,1*	*13,5*	*33,1*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	351.270	44.281	69.575	106.954	572.080
(%)	*61,4*	*7,7*	*12,2*	*18,7*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	190.228	12.059	19.561	43.901	265.749
(%)	*71,6*	*4,5*	*7,4*	*16,5*	*100,0*
35-44					
freq.	161.043	32.222	50.013	63.053	306.331
(%)	*52,6*	*10,5*	*16,3*	*20,6*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	351.271	44.281	69.574	106.954	572.080
(%)	*61,4*	*7,7*	*12,2*	*18,7*	*100,0*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.	100.714	-	-	-	114.929
(%)	*87,6*	*5,3*	*2,8*	*4,3*	*100,0*
In couple with children					
freq.	30.788	29.140	50.208	82.622	192.758
(%)	*16,0*	*15,1*	*26,0*	*42,9*	*100,0*
Alone with children					
freq.	-	-	-	13.119	27.122
(%)					
Total					
freq.	137.274	37.937	58.886	100.712	334.809
(%)	*41,0*	*11,3*	*17,6*	*30,1*	*100,0*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	311.243	43.182	63.682	62.978	481.085
(%)	*64,7*	*9,0*	*13,2*	*13,1*	*100,0*
Inactive					
freq.	25.074	-	-	35.498	66.280
(%)	*37,8*	*-*	*7,8*	*53,6*	*100,0*
Not employed					
freq.	13.823	-	-	-	22.431
(%)	*61,6*	*-*	*3,1*	*35,3*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	350.140	43.695	69.576	106.385	569.796
(%)	*61,5*	*7,7*	*12,2*	*18,7*	*100,0*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	239.817	34.000	47.625	46.689	368.131
(%)	*65,1*	*9,2*	*12,9*	*12,7*	*100,0*
Self-employed					
freq.	49.835	-	-	-	78.016
(%)	*63,9*	*11,0*	*12,2*	*12,9*	*100,0*
Not-regular employee					
freq.	17.120	-	-	-	27.577
(%)	*62,1*	*2,2*	*21,3*	*14,5*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	306.772	43.182	62.983	60.787	473.724
(%)	*64,8*	*9,1*	*13,3*	*12,8*	*100,0*

Table 35 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for moving by sex

	Daily time spent for moving (in hours)				
	lowest - 0,30	0,31-1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01 and more	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	46.797	151.882	62.584	-	271.800
(%)	*17,2*	*55,9*	*23,0*	*3,9*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	49.693	116.540	39.386	-	214.583
(%)	*23,2*	*54,3*	*18,4*	*4,2*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	96.490	268.422	101.970	19.501	486.383
(%)	*19,8*	*55,2*	*21,0*	*4,0*	*100,0*

Table 36 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for paid work by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - household composition

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	6,01-8,00	8,01 and more	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq.	38.557	132.487	98.904	269.948
(%)	*14,3*	*49,1*	*36,6*	*100,0*
Female				
freq.	82.263	84.787	47.533	214.583
(%)	*38,3*	*39,5*	*22,2*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	120.820	217.274	146.437	484.531
(%)	*24,9*	*44,8*	*30,2*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	47.133	94.564	77.468	219.165
(%)	*21,5*	*43,1*	*35,3*	*100,0*
35-44				
freq.	73.686	122.710	68.969	265.365
(%)	*27,8*	*46,2*	*26,0*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	120.819	217.274	146.437	484.530
(%)	*24,9*	*44,8*	*30,2*	*100,0*
Level of education				
Low				
freq.	43.876	94.909	52.371	191.156
(%)	*23,0*	*49,7*	*27,4*	*100,0*
Medium				
freq.	29.951	49.331	27.374	106.656
(%)	*28,1*	*46,3*	*25,7*	*100,0*
High				
freq.	46.406	72.521	66.692	185.619
(%)	*25,0*	*39,1*	*35,9*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	120.233	216.761	146.437	483.431
(%)	*24,9*	*44,8*	*30,3*	*100,0*

Table 36 continues... >>

>> Table 36 (continues)

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	**6,01-8,00**	**8,01 and more**	**Total**
Household composition				
In couple				
freq.	14.687	53.716	35.732	104.135
(%)	*14,1*	*51,6*	*34,3*	*100,0*
In couple with children				
freq.	54.462	61.986	32.437	148.885
(%)	*36,6*	*41,6*	*21,8*	*100,0*
Alone with children				
freq.	13.947	-	-	23.192
(%)	*60,1*	*30,3*	*9,6*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	83.096	122.721	70.395	276.212
(%)	*30,1*	*44,4*	*25,5*	*100,0*

Table 37 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for spare time by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - number of children (in classes)

	Daily spare time (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex					
Male					
freq.	35.630	46.306	91.017	124.982	297.935
(%)	*12,0*	*15,5*	*30,5*	*41,9*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	70.663	66.890	67.679	73.616	278.848
(%)	*25,3*	*24,0*	*24,3*	*26,4*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	106.293	113.196	158.696	198.598	576.783
(%)	*18,4*	*19,6*	*27,5*	*34,4*	*100,0*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	39.418	45.186	81.204	102.521	268.329
(%)	*14,7*	*16,8*	*30,3*	*38,2*	*100,0*
35-44					
freq.	66.874	68.010	77.672	96.077	308.633
(%)	*21,7*	*22,0*	*25,2*	*31,1*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	106.292	113.196	158.876	198.598	576.962
(%)	*18,4*	*19,6*	*27,5*	*34,4*	*100,0*

Table 37 continues... >>

>> Table 37 (continues)

	Daily spare time (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01-4,00	4,01 and more	Total
Household composition					
In couple					
freq.	-	17.663	42.439	47.252	117.318
(%)	*8,5*	*15,1*	*36,2*	*40,3*	*100,0*
In couple with children					
freq.	71.150	59.845	39.096	22.667	192.758
(%)	*36,9*	*31,0*	*20,3*	*11,8*	*100,0*
Alone with children					
freq.	-	-	-	-	26.534
(%)	*42,8*	*24,7*	*12,5*	*19,9*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	92.480	84.074	84.864	75.192	336.610
(%)	*27,5*	*25,0*	*25,2*	*22,3*	*100,0*
Number of children					
No children					
freq.	21.444	45.574	115.712	169.959	352.689
(%)	*6,1*	*12,9*	*32,8*	*48,2*	*100,0*
One child					
freq.	38.380	39.165	19.396	20.024	116.965
(%)	*32,8*	*33,5*	*16,6*	*17,1*	*100,0*
Two or more children					
freq.	46.469	28.458	23.587	-	107.129
(%)	*43,4*	*26,6*	*22,0*	*8,0*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	106.293	113.197	158.695	198.598	576.783
(%)	*18,4*	*19,6*	*27,5*	*34,4*	*100,0*

Table 38 - Sharing responsibility in taking care of children by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status

	Persons responsible in taking care of the children				
	Mostly the respondent	Both the respondent and the partner equally	Mostly the partner	Other persons	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	-	19.511	48.021	-	74.026
(%)	*6,3*	*26,4*	*64,9*	*2,5*	*100,0*
Female					
freq.	106.684	24.383	-	-	136.753
(%)	*78,0*	*17,8*	-	*2,9*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	111.361	43.894	49.749	-	210.779
(%)	*52,8*	*20,8*	*23,6*	*2,7*	*100,0*

Table 38 continues... >>

>> Table 38 (continues)

	Persons responsible in taking care of the children				
	Mostly the respondent	**Both the respondent and the partner equally**	**Mostly the partner**	**Other persons**	**Total**
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	38.196	12.381	17.584	-	68.161
(%)	*56,0*	*18,2*	*25,8*	-	*100,0*
35-44					
freq.	73.165	31.513	32.165	-	142.618
(%)	*51,3*	*22,1*	*22,6*	*4,0*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	111.361	43.894	49.749	-	210.779
(%)	*52,8*	*20,8*	*23,6*	*2,7*	*100,0*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.					
(%)					
In couple with children					
freq.	85.717	41.985	49.749	-	181.494
(%)	*47,2*	*23,1*	*27,4*	*2,2*	*100,0*
Alone with children					
freq.	23.898			-	25.071
(%)	*95,3*	-	-	*4,7*	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	109.615	41.985	49.749	-	206.565
(%)	*53,1*	*20,3*	*24,1*	*2,5*	*100,0*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	74.708	40.685	46.364	-	166.433
(%)	*44,9*	*24,4*	*27,9*	*2,8*	*100,0*
Inactive					
freq.	29.840	-	-	-	36.462
(%)	*81,8*	*7,4*	*7,8*	*3,0*	*100,0*
Not employed					
freq.	-	-	-	-	-
(%)	*84,1*	*7,6*	*8,3*	-	*100,0*
Total					
freq.	110.206	43.895	49.749	-	209.625
(%)	*52,6*	*20,9*	*23,7*	*2,8*	*100,0*

Table 39 - Current use of public or private services by household composition - employment status (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Sector of services currently used		
	Public	**Private**	**Total**
by household composition			
In couple			
freq.			
(%)			
In couple with children			
freq.	-	-	20.859
(%)	*51,2*	*48,8*	*100,0*
Alone with children			
freq.	-	-	6.078
(%)	*28,7*	*71,3*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	12.423	14.514	26.937
(%)	*46,1*	*53,9*	*100,0*
by employment status			
Employed			
freq.	-	12.810	22.355
(%)	*42,7*	*57,3*	*100,0*
Inactive			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*51,6*	*48,4*	*100,0*
Not employed			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	*52,1*	*47,9*	*100,0*
Total			
freq.	13.121	16.155	29.276
(%)	*44,8*	*55,2*	*100,0*

Table 40 - Kind of services used by employment status - type of activity (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Kind of services currently used								
	Micro-nursery	**Nursery (Germany: kindergarten)**	**Pre-After opening time school**	**Summer holidays services**	**Baby sitter**	**Transfer home/school**	**Refectory**	**Tagesmutter (Germany)**	**Total**
by employment status									
Employed									
freq.	-	*13.039*	*3.223*	*4.434*	*2.106*	*1.025*	*7.612*	*4.490*	*22.355*
(%)		58,3	14,4	19,8	9,4	4,6	34,1	20,1	160,7
Inactive									
freq.	-	*1.718*	-	*1.686*	*2.245*	-	*4.088*	-	*5.848*
(%)		29,4	-	28,8	38,4		69,9	-	166,5
Not employed									
freq.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*1.072*
(%)									195,7
Total									
freq.	-	*14.757*	*3.223*	*6.120*	*4.351*	*1.025*	*11.700*	*4.490*	*29.275*
(%)		50,4	11,0	20,9	14,9	3,5	40,0	15,3	156,0
by type of activity									
Regular employee									
freq.	-	*8.740*	*3.223*	*3.922*	*1.584*	-	*4.481*	*3.978*	*17.543*
(%)		49,8	18,4	22,4	9,0		25,5	22,7	147,8
Self-employed									
freq.	-	*4.300*	-	-	-	-	*3.131*	-	*4.812*
(%)		89,4					65,1		154,4
Not regular employee									
freq.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(%)									
Total									
freq.	-	*13.040*	*3.223*	*3.922*	*1.584*	-	*7.612*	*3.978*	*22.355*
(%)		58,3	14,4	17,5	7,1		34,1	17,8	149,2

Missing cases
by employment status 2287
by activity type 6920

Table 41 - Monthly amount spent on average for services for children by kind of services - sector of services

	Monthly amount spent on average for services for children			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by kind of services			(lower bound-upper bound)	
Micro-nursery				
Kindergarten	183,40	1,948	179.582-187.218	236,31
Pre-after opening time school	140,35	2,133	136.169-144.531	122,51
Summer holidays services	135,38	1,649	132.148-138.612	122,67
Baby sitter	179,39	1,975	175.519-183.261	129,59
Trasfer home/school	79,33	0,544	78.264-80.396	21,32
Refectory	143,35	0,868	141.649-145.051	85,93
Tagesmutter (Germany)	156,60	1,310	154.032-159.168	87,79
by sector of services				
Public	115,93	0,900	114.166-117.694	97,87
Private	200,20	1,972	196.335-204.065	237,67

Table 42 - People reconciling family commitments with work engagements by sex - household composition - number of children

	Do you reconcile work and family?			
	Yes	Hardly	No	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq.	211.233	42.707	11.199	265.139
(%)	*79,7*	*16,1*	*4,2*	*100,0*
Female				
freq.	159.526	41.321	-	211.271
(%)	*75,5*	*19,6*	*4,9*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	370.759	84.028	21.623	476.410
(%)	*77,8*	*17,6*	*4,5*	*100,0*
by household composition				
In couple				
freq.	85.416	15.940	-	104.721
(%)	*81,6*	*15,2*	*3,2*	*100,0*
In couple with children				
freq.	104.545	38.340	-	149.524
(%)	*69,9*	*25,6*	*4,4*	*100,0*
Alone with children				
freq.	17.230	-	-	22.679
(%)	*76,0*	*24,0*		*100,0*
Total				
freq.	207.191	59.729	-	276.924
(%)	*74,8*	*21,6*	*3,6*	*100,0*

Tabel 42 continues... >>

>> Table 42 (continues)

	Do you reconcile work and family?			
	Yes	**Hardly**	**No**	**Total**
by number of children				
No children				
freq.	246.502	39.094	14.472	300.068
(%)	*82,1*	*13,0*	*4,8*	*100,0*
One child				
freq.	62.962	25.089	-	92.035
(%)	*68,4*	*27,3*	*4,3*	*100,0*
Two or more children				
freq.	61.295	19.846	-	84.308
(%)	*72,7*	*23,5*	*3,8*	*100,0*
Total				
freq.	370.759	84.029	21.623	476.411
(%)	*77,8*	*17,6*	*4,5*	*100,0*

Table 43 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family by sex - household composition - type of activity (multiple response)

	Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family							
	Shiftwork/work on week-end/too much burden	**Inflexibility of working hours**	**Frequent business trip**	**Too long distance to reach the working place**	**Inflexibility of school opening time and lack of care services**	**Too high cost of paid care personnel/lack of tax benefit**	**Partner is not collaborating**	**Total**
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male								
freq.	34.819	14.236	-	-	-	-	-	58.475
(%)	*78,0*	31,9	*4,0*	*7,7*	*4,1*	*5,3*	-	131,0
Female								
freq.	27.904	13.912	-	-	-	-	-	61.449
(%)	*69,2*	34,5	*6,9*	*10,0*	*16,7*	*10,8*	*4,3*	152,4
Total								
freq.	62.723	28.148	-	-	-	-	-	119.924
(%)	*73,8*	33,1	*5,4*	*8,8*	*10,1*	*7,9*	*2,0*	141,2
by household composition								
In couple								
freq.	13.858	-	-	-	-	-	-	24.889
(%)	*78,8*	36,2	*16,4*	-	-	-	-	141,5
In couple with children								
freq.	24.837	-	-	-	-	-	-	50.333
(%)	*73,6*	34,6	-	*5,5*	*18,7*	*13,3*	*3,4*	149,1
Alone with children								
freq.	2.753	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(%)	*71,7*	-	-	-	-	-	-	170,3
Total								
freq.	41.447	18.571	-	-	-	-	-	81.757
(%)	*75,1*	33,7	*5,2*	*7,4*	*13,4*	*11,3*	*2,1*	148,2
by type of activity								
Regular employee								
freq.	49.621	21.009	-	-	-	-	-	94.075
(%)	*75,3*	31,9	*3,4*	*9,6*	*11,3*	*8,6*	*2,6*	142,7
Self-employed								
freq.	10.818	-	-	-	-	-	-	19.420
(%)	*75,5*	37,0	*15,9*	-	-	-	-	135,6
Not regular employee								
freq.	2.284	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(%)	*48,3*	39,0	-	-	-	-	-	136,0
Total								
freq.	62.723	28.148	-	-	-	-	-	119.924
(%)	*73,8*	33,1	*5,4*	*8,8*	*10,1*	*7,9*	*2,0*	141,2

4.3 POLAND

4.3.1 General information (Tables 1-7)

Respondents under the age of 35 (both males and females) constitute almost 60% of the sample. Sex of the respondents does not differentiate the age structure of the sample. In the sample, majority of the respondents have medium or high level of education (98% of the total sample). This structure does not depend on the sex or the age of the respondents. In the sample almost 65% of respondents are married and 30% are never married respondents. These proportions are not dependent on the sex of the respondents. Proportion of married respondents increases with the age of the respondents. In the lowest age group (25-29) married respondents constitute 40% and in the highest age group (40-44) almost 80%.

Majority of the respondents (80%) are employed. Inactive and not employed respondents yield 10% each. Slightly higher proportion of males declares themselves as employed (83%) with comparison to women (76%). The fact of being employed depends strongly on the level of education. Within the low educated group only 37% are employed, in medium level 70% and in the group with higher education 87%. Almost 78% of the respondents declare themselves as regularly employed. Within this group 79% have permanent contract and the rest is employed on the basis of fixed term contracts. The rest of the respondents declare to be self-employed (15%) and not regular employed (7%). Significant sex differences with respect to the type of activity could be noticed in the case of the self-employed respondents: 20% of males and 11% of females. Similar pattern could be observed in the case of the 10 years age groups.

Level of education seems to be the main variable which determines the type of activity. In the case of respondents with low education 46% declare self-employment. Percentage of self-employed in the mid and high education level constitutes only 15%. These two groups are mostly regular employed (75% and 79% respectively). The general trend seems to associate higher levels of education with more stable forms of employment. The highest percentage of the respondents lives in the couple with children (47%). The sex of the respondents does no differentiate household composition. In general respondents with stable employment more frequently live in the couple or in the couple with children. It has to be noticed that this might be also associated with the age and education level of the respondents which influence employment status and the type of activity. Irrespectively to the household composition overwhelming majority of the respondents own their dwelling (96% on average).

Table 1 - Sample population by sex and 5year age groups

	5 year age groups				
	25-29	**30-34**	**35-39**	**40-44**	**Total**
by sex					
male					
freq.	75030	66147	48221	48335	237733
(%)	*31.56*	*27.82*	*20.28*	*20.33*	*100*
female					
freq.	77882	68602	49384	54659	250527
(%)	*31.09*	*27.38*	*19.71*	*21.82*	*100*
TOTAL	152913	134749	97605	102994	488260

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
5 years age groups	3423.9

Table 2 - Educational level by sex and 5year age groups

	Educational level			
	low education	**medium education**	**high education**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	4103	101831	133341	239275
(%)	*1.71*	*42.56*	*55.73*	*100*
female				
freq.	434	93092	158883	252409
(%)	*0.17*	*36.88*	*62.95*	*100.00*
Total				
freq.	4537	194923	292224	491684
(%)	*0.92*	39.64	*59.43*	*100*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	3437	52808	96668	152913
(%)	*2.25*	*34.53*	*63.22*	*100*
30-34				
freq.	-	47152	87596	134749
(%)	-	*34.99*	*65.01*	*100*
35-39				
freq.	761	35039	61805	97605
(%)	*0.78*	*35.9*	*63.32*	*100*
40-44				
freq.	339	58175	44479	102994
(%)	*0.33*	*56.48*	*43.19*	*100*
Total				
freq.	4537	193174	290549	488260
(%)	*0.93*	*39.56*	*59.51*	*100*

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
5 years age groups	3423.9
educational level	0

Table 3 - Marital status by sex and 5year age groups

	Marital status			
	married	**never married**	**other**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	153975	74044	11256	239275
(%)	*64.35*	*30.95*	*4.70*	*100*
female				
freq.	161289	64631	26489	252409
(%)	*63.90*	*25.61*	*10.49*	*100.00*
Total				
freq.	315264	138675	37745	491684
(%)	*64.1*	*28.2*	*7.7*	*100.0*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	63792	84016	5105	152913
(%)	*41.72*	*54.94*	*3.34*	*100*
30-34				
freq.	95131	32408	7209	134749
(%)	*70.60*	*24.05*	*5.35*	*100*
35-39				
freq.	74128	13374	10104	97605
(%)	*75.95*	*13.7*	*10.35*	*100*
40-44				
freq.	81171	7374	14448	102994
(%)	*78.81*	*7.16*	*14.03*	*100*
Total				
freq.	314222	137173	36866	488260
(%)	*64.4*	*28.1*	*7.6*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

sex	0
5 years age groups	3423.9

Table 4 - Employment status by sex - 10year age groups - educational level

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Not Employed**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq	198694	14172	26409	239275
(%)	*83.0*	*5.9*	*11.0*	*100.0*
student				
freq	1453	3292	3229	7975
(%)	*18.2*	*41.3*	*40.5*	*100.0*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
female				
freq	193698	34736	23975	252409
(%)	*76.7*	*13.8*	*9.5*	*100.0*
student				
freq	4286	1525	647	6458
(%)	*66.4*	*23.6*	*10.0*	*100.0*
house workers				
freq	2437	9359	4423	16220
(%)	*15.0*	*57.7*	*27.3*	*100.0*

Table 4 continues... >>

>> Table 4 (continues)

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Not Employed**	**Total**
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	224892	28445	34325	287661
(%)	*78.2*	*9.9*	*11.9*	*100.0*
student				
freq	4982	4818	3876	13675
(%)	*36.4*	*35.2*	*28.3*	*100.0*
house workers				
freq	1004	4888	3367	9259
(%)	*10.8*	*52.8*	*36.4*	*100.0*
35-44				
freq	164076	20463	16059	200599
(%)	*81.8*	*10.2*	*8.0*	*100.0*
student				
freq	434	-	-	434
(%)	*100.0*	-	-	*100.0*
house workers				
freq	1434	4471	1056	6961
(%)	*20.6*	*64.2*	*15.2*	*100.0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	1665	-	2872	4537
(%)	*36.7*	-	*63.3*	*100.0*
student				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
Medium				
freq	135940	31392	27591	194923
(%)	*69.7*	*16.1*	*14.2*	*100.0*
student				
freq	1984	4241	2704	8929
(%)	*22.2*	*47.5*	*30.3*	*100.0*
house workers				
freq	1434	6210	2416	10060
(%)	*14.3*	*61.7*	*24.0*	*100.0*
High				
freq	254787	17516	19921	292224
(%)	*87.2*	*6.0*	*6.8*	*100.0*
student				
freq	3755	577	1172	5504
(%)	*68.2*	*10.5*	*21.3*	*100.0*
house workers				
freq	1004	3150	2007	6160
(%)	*16.3*	*51.1*	*32.6*	*100.0*
Total				
freq	**392392**	**48908**	**50384**	**491684**
(%)	***79.8***	***10.0***	***10.3***	***100.0***

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
10years age groups	3423.9
educational level	0
employment status	0

Table 5 - Type of activity by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
freq		149231	38797	10666	198694
(%)		*75.1*	*19.5*	*5.4*	*100.0*
freq	29137	120094			
(%)	*19.5*	*80.5*			
female					
freq		155749	22088	15861	193698
(%)		*80.4*	*11.4*	*8.2*	*100.0*
freq	35175	120574			
(%)	*22.6*	*77.4*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
freq		181166	25810	17916	224892
(%)		*80.6*	*11.5*	*8.0*	*100.0*
freq	43407	137759			
(%)	*24.0*	*76.0*			
35-44					
freq		121287	34178	8611	164076
(%)		*73.9*	*20.8*	*5.3*	*100.0*
freq	20703	100583			
(%)	*17.1*	*82.9*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq		621	761	282	1665
(%)		*37.3*	*45.7*	*17.0*	*100.0*
freq	-	621			
(%)	-	*100.0*			
Medium					
freq		102094	21170	12677	135940
(%)		*75.1*	*15.6*	*9.3*	*100.0*
freq	28147	73947			
(%)	*27.6*	*72.4*			
High					
freq		202265	38954	13568	254787
(%)		*79.4*	*15.3*	*5.3*	*100.0*
freq	36165	166100			
(%)	*17.9*	*82.1*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq		178408	-	12564	190972
(%)		*93.4*	-	*6.6*	*100.0*
freq	44034	134374			
(%)	*24.7*	*75.3*			
Public					
freq		126156	-	4452	130607
(%)		*96.6*	-	*3.4*	*100.0*
freq	20278	105878			
(%)	*16.1*	*83.9*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq		304980	60885	26527	392392
(%)		*77.7*	*15.5*	*6.8*	*100.0*
freq	64312	240668			
(%)	*21.1*	*78.9*			

Total missing value for:

sex	0
10years age groups	3424
educational level	0
Type of activity	99292
Sector of activity	170105

Table 6 - Household composition by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	alone	in couple	in couple with children	other	Total
by sex						
male						
freq.	28002	37208	44902	109071	20092	239275
(%)	*11.7*	*15.6*	*18.8*	*45.6*	*8.4*	*100.0*
female						
freq.	26270	36329	3254	120096	37174	252409
(%)	*10.4*	*14.4*	*12.9*	*47.6*	*14.7*	*100.0*
Total						
freq.	54272	73537	77442	229167	57266	491684
(%)	*11.0*	*15.0*	*15.8*	*46.6*	*11.7*	*100.0*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	46232	54833	60786	97490	28321	287661
(%)	*16.1*	*19.1*	*21.1*	*33.9*	*9.9*	*100.0*
35-44						
freq.	7605	16759	16454	131443	28337	200599
(%)	*3.8*	*8.4*	*8.2*	*65.5*	*14.1*	*100.0*
Total						
freq.	53838	71591	77240	228933	56658	488260
(%)	*11.0*	*14.7*	*15.8*	*46.9*	*11.6*	*100.0*
by level of education						
low						
freq.	327	621	0	434	3154	4537
(%)	*7.2*	*13.7*	*0.0*	*9.6*	*69.5*	*100.0*
medium						
freq.	25833	19420	18897	100293	30481	194923
(%)	*13.3*	*10.0*	*9.7*	*51.5*	*15.6*	*100.0*
high						
freq.	28112	53496	58545	128440	23631	292224
(%)	*9.6*	*18.3*	*20.0*	*44.0*	*8.1*	*100.0*
Total						
freq.	54272	73537	77442	229167	57266	491684
(%)	*11.0*	*15.0*	*15.8*	*46.6*	*11.7*	*100.0*
by employment status						
employed						
freq.	41291	58447	69385	187137	36132	392392
(%)	*10.5*	*14.9*	*17.7*	*47.7*	*9.2*	*100.0*
not employed						
freq.	5790	9514	2615	16012	16453	50
(%)	*11.5*	*18.9*	*5.2*	*31.8*	*32.7*	*100.0*
inactive						
freq.	7190	5576	5442	26018	4681	48908
(%)	*14.7*	*11.4*	*11.1*	*53.2*	*9.6*	*100.0*
Total						
freq.	54272	73537	77442	229167	57266	491684
(%)	*11.0*	*15.0*	*15.8*	*46.6*	*11.7*	*100.0*

Table 6 continues... >>

>> Table 6 (continues)

	Household composition					
by type of activity	**with family of origin**	**alone**	**in couple**	**in couple with children**	**other**	**Total**
regular employee						
freq.	34493	45567	57626	143158	24137	304980
(%)	*11.3*	*14.9*	*18.9*	*46.9*	*7.9*	*100.0*
self-employed						
freq.	3607	7909	6904	33668	8797	60885
(%)	*5.9*	*13.0*	*11.3*	*55.3*	*14.5*	*100.0*
not regular employee						
freq.	3191	4972	4855	10310	3198	26527
(%)	*12.0*	*18.7*	*18.3*	*38.9*	*12.1*	*100.0*
Total						
freq.	41291	58447	69385	187137	36132	392392
(%)	*10.5*	*14.9*	*17.7*	*47.7*	*9.2*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
10years age groups	3424
educational level	0
Type of activity	99292
Househol composition	0

Table 7 - Accomodation by household composition

	Accomodation			
by household composition	**owned**	**rented**	**free use**	**Total**
with family of origin				
freq.	53383	888	-	54272
(%)	*98.4*	*1.6*	-	*100.0*
alone				
freq.	68897	4640	-	73537
(%)	*93.7*	*6.3*	-	*100.0*
in couple				
freq.	73985	3457	-	77442
(%)	*95.5*	*4.5*	-	*100.0*
in couple with children				
freq.	219821	9346	-	229167
(%)	*95.9*	*4.1*	-	*100.0*
other				
freq.	56050	1217	-	57266
(%)	*97.9*	*2.1*	-	*100.0*
Total				
freq.	472136	19548	-	491684
(%)	*96.0*	*4.0*	-	*100.0*

4.3.2 Employment and job history (Tables 19-29)

The employment rate amounts to almost 80 percent, the inactive population and the unemployed make up 10 percent of the sample. Employment status is diversified by selected variables (sex, age, and educational level). Men are more often employed than women, whereas the proportion of inactive women is more than twice bigger than for men. Persons aged 35-44 have work more frequently than younger ones (aged 25-34). The higher the educational level and the higher is the employment rate. 78 percent of all employed persons are regular employees, self-employed make up more than 15 percent, not regular employed – almost 7 percent. Women work more often as regular employees than men, whereas the latter are more frequently self-employed than the former. Persons aged 35-44 are more often self-employed than the younger ones. Education differentiates slightly a type of activity. Since the number of people with the low educational level is so small we refer to persons with the high and medium education level. The high educated people are more frequently regular employees than persons with the medium education level (79 percent vs. 75 percent) and have permanent job (65 percent vs. 54 percent). Also lower educated respondents are more often not regular employees. One can conclude that females, persons aged 25-34, with medium education work more often on fixed term contracts. These groups of respondents are also more exposed to be not regular employees.

The private sector uses more both types of job contracts (fixed term and atypical ones) than the public sector. In Poland on average females enter the labour market later than males. Respondents of the Warsaw sample start their first job quite early: males start work at the age of 22 on average, whereas females half a year earlier. The percentage of part-time employed amounts to 13.3 percent. The type of activity influences the part-time job incidence. About 50 percent of not regular employees have part-time job while only around 8 percent of persons having regular job work part-time. Persons on fixed-term contracts work part-time more often than those with permanent contracts. Women use part-time contracts more frequently than men (almost 16 percent vs. 11 percent). Age, presence of children and sector of activity do not influence the part-time employment rate. People with high educational level work part-time less frequently than those with medium level of education (10.3 vs.18.9). Respondents aged 25-34 work part-time slightly more frequently than those aged 35-44 years.

The mean working time for employed full-time amounts to 41.3 hours per week. The self-employed work the most (47.9 hours) compared to regular employees (40.3), and to those not having regular job who work the least (39.8). On average men work more than women (44.4 vs. 38 hours). Working time of persons employed in the public sector is shorter than those working in the private one (38.4 vs. 41.7 hours). Presence of children does not influence the mean time of work.

Persons employed part-time work more than 31 hours per week. The self-employed work the most (36.8 hours) and those having not regular job the least (19.8 hours). Men's working time is longer than women's working time (40.9 vs. 24.1 hours). The younger respondents (aged 25-34) work on average less than the older (aged 35-44) (33.9 vs. 27.9 hours). The mean working time of part-timers does not differ by a sector of activity and a presence of children.

Almost 65 percent of respondents changed their contracts 2-3 times. Females more often than males changed contracts only once (27.4 vs. 13.3) and three times and more (17.6 vs. 12.1). Persons aged 25-34 changed more often contracts than those aged 35-44. 39 percent of the inactive population and one third of the unemployed had only one contract change, which is twice as frequently as for the employed population.

Among respondents currently employed contract changes are most frequent for not regular employed often had three and more contracts changes than the others (regular employees and self-employed). Almost 72 percent of regular employees changed contract 2 or 3 times during the last three years while these indicators were 59 percent for self-employed and 49 percent for not regular employed. People working in the private sector more often change contracts than those in the public sector: 86 percent of the sample population employed in the private sector changed contracts at least twice, and respectively 79 percent of those employed in the public sector. Generally, in more than 50 percent of cases, reasons for job change are voluntary and in 44.4 percent - involuntary. There is no difference between men and women: nearly 52 percent of contract changes are voluntary for both sexes. Younger persons (aged 25-34) more often change job voluntarily than older ones

(aged 35-44). The latter group remains under a stronger pressure of non voluntary job change. Persons with the highest level of education change job more often voluntarily (about 60 percent) than the others, whereas those less educated do it more often involuntarily. It is worth noticing that about 70 percent of not employed population (inactive and unemployed) and 39 percent of employed had to change job non voluntarily. Employed persons who work on atypical contracts change their jobs most often (56.4 percent). Persons working in the private sector change their jobs more often because of voluntary reasons (59.3 percent) than those working in the public sector (51.7 percent). In general, half of the sample population with a work record experienced unemployment during the last three years.

Referring to the unemployment duration, 34 percent of the total number respondents were unemployed up to 6 months (69 percent of unemployed), and 8 percent spent more than 12 months on unemployment (17 percent of unemployed). Females are at higher risk of long unemployment than males. Education influenced the unemployment duration: persons with the high level of education has more often shorter period without job than those with the medium educational level. The current employment status has an impact on the unemployment duration: among the currently inactive population 23.6 percent remain in unemployment for more than one year, that indicator was 47.5 percent for the unemployed and 9.1 percent for the employed. Almost 37 percent of currently inactive persons aged 25-44 have no unemployment experience. Only 10 percent of currently unemployed experienced unemployment for the first time.

Table 19 - Mean age at first job by sex

	Mean age at first job			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	22.051	0.0092	22,03-22,06	3.79
female	21.593	0.0072	21,58-21,61	3.08

Table 20 - People working part-time by type of activity and sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
freq	8649		7665	5206	21520
(%)	*5.8*		*20.1*	*48.8*	*10.9*
freq.	3323	5326			
(%)	*11.4*	*4.5*			
female					
freq	14407		7678	8042	30127
(%)	*9.3*		*35.1*	*50.7*	*15.7*
freq.	5833	8575			
(%)	*16.7*	*7.2*			
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq	13045		5349	9030	27424
(%)	*7.1*		*20.1*	*50.4*	*12.1*
freq.	5464	7581			
(%)	*12.5*	*5.5*			
35-44					
freq	10011		9994	4218	24223
(%)	*8.4*		*29.9*	*49.0*	*15.0*
freq.	3691	6320			
(%)	*18.2*	*6.3*			

Table 20 continues... >>

>> Table 20 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	-		-	282	282
(%)	-		-	*100*	*16.9*
freq.	-	-			
(%)	-	-			
Medium					
freq	12161		7543	5602	25306
(%)	*12.1*		*36.0*	*44.2*	*18.9*
freq.	4069	8092			
(%)	*14.5*	*11.2*			
High					
freq	10895		7801	7364	26060
(%)	*5.4*		*20.4*	*54.3*	*10.3*
freq.	5087	5809			
(%)	*14.1*	*3.5*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	13470		-	6752	20222
(%)	*7.6*		-	*53.7*	*10.7*
freq.	4664	8806			
(%)	*10.6*	*6.6*			
Public					
freq	9586		-	2656	12242
(%)	*7.6*		-	*59.7*	*9.4*
freq.	4491	5095			
(%)	*22.1*	*4.8*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	12741		10929	6397	30067
(%)	*7.5*		*26.8*	*49.7*	*13.5*
freq.	3490	9251			
(%)	*12.6*	*6.5*			
without children					
freq	10316		4414	6851	21581
(%)	*7.8*		*23.0*	*50.1*	*13.0*
freq.	5666	4650			
(%)	*15.5*	*4.8*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq	23056		15343	13248	51647
(%)	*7.6*		*25.6*	*49.9*	*13.3*
freq.	9156	13901			
(%)	*14.3*	*5.8*			

Total missing value for:

sex	102717
10years age groups	102717
educational level	102716
sector of activity	171462
presence of children	102715

Table 21 - Average hours worked for FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
mean		43.4	50.5	36.3	44.4
st dev		*15.6*	*20.9*	*13.1*	*16.8*
mean	38.7	44.5			
st dev	*10.4*	*16.4*			
female					
mean		37.4	42.3	41.6	38.0
st dev		*15.8*	*20.1*	*21.1*	*16.5*
mean	36.1	37.7			
st dev	*17.6*	*15.3*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean		40.3	47.5	36.0	40.9
st dev		*16.1*	*25.6*	*12.5*	*17.3*
mean	36.6	41.4			
st dev	*16.2*	*15.9*			
35-44					
mean		40.4	48.2	45.7	41.8
st dev		*15.8*	*16.1*	*24.8*	*16.5*
mean	39.0	40.6			
st dev	*10.4*	*16.6*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean		19.1	49.7	-	36.0
st dev		*6.5*	*8.9*	-	*17.2*
mean	-	19.1			
st dev	-	*6.5*			
Medium					
mean		42.6	48.8	37.0	43.0
st dev		*16.3*	*24.9*	*21.4*	*18.0*
mean	*39.5*	*43.8*			
st dev	16.5	16.1			
High					
mean		39.4	47.4	43.4	40.5
st dev		*15.7*	*19.3*	*14.1*	*16.4*
mean	35.6	40.1			
st dev	*12.9*	*16.1*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean		41.8	-	39.6	41.7
st dev		*15.9*	-	*17.4*	*16.0*
mean	38.5	42.8			
st dev	*15.3*	*15.9*			
Public					
mean		38.3	-	39.2	38.4
st dev		*15.9*	-	*1.8*	*15.8*
mean	34.4	39.0			
st dev	*12.6*	*16.3*			

Table 21 continues... >>

>> Table 21 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean		39.9	45.9	42.1	40.8
st dev		*15.4*	*19.6*	*22.3*	*16.5*
mean	36.9	40.4			
st dev	*13.2*	*15.7*			
without children					
mean		41.0	52.7	37.2	41.8
st dev		*16.8*	*23.5*	*13.4*	*17.7*
mean	37.6	42.1			
st dev	*15.8*	*16.9*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean		40.4	47.9	39.8	41.3
st dev		*16.0*	*21.0*	*18.8*	*17.0*
mean	37.3	41.1			
st dev	*14.7*	*16.2*			

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
10years age groups	0
educational level	0
sector of activity	44912
presence of children	0

Table 22 - Average hours worked for PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
mean		41.9	49.7	26.2	40.9
st dev		*28.1*	*31.8*	*22.6*	*29.7*
mean	25.4	52.1			
st dev	*16.8*	*28.8*			
female					
mean		29.0	23.9	15.5	24.1
st dev		*24.2*	*25.7*	*13.7*	*23.0*
mean	25.6	31.2			
st dev	*24.6*	*23.7*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean		36.3	52.9	19.2	33.9
st dev		*24.6*	*37.1*	*19.3*	*28.7*
mean	34.5	37.5			
st dev	*23.7*	*25.2*			
35-44					
mean		30.6	28.2	20.6	27.9
st dev		*28.4*	*24.3*	*16.7*	*25.3*
mean	12.2	41.4			
st dev	*8.8*	*30.3*			

Table 22 continues... >>

>> Table 22 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean	-		-	12	12.0
st dev	-		-	*0*	*0.0*
mean	-	-			
st dev	-	-			
Medium					
mean	37.9		40.6	16.3	33.9
st dev	*26.8*		*34.8*	*13.1*	*28.9*
mean	29.1	42.3			
st dev	*20.1*	*28.6*			
High					
mean	29.2		33.2	22.6	28.5
st dev	*25.4*		*27.8*	*21.6*	*25.5*
mean	22.6	35.0			
st dev	*23.1*	*25.8*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean	36.8		-	15.3	29.6
st dev	*25.6*		-	*15.0*	*24.8*
mean	28.3	41.3			
st dev	*21.3*	*26.5*			
Public					
mean	29.6		-	28.9	29.5
st dev	*27.2*		-	*25.8*	*26.9*
mean	22.7	35.8			
st dev	*22.5*	*29.4*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean	33.1		33.7	23.7	31.3
st dev	*27.5*		*29.4*	*17.3*	*26.7*
mean	18.9	38.4			
st dev	*21.1*	*27.7*			
without children					
mean	34.7		44.7	15.9	30.8
st dev	*25.2*		*35.6*	*18.8*	*28.1*
mean	29.6	40.9			
st dev	*21.6*	*27.7*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean	33.8		36.8	19.7	31.1
st dev	*26.5*		*31.7*	*18.5*	*27.3*
mean	25.5	39.2			
st dev	*22.1*	*27.7*			

Total missing value for:	
sex	0
10years age groups	0
educational level	0
sector of activity	18981
presence of children	0

Table 23 - Number of contracts during the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Contracts changes			
	1	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq	13602	76365	12332	102299
(%)	*13.3*	*74.6*	*12.1*	*100.0*
Female				
freq	30765	61828	19732	112325
(%)	*27.4*	*55.0*	*17.6*	*100.0*
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	29096	100127	23518	152741
(%)	*19.0*	*65.6*	*15.4*	*100.0*
35-44				
freq	15271	38066	8546	61883
(%)	*24.7*	*61.5*	*13.8*	*100.0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	434	1356	2126	3916
(%)	*11.1*	*34.6*	*54.3*	*100.0*
Medium				
freq	17340	45124	9855	72319
(%)	*24.0*	*62.4*	*13.6*	*100.0*
High				
freq	26593	91713	20084	138390
(%)	*19.2*	*66.3*	*14.5*	*100.0*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	28765	115003	26061	169829
(%)	*16.9*	*67.7*	*15.3*	*100.0*
Inactive				
freq	5075	6905	928	12908
(%)	*39.3*	*53.5*	*7.2*	*100.0*
Not employed				
freq	10527	16286	5076	31889
(%)	*33.0*	*51.1*	*15.9*	*100.0*
Total workers with job history				
freq	44367	138194	32065	214626
(%)	*20.7*	*64.4*	*14.9*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

sex	277060
10years age groups	277060
educational level	277059
current employment condition	277058

Table 24 - Contract changes during the last three years by type of activity (for employed)

	Contract changes			
	1	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by type of activity				
Regular employed				
freq	20859	94242	16401	131502
(%)	*15.9*	*71.7*	*12.5*	*100.0*
Self-employed				
freq	4271	11704	3835	19810
(%)	*21.6*	*59.1*	*19.4*	*100.0*
Not regular employed				
freq	3635	9056	5825	18516
(%)	*19.6*	*48.9*	*31.5*	*100.0*
Total				
freq	28765	115002	26061	169828
(%)	*16.9*	*67.7*	*15.3*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

type of activity 321856

Table 25 - Contract changes during the last three years by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Contract changes			
	1	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by sector of activity				
Private				
freq	13557	68948	14014	96519
(%)	*14.0*	*71.4*	*14.5*	*100.0*
Public				
freq	9776	30454	6281	46511
(%)	*21.0*	*65.5*	*13.5*	*100.0*
Total				
freq	23333	99874	20295	143502
(%)	*16.3*	*69.6*	*14.1*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

sector of activity 348182

Table 26 - Reasons for job changes by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq	44693	38035	3082	85810
(%)	*52.1*	*44.3*	*3.6*	*100.0*
Female				
freq	41757	36079	3115	80951
(%)	*51.6*	*44.6*	*3.8*	*100.0*
by 10 years age groups				
25-34				
freq	66157	50093	4777	121027
(%)	*54.7*	*41.4*	*3.9*	*100.0*
35-44				
freq	20293	24021	1420	45734
(%)	*44.4*	*52.5*	*3.1*	*100.0*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	610	1843	1029	3482
(%)	*17.5*	*52.9*	*29.6*	*100.0*
Medium				
freq	20443	30401	2649	53493
(%)	*38.2*	*56.8*	*5.0*	*100.0*
High				
freq	65397	41869	2519	109785
(%)	*59.6*	*38.1*	*2.3*	*100.0*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	79666	53880	4022	137568
(%)	*57.9*	*39.2*	*2.9*	*100.0*
Inactive				
freq	1737	5595	500	7832
(%)	*22.2*	*71.4*	*6.4*	*100.0*
Not employed				
freq	5048	14639	1675	21362
(%)	*23.6*	*68.5*	*7.8*	*100.0*
Total workers with job history				
freq	86450	74114	6197	166761
(%)	*51.8*	*44.4*	*3.7*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

sex	324923
10years age groups	324923
educational level	324924
current employment condition	324922

Table 27 - Reasons for job changes by type of activity (for employed)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by type of activity				
Regular employed				
freq	63469	41301	3538	108308
(%)	*58.6*	*38.1*	*3.3*	*100.0*
Self-employed				
freq	10367	4676	214	15257
(%)	*67.9*	*30.6*	*1.4*	*100.0*
Not regular employed				
freq	5829	7903	270	14002
(%)	*41.6*	*56.4*	*1.9*	*100.0*
Total				
freq	79665	53880	4022	137567
(%)	*57.9*	*39.2*	*2.9*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

type of activity 354117

Table 28 - Reasons for job changes by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by sector of activity				
Private				
freq	48853	32318	1227	82398
(%)	*59.3*	*39.2*	*1.5*	*100.0*
Public				
freq	18074	14310	2581	34965
(%)	*51.7*	*40.9*	*7.4*	*100.0*
Total				
freq	67197	46830	3808	117835
(%)	*57.0*	*39.7*	*3.2*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

sector of activity 373849

Table 29 - Longest unemployment period in the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition - type of activity - sector of activity

	Longest unemployment period					
	0	< 3 months	3-6 months	7-12 months	> 1 year	Total
by sex						
Male						
freq	44613	21575	15607	7358	11986	101139
(%)	*44.1*	*21.3*	*15.4*	*7.3*	*11.9*	*100.0*
Female						
freq	47375	15788	16704	9950	21534	111351
(%)	*42.5*	*14.2*	*15.0*	*8.9*	*19.3*	*100.0*
by 10years age groups						
25-34						
freq	64370	26795	23040	14976	22738	151919
(%)	*42.4*	*17.6*	*15.2*	*9.9*	*15.0*	*100.0*
35-44						
freq	27617	10567	9271	2333	10782	60570
(%)	*45.6*	*17.4*	*15.3*	*3.9*	*17.8*	*100.0*
by educational level						
Low						
freq	761	1843	-	-	1311	3915
(%)	*19.4*	*47.1*	-	-	*33.5*	*100.0*
Medium						
freq	22004	14564	13718	4185	16968	71439
(%)	*30.8*	*20.4*	*19.2*	*5.9*	*23.8*	*100.0*
High						
freq	69222	20956	18592	13123	15241	137134
(%)	*50.5*	*15.3*	*13.6*	*9.6*	*11.1*	*100.0*
by current employment condition						
Employed						
freq	84054	30461	25772	12072	15335	167694
(%)	*50.1*	*18.2*	*15.4*	*7.2*	*9.1*	*100.0*
Inactive						
freq	4744	1918	1846	1355	3045	12908
(%)	*36.8*	*14.9*	*14.3*	*10.5*	*23.6*	*100.0*
Not employed						
freq	3190	4983	4693	3882	15141	31889
(%)	*10.0*	*15.6*	*14.7*	*12.2*	*47.5*	*100.0*
by type of activity						
Regular employed						
freq	70794	22829	19943	7586	10067	131219
(%)	*54.0*	*17.4*	*15.2*	*5.8*	*7.7*	*100.0*
Self-employed						
freq	11070	2357	2251	1594	1833	19105
(%)	*57.9*	*12.3*	*11.8*	*8.3*	*9.6*	*100.0*
Not regular employed						
freq	2189	5275	3578	2891	3435	17368
(%)	*12.6*	*30.4*	*20.6*	*16.6*	*19.8*	*100.0*
by sector of activity						
Private						
freq	48270	21303	13088	5877	7699	96237
(%)	*50.2*	*22.1*	*13.6*	*6.1*	*8.0*	*100.0*
Public						
freq	23701	5286	9064	4048	4142	46241
(%)	*51.3*	*11.4*	*19.6*	*8.8*	*9.0*	*100.0*
Total workers with job history						
freq	72173	26589	22152	9925	12111	142950
(%)	*50.5*	*18.6*	*15.5*	*6.9*	*8.5*	*100.0*

Total missing value for:

sex	277058
10years age groups	277059
educational level	277060
current employment condition	277057
type of activity	321857
sector of activity	348182

4.3.3 Social representation of work (Tables 30-32)

The most important aspect of job is in general 'a good pay and a job security'– that aspect was indicated by nearly 81 percent of respondents, both males and females. Also good working hours and a job that meets one's abilities are important for around half of respondents (48 and 55 percent of indications, respectively). Good working hours are more important for females than for males. Age differentiates only indications for good working hours – that aspect of job is more often indicated by younger respondents. The medium educated respondents indicate good working hours slightly more often than a job that meets one's abilities while the high educated persons do the opposite choice. The most important characteristic was "favourable financial aspects" – which is indicated by around 87 percent of respondent. This aspect is more important for men than women, for younger than older respondents and for respondents with medium level of education as compared to both low and high level. The financial aspect is the least important for not regular employees.

The second important aspect was "flexible working arrangements" – which is more important for women than for men (69.1 vs. 63 percent). Females indicate more often aspect "protection measures for women and family" than males (54.6 vs. 45.8 percent). "Management aspects to reconcile work and family" is the least frequently chosen aspect. It is worth noticing that this issue is more important for women than for men (43.2 vs. 33.7 percent). In general, more than 9 percent of employed perceive themselves as precarious workers. The biggest proportion is observed for not regular employed across sex, age, education, sector of employment and a presence of children. Sex does not influence the perception. Respondents aged 35-44 seem to feel more often as precarious workers than the younger ones. Also persons with lower levels of education and those working in the private sector consider themselves as precarious workers more often that those with the high educational level. The same holds for persons without children.

Table 30 - Social representation of occupation by sex - 10year age groups - level of education (multiple response)

	Most important aspects in a job			
	Good pay and job security	Good working hours	Job that meets one's abilities	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
male				
freq.	191541	99234	121007	210913
(%)	*80.6*	*41.7*	*50.9*	*88.7*
female				
freq.	205100.00	135575.00	147455.00	232737
(%)	*81.9*	*54.1*	*58.9*	*92.9*
Total				
freq.	396641.00	234809.00	268462.00	443650
(%)	*81.2*	*48.1*	*55.0*	*90.9*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	236689	144816	160050	265801
(%)	*80.9*	*49.8*	*55.0*	*90.9*
35-44				
freq.	159951	89993	108411	177849
(%)	*80.3*	*45.6*	*54.9*	*89.3*
Total				
freq.	396640	234809	268461	443650
(%)	*80.7*	*48.1*	*55.0*	*90.2*
by level of education				
low				
freq.	4103	282	2560	4537
(%)	*90.4*	*6.2*	*56.4*	*100*
medium				
freq.	161877	104451	100747	175860
(%)	*83.8*	*54.1*	*52.2*	*91.0*
high				
freq.	230661	130075	165155	263253
(%)	*79.4*	*44.8*	*56.8*	*90.6*
Total				
freq.	396641	234808	268462	443650
(%)	*81.2*	48.1	*55.0*	*90.9*

Table 31 - Characteristics a job should heve to support long-term family choices by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - type of activity - sector of activity - presence of children (multiple response)

	Main characteristics a job should have to support long-term family choices				
	Favourable financial aspects	Flexible working arrangements	Protection measures for women and family	Management aspects to reconcile work and family	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male					
freq.	208542	149818	108933	80127	227674
(%)	*87.7*	*63.0*	*45.8*	*33.7*	*95.8*
Female					
freq.	215283	173096	136885	108255	237012
(%)	*85.9*	*69.1*	*54.6*	*43.2*	*94.6*
Total					
freq.	423825	322914	245818	188382	464686
(%)	*86.8*	*66.1*	*50.3*	*38.6*	*95.2*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	254998	198422	153431	112465	279496
(%)	*87.7*	*68.2*	*52.7*	*38.7*	*95.6*
35-44					
freq.	168827	124491	92387	75917	185191
(%)	*85.5*	*63.1*	*46.8*	*38.5*	*93.0*
Total					
freq.	423825	322913	245818	188382	464687
(%)	*86.8*	*66.1*	*50.3*	*38.6*	*94.5*
by level of education					
Low					
freq.	3927	3645	2126	716	3927
(%)	*86.6*	*80.3*	*46.9*	*15.8*	*86.6*
Medium					
freq.	172266	130665	97827	78911	187128
(%)	*89.2*	*67.6*	*50.6*	*40.8*	*96.9*
High					
freq.	247631	188603	145866	108754	273631
(%)	*85.2*	*64.9*	*50.2*	*37.4*	*94.2*
Total					
freq.	423824	322913	245819	188381	464686
(%)	*86.8*	*66.1*	*50.3*	*38.6*	*95.2*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	268628	195823	149734	114712	288965
(%)	*88.8*	*64.7*	*49.5*	*37.9*	*95.5*
Self-employed					
freq.	53465	37885	25456	24442	55679
(%)	*89.1*	*63.2*	*42.4*	*40.7*	*92.8*
Not regular employee					
freq.	18642	18376	15542	10190	25178
(%)	*70.3*	*69.3*	*58.6*	*38.4*	*94.9*
Total					
freq.	340735	252084	190732	149344	369822
(%)	*87.6*	*64.8*	*49.0*	*38.4*	*95.1*
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq.	164875	82826	91871	70701	178662
(%)	*87.2*	*63.7*	*48.6*	*37.4*	*94.5*
Public					
freq.	115627	124467	68002	50073	126080
(%)	*89.0*	*65.8*	*52.3*	*38.5*	*97.0*
Total					
freq.	280502	207293	159873	120774	304742
(%)	*87.9*	*65.0*	*50.2*	*37.8*	*95.5*
by presence of children					
With children					
freq.	423825	187954	141012	111451	265636
(%)	*86.8*	*67.6*	*50.7*	*40.1*	*95.5*
Without children					
freq.	180806	134959	104806	76930	199050
(%)	*86.0*	*64.2*	*49.9*	*36.6*	*94.7*
Total					
freq.	243019	322913	245818	188381	464686
(%)	*87.4*	*66.1*	*50.3*	*38.6*	*95.2*

Table 32 - People perceiving themselves as precarious workers by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male					
freq	8040		5323	4040	17403
(%)	*5.4*		*14.0*	*61.2*	*9.0*
freq.	5282	2758			
(%)	*18.1*	*2.3*			
female					
freq	7790		4495	5840	18125
(%)	*5.1*		*20.6*	*52.3*	*9.7*
freq.	2460	5330			
(%)	*7.0*	*4.5*			
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq	7022		5399	6337	18758
(%)	*3.8*		*20.3*	*48.4*	*8.4*
freq.	3928	3095			
(%)	*9.0*	*2.2*			
35-44					
freq	8808		4419	3542	16769
(%)	*7.3*		*13.2*	*75.5*	*10.6*
freq.	3815	4993			
(%)	*18.8*	*5.0*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	282		-	282	564
(%)	*45.4*		-	*100.0*	*33.9*
freq.	-	282			
(%)	-	*45.4*			
Medium					
freq	9501		3600	4813	17914
(%)	*9.4*		*17.2*	*68.5*	*13.9*
freq.	5269	4232			
(%)	*18.7*	*5.8*			
High					
freq	6047		6218	4785	17050
(%)	*3.0*		*16.2*	*45.7*	*6.8*
freq.	2473	3574			
(%)	*6.9*	*2.2*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	11002		-	7211	18213
(%)	*6.2*		-	*57.4*	*9.6*
freq.	5701	5301			
(%)	*13.0*	*4.0*			
Public					
freq	4828		-	2184	7012
(%)	*3.8*		-	*49.1*	*5.4*
freq.	2041	2787			
(%)	*10.1*	*2.6*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	6601		7466	4207	18274
(%)	*3.9*		*18.3*	*56.7*	*8.4*
freq.	1338	5263			
(%)	*4.8*	*3.7*			
without children					
freq	9229		2352	5672	17253
(%)	*6.9*		*12.3*	*54.8*	*10.6*
freq.	6405	2825			
(%)	*17.5*	*2.9*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq	15830		9818	9880	35528
(%)	*5.2*		*16.4*	*55.6*	*9.3*
freq.	7742	8088			
(%)	*12.1*	*3.4*			

Total missing value for:

sex	111472
10years age groups	111473

4.3.4 Transition to adulthood and partnership history (Tables 10; 16-18)

Mean age at leaving parental home to marry or cohabit is slightly higher for males than for females. Also the level of education seems to play crucial role in leaving parental home. Those respondents with medium and high level of education remain dependent on parental help respectively 3 and 5 years longer than those with low level of education. Employed respondents seem to leave parental home to marry or cohabit later than not employed or not regularly employed respondents. However this might be mediated by the level of education.

The average age at first marriage is 2 years higher for males than for females (25 compared to 23). Employed respondents seem to postpone marriage in comparison with not employed or not regularly employed respondents. The results with respect to the age at first cohabitation are identical with those on the average age at first marriage.

The declaration of starting union within the next 3 years is common among the respondents. However slightly more women than men declare the intention (93% and 90% respectively). Youngest respondents (25-29) and respondents aged 35-39 declare slightly higher positive intention however the differences are minor. Inactive respondents declare slightly lower positive intention in comparison with other employment statuses. Lower proportion of the positive intentions could be also noticed in the case of the respondents who are not employed on the regular basis.

Table 10 - Mean age when people left the family of origin to marry or to cohabit by sex - level of education - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at leaving family to marry or to cohabit			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	24.727	0.3156	24,10 - 25,35	3.09
female	22.950	0.2993	22,36 - 23,54	4.19
by level of education				
low	19.785	0.4111	14,56 - 25,01	0.58
medium	22.900	0.3239	22,26 - 23,54	3.69
high	24.595	0.2986	24,01 - 25,18	3.78
by employment status at time of event				
employed	24.548	0.3371	23,88 - 25,21	4.18
not regular employee	21.795	0.5851	20,47 - 23,12	1.85
not employed	22.080	0.3285	21,42 - 22,74	2.69
other	-	-	-	-

Table 16 - Mean age at first marriage by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first marriage			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	24.875	0.3680	24,14 - 25,61	3.08
female	22.948	0.3399	22,28 - 23,62	4.31
by employment status at time of event				
employed	24.548	0.3371	23,88 - 25,21	4.18
not regular employee	21.795	0.5851	20,47 - 23,12	1.85
not employed	22.080	0.3285	21,42 - 22,74	2.69
other	-	-	-	-

Table 17 - Mean age at first cohabitation by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first cohabitation			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	24.204	0.6176	22,93 - 25,48	3.15
female	22.964	0.5832	21,78 - 24,15	3.45
by employment status at time of event				
employed	24.851	0.6006	23,63 - 26,08	3.40
not regular employee	22.060	1.2228	18,17 - 25,95	2.45
not employed	22.622	0.5893	21,40 - 23,84	2.89
other	-	-	-	-

Table 18 - People who intend to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	28960	3253	32214
(%)	*89.9*	*10.1*	*100.0*
female			
freq.	32068	2496	34564
(%)	*92.8*	*7.2*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	61028	5750	66778
(%)	*91.4*	*8.6*	*100.0*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	30739	2686	33425
(%)	*92.0*	*8.0*	*100.0*
30-34			
freq.	10986	1435	12421
(%)	*88.5*	*11.6*	*100.0*
35-39			
freq.	10378	395	10773
(%)	*96.3*	*3.7*	*100.0*
40-44			
freq.	8492	1234	9725
(%)	*87.3*	*12.7*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	60594	5750	66344
(%)	*91.3*	*8.7*	*100.0*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	434	282	716
(%)	*60.6*	*39.4*	*100.0*
medium			
freq.	31128	3192	34320
(%)	*90.7*	*9.3*	*100.0*
high			
freq.	29466	2275	31741
(%)	*92.8*	*7.2*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	61028	5750	66778
(%)	*91.4*	*8.6*	*100.0*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	49858	4463	54321
(%)	*91.8*	*8.2*	*100.0*
not employed			
freq.	4207	0	4207
(%)	*100.0*	*0.0*	*100.0*
inactive			
freq.	6963	1286	8249
(%)	*84.4*	*15.6*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	61028	5750	66778
(%)	*91.4*	*8.6*	*100.0*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	40376	3617	43992
(%)	*91.8*	*8.2*	*100.0*
self-employed			
freq.	6240	282	6523
(%)	*95.7*	*4.3*	*100.0*
not regular employee			
freq.	3242	565	3806
(%)	*85.2*	*14.8*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	49858	4463	54321
(%)	*91.8*	*8.2*	*100.0*

4.3.5 Fertility choices and intentions (Tables 8-9; 11-15)

On average respondents have one child. Average number of children increases with the age of respondents. Also women have slightly higher average number of children. Average age of the children of the respondents yields 6,8 years. However among the respondents who have children aged less then 5 year the average yields 2,15. Mean age at first child is slightly higher for males, which is a usual finding since males have to acquire more economic independence and resources in order to establish family. Also the employment status seems to play important role in the transition to parenthood. Employed respondents had, on average, children 4 years later than those not employed and 2 years later than not regularly employed. This might be of course due to longer period devoted for education. The highest, perceived age to have a child varied between 34 (declared by males) and 32 (declared by females). Respondents with low level of education declared highest average to have child at 37 years whereas those with medium education declared only 32 years. The rest of the variables did not have significant differentiating effect.

Respondents typically declared that they would like to have 2 children. This result is consistent with other empirical findings. This result did not vary across studied variables. Most of the respondents (70%) declare the intention to have a child within the next three years. The proportion of positive declarations is slightly higher in the case of males (73%) than in the case of females (68%). Respondents with medium level of education less frequently declare the intention (60%) in comparison with the respondents with higher education (75%).

The intention to have the first child is also higher in the case of the age group 30-34 (86%) and in the case of the age group 35-39 (77%). Fact of being employed and being employed on a regular basis also increases fertility intentions (75% in both cases). Majority of the respondents also declare the intention of having another child within next 3 years (70%). Once again the percentage of positive declarations is slightly higher in the case of males than females. There are also similarities with respect to the age group of the respondents. Respondents aged 30 to 34 in 86% of the cases declared “yes” comparing to 52% in the 40 to 44 age group. The relation with respect to the level of education, employment status and type of activity is identical as in the case of the above described table.

Table 8 - Average number of children by sex - 5year age groups - level of education

	Average number of children			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	0.791	0.0426	0,71 - 0,87	0.83
female	1.053	0.0385	0,98 - 1,13	0.96
by 5year age groups				
25-29	0.345	0.0319	0,28 - 0,41	0.59
30-34	0.883	0.0457	0,79 - 0,97	0.79
35-39	1.433	0.0693	1,30 - 1,57	0.94
40-44	1.365	0.0697	1,23 - 1,50	0.90
by level of education				
low	0.824	0.2367	0,25 - 1,40	0.63
medium	1.106	0.0473	1,01 - 1,20	0.89
high	0.807	0.0358	0,74 - 0,88	0.90

Table 9 - Average age of the youngest child...

	Average age of the youngest child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
...Among those who have children			(lower bound-upper bound)	
	6.804	0.2474	6,32 - 7,29	5.45
...Among those who have children aged <=5 years				
	2.147	0.1098	1,93 - 2,36	1.66

Table 11 - Mean age at first child by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	28.415	0.4612	27,50 - 29,33	4.38
female	27.013	0.2863	26,45 - 27,58	3.86
by employment status at time of event				
employed	28.182	0.2677	27,65 - 28,71	4.07
not regular employee	26.733	2.1045	20,89 - 32,58	4.71
not employed	24.340	0.5143	23,30 - 25,38	3.09
other	-	-	-	-

Tabel 12 - Highest age on average to have a child by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Highest age on average to have a child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	34.709	0.3820	33,96 - 35,46	6.68
female	32.149	0.1887	31,78 - 32,52	4.56
by 5year age groups				
25-29	32.102	0.2850	31,54 - 32,66	5.03
30-34	33.382	0.2888	32,81 - 33,95	4.65
35-39	34.576	0.4746	33,64 - 35,51	5.97
40-44	33.625	0.5842	32,47 - 34,78	7.23
by level of education				
low	37.616	4.3898	23,65 - 51,59	8.78
medium	32.108	0.3141	31,49 - 32,73	5.69
high	34.151	0.2391	33,68 - 34,62	5.64
by employment status				
employed	33.480	0.2039	33,08 - 33,88	5.65
not employed	33.418	1.0033	31,39 - 35,44	6.50
inactive	31.814	0.6418	30,54 - 33,09	5.74
by type of activity				
regular employee	33.418	0.2231	32,98 - 33,86	5.49
self employed	33.942	0.6125	32,73 - 35,16	6.19
not regular employee	33.241	0.82	31,60 - 34,88	6.28

Table 13 - Desired number of children on average by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Desired number of children on average			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	2.167	0.0573	2,05 - 2,28	1.02
female	2.095	0.0367	2,02 - 2,17	0.87
by 5year age groups				
25-29	2.115	0.0490	2,02 - 2,21	0.85
30-34	2.133	0.0557	2,02 - 2,24	0.91
35-39	2.307	0.1008	2,11 - 2,51	1.28
40-44	1.989	0.0594	1,87 - 2,11	0.72
by level of education				
low	1.475	0.2233	0,90 - 2,05	0.55
medium	2.063	0.0442	1,98 - 2,15	0.79
high	2.181	0.0439	2,10 - 2,27	1.04
by employment status				
employed	2.148	0.0337	2,08 - 2,21	0.93
not employed	1.965	0.0879	1,79 - 2,14	0.56
inactive	2.134	0.1477	1,84 - 2,43	1.31
by type of activity				
regular employee	2.146	0.0396	2,07 - 2,22	0.97
self employed	2.104	0.0662	1,97 - 2,24	0.68
not regular employee	2.3	0.1300	2,01 - 2,53	0.99

Table 14 - People who declare the intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	36428	13032	49459
(%)	*73.7*	*26.4*	*100.0*
female			
freq.	46636	21823	68459
(%)	*68.1*	*31.9*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	46011	24907	70917
(%)	*64.9*	*35.1*	*100.0*
30-34			
freq.	26945	4405	31350
(%)	*86.0*	*14.1*	*100.0*
35-39			
freq.	5353	1558	6911
(%)	*77.5*	*22.5*	*100.0*
40-44			
freq.	3944	3582	7526
(%)	*52.4*	*47.6*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	82253	34451	116704
(%)	*70.5*	*29.5*	*100.0*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-
medium			
freq.	17747	12004	29751
(%)	*59.7*	*40.4*	*100.0*
high			
freq.	65316	22851	88167
(%)	*74.1*	*25.9*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	72961	24748	97709
(%)	*74.7*	*25.3*	*100.0*
not employed			
freq.	4559	3960	8519
(%)	*53.5*	*46.5*	*100.0*
inactive			
freq.	5543	6147	11690
(%)	*47.4*	*52.6*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	72961	24748	97709
(%)	*74.7*	*25.3*	*100.0*
self-employed			
freq.	4559	3960	8519
(%)	*53.5*	*46.5*	*100.0*
not regular employee			
freq.	5543	6147	11690
(%)	*47.4*	*52.6*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*

Table 15 - People who declare the intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	36428	13032	49459
(%)	*73.7*	*26.4*	*100.0*
female			
freq.	46636	21823	68459
(%)	*68.1*	*31.9*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	46011	24907	70917
(%)	*64.9*	*35.1*	*100.0*
30-34			
freq.	26945	4405	31350
(%)	*86.0*	*14.1*	*100.0*
35-39			
freq.	5353	1558	6911
(%)	*77.5*	*22.5*	*100.0*
40-44			
freq.	3944	3582	7526
(%)	*52.4*	*47.6*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	82253	34451	116704
(%)	*70.5*	*29.5*	*100.0*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-
medium			
freq.	17747	12004	29751
(%)	*59.7*	*40.4*	*100.0*
high			
freq.	65316	22851	88167
(%)	*74.1*	*25.9*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	72961	24748	97709
(%)	*74.7*	*25.3*	*100.0*
not employed			
freq.	4559	3960	8519
(%)	*53.5*	*46.5*	*100.0*
inactive			
freq.	5543	6147	11690
(%)	*47.4*	*52.6*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	83063	34855	117918
(%)	*70.4*	*29.6*	*100.0*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	63317	18176	81494
(%)	*77.7*	*22.3*	*100.0*
self-employed			
freq.	6804	1901	8705
(%)	*78.2*	*21.8*	*100.0*
not regular employee			
freq.	2840	4670	7510
(%)	*37.8*	*62.2*	*100.0*
Total			
freq.	72961	24748	97709
(%)	*74.7*	*25.3*	*100.0*

4.3.6 Time use and work-family reconciliation (Tables 33-43)

As it was expected women dedicate more time to housework than men – 42 percent of women and 15 percent of men spend more than 2 hours per day on housekeeping. Time distribution by age shows differences but it doesn't show clearly that younger group spends less time on housekeeping. The time devoted to housework generally depends on whether the respondent has children and partner or not. Single parents predominantly spend on average 1-2 hours on housework while parents with children dedicate to the activity from half to one hour. Men and women don't work in the house equally long – women work much longer. Almost 50 percent of women vs. 27 percent of men spend daily more than two hours to take care of the family. Time distribution for women is much less differentiated.

Younger respondents take care of family on average less hours compared to the older group. Having children – but not a partner – means longer work in the house. Employed as a whole devote less time to their family than the other groups. 47 percent of them spend less than one hour (inactive-36%, unemployed –39%) and 16 percent of them spend more than 4 hours (inactive-47%, unemployed –33%). However those employed on regular basis devote to the family care the most time – 16 percent of them spend more than 4 hours (self-employed –12,5%, not regular employee – 14%). Time of the journey to work is more or less the same for both sexes. Nearly 82 percent spend no more than one hour to get to a workplace. Relatively more men work longer than 8 hours while women most frequently work on average up to 4 hours a day. Time distribution by age shows small differences. Low education is related to shorter working time. Time distributions for mid- and high educated are alike. Childless couples and single parents work the same number of hours and visibly longer than couples with children. Men spend longer time on leisure than women. The older group take relatively shorter time for rest than the younger group.

The presence of children visibly reduces spare time – 34 percent of respondents living in couple without children spend daily more than 4 hours for rest while 22 percent spent less than one hour. For couples with children the percentage of respondents who devoted less than one hour to leisure increases to 47 percent while that of those spent more than 4 hours declines to 13 percent. For single parents that shift is even more visible – 56 percent of them spend less than one hour on leisure and 10 percent more than 4 hours. The more children the shorter time of relaxation however moving from the 'no children' status to one child makes more differences in time distribution than from one child to two and more children.

Only 7% of male respondents declared that they are mostly responsible for taking care of children, while among women this proportion equals to 63 percent. Respondents' age does not have a clear impact on care responsibilities, however among younger people the cases when other persons take care of their children are relatively more frequent (7% vs. 2% of older people). Single parents take care of their children mostly themselves (87%); they involve other persons in 13 percent of cases, which of course is much higher than for couples with children (2.8 percent) who can share this kind of duties. Inactive and unemployed persons generally bring up their children by themselves (68% -inactive, 78% unemployed persons). Most often the employed share these duties with a partner (36%) but only slightly less frequently (33%) respondents claim they mostly take care of the children themselves.

Nearly 89% persons with children use public and almost 36% - private services. One cannot comment on use of institutional care by household composition due to too small number of cases. Inactive respondents relatively more seldom use both public and private services compared to respondents with other employment status. At the same time employed respondents more often use public and less frequently private services than not employed.

Unemployed persons use any kind of services most seldom (under 1%). Employed and inactive respondents most frequently indicated kindergarten, pre-after opening time school and refectory. Self-employed make use of services more often than regular and casual employees. Unfortunately we got a small number of answers. In two situations we could not estimate an average monthly amount spent on micro-nursery services (no response) and transfer home/school (only one response). The estimation for "summer hol-

idays services“ is not significant. The highest monthly expenditures are on baby sitter services and private sector.

Men claim slightly more frequently that they cope well with reconciling family commitments with work (men 71,49%, women - 68,83, 30% of women vs.27 of men and 30 of women declare their difficulties). Single parents admit relatively more often that they have difficulties in reconciling family commitment and work. Both a presence and a number of children differentiate opinions on reconciling family commitments with work: 18 percent of respondents without children declare that they hardly cope with both activities, that percentage increases to 31 for people with one child and to 38 for people with two and more children.

Men and women most frequently mention difficulties regarding “shift work/work at week-end/too much burden” as the main difficulties; “inflexibility of working hours” and “too high cost of paid care personnel/ lack of tax benefit” are indicated as the next ones. Women more frequently than men point out the last reasons. “Work/work at week-end/too much burden” are perceived as the main difficulties especially by self-employed and respondents in couple without children. Couples with children relatively more often complain about “too high cost of paid care personnel/ lack of tax benefit” while single parents more frequently indicate “inflexibility of working hours”. Further difficulties on the list are as follows: to regular employees - “inflexibility of working hours” and “too high cost of paid care personnel/ lack of tax benefit”, to self-employed - “inflexibility of working hours”, to casual employed – “frequent business trips” and “inflexibility of school opening time and lack of care services”.

Table 33 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for housekeeping by sex - 10year age groups - household composition

	Daily time spent for housekeeping (in hours)					
	lowest - 0,30	**0,31-1,00**	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex						
Male						
freq.	29693	114910	51993	20400	14369	231364
(%)	*12.83*	*49.67*	*22.47*	*8.82*	*6.21*	*100*
Female						
freq.	6515	63308	75612	69406	34713	249554
(%)	*2.61*	*25.37*	*30.30*	*27.81*	*13.91*	*100.00*
Total						
freq.	36209	178217	127605	89806	49082	480919
(%)	*7.53*	*37.06*	*26.53*	*18.67*	*10.21*	*100*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	25335	114981	67398	46089	28486	282288
(%)	*8.97*	*40.73*	*23.88*	*16.33*	*10.09*	*100*
35-44						
freq.	10874	63236	60207	43717	20596	198631
(%)	*5.47*	*31.84*	*30.31*	*22.01*	*10.37*	*100*
Total						
freq.	36209	178217	127605	89806	49082	480919
(%)	*7.53*	*37.06*	*26.53*	*18.67*	*10.21*	*100*
Household composition						
In couple						
freq.	5057	36025	16319	9265	2004	68670
(%)	*7.36*	*52.46*	*23.76*	*13.49*	*2.92*	*100*
In couple with children						
freq.	11538	67351	60705	48425	24900	212919
(%)	*5.42*	*31.63*	*28.51*	*22.74*	*11.69*	*100*
Alone with children						
freq.	1661	663	7977	5167	3239	18707
(%)	*8.88*	*3.54*	*42.64*	*27.62*	*17.32*	*100*
Total						
freq.	18256	104039	85002	62857	30143	300297
(%)	*6.08*	*34.65*	*28.31*	*20.93*	*10.04*	*100.00*

Total missing value for:	
sex	7342
10years age groups	7342
household composition	1968

Table 34 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for taking care of the family by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status - type of activity

	Daily time spent for taking care of the family (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01-4,00	4,01 and more	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	122110	47032	37526	24696	231364
(%)	*52.78*	*20.33*	*16.22*	*10.67*	*100*
Female					
freq.	93708	33736	48431	73679	249554
(%)	*37.55*	*13.52*	*19.41*	*29.52*	*100*
Total					
freq.	215818	*80768*	*85957*	*98375*	*480919*
(%)	*44.88*	*16.79*	*17.87*	*20.46*	*100.00*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	148255	35531	42565	55937	282288
(%)	*52.52*	*12.59*	*15.08*	*19.82*	*100*
35-44					
freq.	67563	45236	43392	42439	198631
(%)	*34.01*	*22.77*	*21.85*	*21.37*	*100*
Total					
freq.	215818	80768	85957	98375	480919
(%)	*44.88*	*16.79*	*17.87*	*20.46*	*100*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.	52640	8436	3033	4562	68670
(%)	*76.66*	*12.29*	*4.42*	*6.64*	*100*
In couple with children					
freq.	41044	46789	59049	66037	212919
(%)	*19.28*	*21.97*	*27.73*	*31.01*	*100*
Alone with children					
freq.	2072	4095	6437	6103	18707
(%)	*11.08*	*21.89*	*34.41*	*32.62*	*100*
Total					
freq.	95756	59321	68519	76701	300297
(%)	*31.89*	*19.75*	*22.82*	*25.54*	*100*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	181516	70221	76199	61032	388968
(%)	*46.67*	*18.05*	*19.59*	*15.69*	*100*
Inactive					
freq.	17688	4014	4241	22965	48908
(%)	36.17	8.21	8.67	46.95	100
Not employed					
freq.	16614	6533	5517	14379	43042
(%)	*38.60*	*15.18*	*12.82*	*33.41*	*100*
Total					
freq.	215818	80768	85957	98375	480919
(%)	*44.88*	*16.79*	*17.87*	*20.46*	*100*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	141255	52397	59078	49722	302452
(%)	*46.70*	*17.32*	*19.53*	*16.44*	*100*
Self-employed					
freq.	26026	13085	13362	7517	59989
(%)	*43.38*	*21.81*	*22.27*	*12.53*	*100*
Not-regular employee					
freq.	14235	4739	3760	3793	26527
(%)	*53.66*	*17.87*	*14.17*	*14.30*	*100*
Total					
freq.	181516	70221	76199	61032	388968
(%)	*46.67*	*18.05*	*19.59*	*15.69*	*100*

Total missing value for:	
sex	7342
10years age groups	7342
household composition	1968
employment status	7342
type of activity	0

Table 35 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for moving by sex

	Daily time spent for moving (in hours)				
	lowest - 0,30	**0,31-1,00**	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex					
Male					
freq.	50947	107809	33905	4491	197152
(%)	*25.84*	*54.68*	*17.20*	*2.28*	*100*
Female					
freq.	44285	114627	28116	4788	191816
(%)	*23.09*	*59.76*	*14.66*	*2.50*	*100*
Total					
freq.	95233	222436	62021	9279	388968
(%)	*24.48*	*57.19*	*15.94*	*2.39*	*100*

Total missing value for:

sex 99292

Table 36 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for paid work by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - household composition

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	**6,01-8,00**	**8,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq.	29021	89421	78710	197152
(%)	*14.72*	*45.36*	*39.92*	*100.00*
Female				
freq.	46717	108551	36547	191816
(%)	*24.36*	*56.59*	*19.05*	*100.00*
Total				
freq.	75738	197972	115257	388968
(%)	*19.47*	*50.90*	*29.63*	*100.00*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	39496	116666	68730	224892
(%)	*17.56*	*51.88*	*30.56*	*100.00*
35-44				
freq.	36243	81307	46527	164076
(%)	*22.09*	*49.55*	*28.36*	*100.00*
Total				
freq.	75738	197972	115257	388968
(%)	*19.47*	*50.90*	*29.63*	*100.00*

Table 36 continues... >>

>> Table 36 (continues)

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	**6,01-8,00**	**8,01 and more**	**Total**
Level of education				
Low				
freq.	434	904	327	1665
(%)	*26.06*	*54.28*	*19.66*	*100.00*
Medium				
freq.	23912	68762	41517	134191
(%)	*17.82*	*51.24*	*30.94*	*100.00*
High				
freq.	51392	128307	73413	253112
(%)	*20.30*	*50.69*	*29.00*	*100.00*
Total				
freq.	75738	197972	115257	388968
(%)	*19.47*	*50.90*	*29.63*	*100.00*
Household composition				
In couple				
freq.	8069	35767	18638	62475
(%)	*12.92*	*57.25*	*29.83*	*100.00*
In couple with children				
freq.	37368	90256	49531	177155
(%)	*21.09*	*50.95*	*27.96*	*100.00*
Alone with children				
freq.	1352	7671	3755	12778
(%)	*10.58*	*60.03*	*29.39*	*100.00*
Total				
freq.	46789	133695	71924	252408
(%)	*18.54*	*52.97*	*28.50*	*100.00*
Total missing value for:				
sex		99292		
10years age groups		99292		
household composition		7342		

Table 37 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for spare time by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - number of children (in classes)

	Daily spare time (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex					
Male					
freq.	62147	48704	52109	68405	231364
(%)	*26.86*	*21.05*	*22.52*	*29.57*	*100*
Female					
freq.	112026	50712	44110	42706	249554
(%)	*44.89*	*20.32*	*17.68*	*17.11*	*100*
Total					
freq.	174173	99416	96219	111111	480919
(%)	*36.22*	*20.67*	*20.01*	*23.10*	*100*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	85948	51300	68454	76586	282288
(%)	*30.45*	*18.17*	*24.25*	*27.13*	*100*
35-44					
freq.	66323	36444	17975	16602	137343
(%)	*48.29*	*26.53*	*13.09*	*12.09*	*100*
Total					
freq.	174173	99416	96219	111111	480919
(%)	*36.22*	*20.67*	*20.01*	*23.10*	*100*
Household composition					
In couple					
freq.	14946	12044	18291	23390	68670
(%)	*21.76*	*17.54*	*26.64*	*34.06*	*100*
In couple with children					
freq.	101083	56197	28066	27573	212919
(%)	*47.47*	*26.39*	*13.18*	*12.95*	*100*
Alone with children					
freq.	10425	4941	1391	1951	18707
(%)	*55.73*	*26.41*	*7.43*	*10.43*	*100*
Total					
freq.	126454	73182	47747	52914	300297
(%)	*42.11*	*24.37*	*15.90*	*17.62*	*100*
Number of children					
No children					
freq.	38206	29197	60647	76800	204849
(%)	*18.65*	*14.25*	*29.61*	*37.49*	*100*
One child					
freq.	53543	35663	13547	17783	120536
(%)	*44.42*	*29.59*	*11.24*	*14.75*	*100*
Two or more children					
freq.	57965	25475	15910	11740	111090
(%)	*52.18*	*22.93*	*14.32*	*10.57*	*100*
Total					
freq.	149713	90335	90103	106324	436476
(%)	*34.65*	*18.70*	*22.29*	*24.35*	*100*

Total missing value for:	
sex	7342
10years age groups	7342
household composition	1968
number of children	

Table 38 - Sharing responsibility in taking care of children by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status

	Persons responsible in taking care of the children				
	Mostly the respondent	Both the respondent and the partner equally	Mostly the partner	Other persons	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	7306	39924	54552	1686	103468
(%)	*7.06*	*38.59*	*52.72*	*1.63*	*100*
Female					
freq.	95738	42958	4032	9433	152160
(%)	*62.92*	*28.23*	*2.65*	*6.20*	*100*
Total					
freq.	103044	82882	58583	11119	255628
(%)	*40.31*	*32.42*	*22.92*	*4.35*	*100*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	44803	34250	22564	7952	109568
(%)	*40.89*	*31.26*	*20.59*	*7.26*	*100*
35-44					
freq.	58241	48632	36020	3167	146060
(%)	*39.88*	*33.30*	*24.66*	*2.17*	*100*
Total					
freq.	103044	82882	58583	11119	255628
(%)	*40.31*	*32.42*	*22.92*	*4.35*	*100*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.					
(%)					
In couple with children					
freq.	66704	74780	51975	5564	199023
(%)	*33.52*	*37.57*	*26.11*	*2.80*	*100*
Alone with children					
freq.	15152			2273	17425
(%)	*86.96*			*13.04*	*100*
Total					
freq.	81857	74780	51975	7837	216449
(%)	*37.82*	*34.55*	*24.01*	*3.62*	*100*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	67492	74031	54814	10063	206400
(%)	*32.70*	*35.87*	*26.56*	*4.88*	*100*
Inactive					
freq.	20783	5766	3769		30318
(%)	*68.55*	*19.02*	*12.43*		*100*
Not employed					
freq.	14769	3084		1056	18909
(%)	*78.10*	*16.31*		*5.58*	*100*
Total					
freq.	103044	82882	58583	11119	255628
(%)	*40.31*	*32.42*	*22.92*	*4.35*	*100*

Total missing value for:	
sex	232632
10years age groups	232632
household composition	85816
employment status	232632

Table 39 - Current use of public or private services by household composition - employment status (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Sector of services currently used		
	Public	**Private**	**Total**
by household composition			
In couple			
freq.			
(%)			
In couple with children			
freq.	59078	23972	66602
(%)	*88.70*	*35.99*	
Alone with children			
freq.		202	202
(%)		*100.00*	*100.00*
Total			
freq.	59078	24174	66804
(%)	*88.43*	*36.19*	
by employment status			
Employed			
freq.	58011	22059	65116
(%)	*89.09*	*33.88*	
Inactive			
freq.	5679	897	6361
(%)	*89.28*	*14.11*	
Not employed			
freq.	4361	2028	5333
(%)	*81.77*	*38.03*	
Total			
freq.	68050	24985	76810
(%)	*88.60*	*32.53*	

Total missing value for:

household composition	41154
employment status	56279

Table 40 - Kind of services used by employment status - type of activity (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Kind of services currently used								
	Micro-nursery	Nursery	Kindergarden	Pre-After opening time school	Summer holidays services	Baby sitter	Transfer home/school	Refectory	Total
by employment status									
Employed									
freq.	1113	5573	62550	30663	5058	13043	434	18573	109279
(%)	*1.02*	*5.10*	*57.24*	*28.06*	*4.63*	*11.94*	*0.40*	*17.00*	
Inactive									
freq.			6734	3162				1066	10861
(%)			*62.00*	*29.12*				*9.82*	
Not employed									
freq.			8628	3629	461	1056		1517	10145
(%)			*0.85*	*0.36*	*0.05*	*0.10*		*0.15*	
Total									
freq.	1113	5573	77912	37454	5518	14099	434	21156	130285
(%)	*0.85*	*4.28*	*59.80*	*28.75*	*4.24*	*10.82*	*0.33*	*16.24*	
by type of activity									
Regular employee									
freq.	1113	4964	45227	21535	3815	8776	434	10914	83390
(%)	*1.33*	*5.95*	*54.24*	*25.82*	*4.57*	*10.52*	*0.52*	*13.09*	
Self-employed									
freq.		608	13786	6961	1243	3439		6321	19867
(%)		*3.06*	*69.39*	*35.04*	*6.26*	*17.31*	*0.00*	*31.82*	
Not regular employee									
freq.			3537	2167		829		1338	6022
(%)			*58.74*	*35.98*		*13.77*		*22.21*	
Total									
freq.	1113	4964	62550	30663	5058	13043	434	18573	109279
(%)	*1.02*	*4.54*	*57.24*	*28.06*	*4.63*	*11.94*	*0.40*	*17.00*	

Total missing value for:

employment status	363562
type of activity	382960

Table 41 - Monthly amount spent on average for services for children by kind of services - sector of services

	Monthly amount spent on average for services for children				
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean		std.dev
by kind of services			(lower bound-upper bound)		
Micro-nursery	9996.000				
Nursery	347.763	108.0236	46,79	648,73	240.70
Pre-after opening time school	462.195	83.7071	292,83	631,56	526.90
Summer holidays services	164.172	132.9611	-556,07	884,42	215.35
Baby sitter	758.102	123.9907	484,92	1031,29	427.85
Transfer home/school	400.000	(*)			
Refectory	521.637	112.4080	289,11	754,17	550.74
by sector of services					
Public	437.960	36.7518	365,05	510,87	369.95
Private	544.872	85.2661	370,32	719,42	462.38

(*) t cannot be computed because the sum of caseweights is less than or equal 1.

Total missing value for:

Micro-nursery	487147
Nursery	485819
Pre-after opening time school	468779
Summer holidays services	486970
Baby sitter	482406
Transfer home/school	487826
Refectory	476457
sector of services	
public	438439
private	473801

Table 42 - People reconciling family commitments with work engagements by sex - household composition - number of children

	Do you reconcile work and family?			
	Yes	**Hardly**	**No**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq.	140144	52925	2963	196032
(%)	*71.49*	*27.00*	*1.51*	*100*
Female				
freq.	130617	56437	2708	189762
(%)	*68.83*	*29.74*	*1.43*	*100*
Total				
freq.	270761	109362	5671	385794
(%)	*70.18*	*28.35*	*1.47*	*100*
by household composition				
In couple				
freq.	52120	8706	1379	62204
(%)	*83.79*	*14.00*	*2.22*	*100.00*
In couple with children				
freq.	114963	59554	2138	176655
(%)	*65.08*	*33.71*	*1.21*	*100*
Alone with children				
freq.	6366	5913	500	12778
(%)	*49.82*	*46.27*	*3.91*	*100*
Total				
freq.	173449	74173	4017	251638
(%)	*68.93*	*29.48*	*1.60*	*100.00*
by number of children				
No children				
freq.	130082	30107	3033	163222
(%)	*79.70*	*18.45*	*1.86*	*100*
One child				
freq.	66669	30534	790	97994
(%)	*68.03*	*31.16*	*0.81*	*100*
Two or more children				
freq.	54660	34933	1847	91440
(%)	*59.78*	*38.20*	*2.02*	*100*
Total				
freq.	251411	95574	5671	352656
(%)	*71.29*	*27.10*	*1.61*	*100*
Total missing value for:				
sex	102466			
household composition	50627			
number of children				

Table 43 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family by sex - household composition - type of activity (multiple response)

	Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family							
	Shiftwork/work on week-end/too much burden	Inflexibility of working hours	Frequent business trip	Too long distance to reach the working place	Inflexibility of school opening time and lack of care services	Too high cost of paid care personnel/lack of tax benefit	Partner is not collaborating	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male								
freq.	35624	15890	10157	10550	8821	12968	282	94291
(%)	*67.86*	*30.27*	*19.35*	*20.10*	*16.80*	*24.70*	*0.54*	
Female								
freq.	39831	17222	5187	10953	7846	20140	5795	106973
(%)	*71.99*	*31.13*	*9.38*	*19.80*	*14.18*	*36.40*	*10.47*	
Total								
freq.	75455	33112	15344	21503	16667	33108	6077	201264
(%)	*69.98*	*30.71*	*14.23*	*19.94*	*15.46*	*30.71*	*5.64*	
by household composition								
In couple								
freq.	6822	2477	2107	1889	339	663	282	14579
(%)	*85.48*	*31.04*	*26.40*	*23.67*	*4.25*	*8.30*	*3.54*	
In couple with children								
freq.	36998	21262	9195	11414	11640	24162	2328	117000
(%)	*61.53*	*35.36*	*15.29*	*18.98*	*19.36*	*40.18*	*3.87*	
Alone with children								
freq.	4018	2328	1108		1004	1612	1499	11570
(%)	*67.96*	*39.38*	*18.74*		*16.97*	*27.27*	*25.36*	
Total								
freq.	47838	26067	12410	13303	12983	26437	4109	143149
(%)	*64.63*	*35.21*	*16.76*	*19.53*	*17.54*	*35.71*	*5.55*	
by type of activity								
Regular employee								
freq.	57034	30354	12531	19960	12491	28105	5144	165619
(%)	*66.35*	*35.31*	*14.58*	*23.22*	*14.53*	*32.70*	*5.98*	
Self-employed								
freq.	15593	2042	1880	1542	3242	4367	500	29165
(%)	*86.76*	*11.36*	*10.46*	*8.58*	*18.04*	*24.30*	*2.78*	
Not regular employee								
freq.	2827	716	934		934	636	434	6481
(%)	*72.55*	*18.38*	*23.96*		*23.96*	*16.32*	*11.13*	
Total								
freq.	75454	33112	15345	21502	16667	33108	6078	201265
(%)	*69.98*	*30.71*	*14.23*	*20.69*	*15.46*	*30.71*	*5.64*	

Total missing value for:

sex	**286996**
household composition	159116
employment status	**286995**

4.4 SLOVENIA

4.4.1 General information (Tables 1-7)

The data presented derive from the survey conducted on the population of Ljubljana, aged 25 to 44. It has been weighted by sex and age in order to gain the estimate of the characteristics of the population of Ljubljana.

With regard to *educational level* and compared to the Census 2002 data, the share of people with low education is too low, while on the other hand, those with high education are over represented. The figures show that the incidence of highly educated is slightly higher for women (59,7 %) than for men (51,8%).

Regarding *marital status*, around half (48,5%) of people aged from 25 to 44 in Ljubljana are married, among these more women than men (52,4% compared to 44,6 %); while 44,8% have never been married, the incidence being higher for men (49,5% compared to 39,9%). As expected, the incidence of married and other (divorced, widowed etc.) increases with age and on the opposite, the incidence of those never married declines.

Figures for *household composition* show that majority of chosen population live in couples with children (45,4%), the incidence being higher for women than men (48,0% compared to 42,9%) and increasing by age. Employed live mainly in couple with children (50%), while a high share of not employed lives with family of origin (38,8%) and the same is true for inactive (46,9% living with family of origin). The next most common type of household composition is living with family of origin (nearly 1 out of 5). The incidence in this case is higher for men than women (23,0% compared to 14,3%) and decreasing by age.

People aged from 25-44 in Ljubljana mainly own their accommodation (61,4%) or have a free use of it (26,0%), while only 12,6% rent it.

The *employment rate* is high for both, men and women (around 85%), while there is a small share of not employed (around 8%). The incidence of employed increases with age: from 77,5% (25-34) to 92,7% (35-44), while the incidence of inactive decreases: from 10,3% (25-34) to 3,6% (35-44). Also the share of not employed decreases from 12,3% (25-34) to 3,7% (35-44).

In Ljubljana, regular permanent employment is prevalent (76,7%), though there exist differences between the two age groups (25-34 and 35-44). With age, an increase in the incidence of permanent employment (in total employment) from 65,40% (25-34) to 85,8% (35-44%), and a decrease in not regular employment (from 7,2% to 2,4%), can be observed. The incidence of permanent employment in total employment is slightly higher for public sector than for private one (85,0% and 81,1%) while self-employment represents 7% of total employment. The share of men in self-employment is higher than the share of women (10,3 % in comparison to 3,7%). Average number of children in the chosen population is rather low, that is 1,05 for women and 0,82 for men and it is, as expected, increasing by age.

Table 1 - Sample population by sex and 5year age groups

	5 year age groups				
	25-29	**30-34**	**35-39**	**40-44**	**Total**
by sex					
male					
abs.value	10.473	10.098	9.736	10.312	40.619
(%)	25,8%	24,9%	24,0%	25,4%	100,0%
female					
abs.value	9.723	9.629	9.914	10.432	39.698
(%)	24,5%	24,3%	25,0%	26,3%	100,0%
TOTAL	20.196	19.727	19.650	20.744	80.317

Table 2 - Educational level by sex and 5year age groups

	Educational level			
	low education	**medium education**	**high education**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	1.839	17.726	21.053	40.618
(%)	*4,5%*	*43,6%*	*51,8%*	*100,0%*
female				
freq.	{876}	15.124	23.698	39.698
(%)	*{2,2%}*	*38,1%*	*59,7%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	2.715	32.850	44.751	80.316
(%)	*3,4%*	*40,9%*	*55,7%*	*100,0%*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	{179}	11.435	8.583	20.197
(%)	*{0,9%}*	*56,6%*	*42,5%*	*100,0%*
30-34				
freq.	{323}	6.284	13.120	19.727
(%)	*{1,6%}*	*31,9%*	*66,5%*	*100,0%*
35-39				
freq.	{986}	7.723	10.941	19.650
(%)	*{5%}*	*39,3%*	*55,7%*	*100,0%*
40-44				
freq.	{1228}	7.408	12.108	20.744
(%)	*{5,9%}*	*35,7%*	*58,4%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	2.716	32.850	44.752	80.318
(%)	*3,4%*	*40,9%*	*55,7%*	*100,0%*

Table 3 - Marital status by sex and 5year age groups

	Marital status			
	married	**never married**	**other**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq.	18.133	20.126	2.360	40.619
(%)	*44,6%*	*49,5%*	*5,8%*	*100,0%*
female				
freq.	20.809	15.826	3.063	39.698
(%)	*52,4%*	*39,9%*	*7,7%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	38.942	35.952	5.423	80.317
(%)	*48,5%*	*44,8%*	*6,8%*	*100,0%*
by 5year age groups				
25-29				
freq.	2.991	16.955	{249}	20.195
(%)	*14,8%*	*84,0%*	*{1,2%}*	*100,0%*
30-34				
freq.	9.258	10.469	{0}	19.727
(%)	*23,8%*	*53,1%*	*{0%}*	*100,0%*
35-39				
freq.	13.381	5.101	{1168}	19.650
(%)	*68,1%*	*26,0%*	*{5,9%}*	*100,0%*
40-44				
freq.	13.311	3.427	4.006	20.744
(%)	*64,2%*	*16,5%*	*19,3%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	38.941	35.952	5.423	80.316

Table 4 - Employment status by sex - 10year age groups - educational level

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Not Employed**	**Total**
by sex				
male				
freq	34.676	2.595	3.348	40.619
(%)	*85,4%*	*6,4%*	*8,2%*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	{1227}	{1632}	{516}	3.375
(%)	*{36,4%}*	*{48,4%}*	*{15,3%}*	*100,0%*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
female				
freq	33.704	2.960	3.034	39.698
(%)	*84,9%*	*7,5%*	*7,6%*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	{1162}	{1408}	{579}	3.149
(%)	*{36,9%}*	*{44,7%}*	*{18,4%}*	*100,0%*
house workers				
freq	{87}	{0}	{0}	{87}
(%)	*{100,0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{100,0%}*

Table 4 continues... >>

>> Table 4 (continues)

	Employment Status			
	Employed	**Inactive**	**Not Employed**	**Total**
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	30.929	4.093	4.901	39.923
(%)	*77,5%*	*10,3%*	*12,3%*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	2.301	2.894	{1095}	6.290
(%)	*36,6%*	*46,0%*	*{17,4%}*	*100,0%*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
35-44				
freq	37.451	{1462}	{1481}	37.451
(%)	*92,7%*	*{3,6%}*	*{3,7%}*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	{87}	{147}	{0}	{234}
(%)	*{37,2%}*	*{62,8%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
house workers				
freq	{87}	{0}	{0}	{87}
(%)	*{100%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	2.255	{110}	{350}	2.715
(%)	*83,1%*	*{4,1%}*	*{12,9%}*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
Medium				
freq	25.078	3.965	3.808	32.851
(%)	*76,3%*	*12,1%*	*11,6%*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	2.066	2.681	{837}	5.584
(%)	*37,0%*	*48,0%*	*{15%}*	*100,0%*
house workers				
freq	-	-	-	-
(%)	-	-	-	-
High				
freq	41.047	{1480}	2.225	44.752
(%)	*91,7%*	*{3,3%}*	*5,0%*	*100,0%*
student				
freq	{323}	{359}	{258}	{940}
(%)	*{34,4%}*	*{38,2%}*	*{27,4%}*	*{100%}*
house workers				
freq	{87}	{0}	{0}	{87}
(%)	*{100%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Total				
freq	68.380	5.555	6.382	80.317
(%)	*85,1%*	*6,9%*	*7,9%*	*100,0%*

Table 5 - Type of activity by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee	Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term *Permanent*			
by sex				
male	*(regular employee)*			
freq	29.054	3.519	{1609}	34.182
(%)	*85,0%*	*10,3%*	*{4,7%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*10,9%* *74,1%*			
female	*(regular employee)*			
freq	30.816	{1228}	{1134}	33.178
(%)	*92,9%*	*{3,7%}*	*{3,4%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*13,6%* *79,3%*			
by 10years age groups				
25-34	*(regular employee)*			
freq	26.117	1.810	2.186	30.113
(%)	*86,7%*	*6,0%*	*7,3%*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*21,3%* *65,4%*			
35-44	*(regular employee)*			
freq	33.753	2.936	{557}	37.246
(%)	*90,6%*	*7,9%*	*{1,5%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*4,8%* *85,8%*			
by educational level				
Low	*(regular employee)*			
freq	2.166	{89}	{0}	2.255
(%)	*96,1%*	*{3,9%}*	*{0%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*0,0%* *96,1%*			
Medium	*(regular employee)*			
freq	21.032	{1624}	1.748	24.404
(%)	*86,2%*	*{6,7%}*	*7,2%*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*11,9%* *74,3%*			
High	*(regular employee)*			
freq	36.672	3.033	{995}	40.700
(%)	*90,1%*	*7,5%*	*{2,4%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*13,1%* *77,0%*			
by sector of activity				
Private	*(regular employee)*			
freq	30.623	4.747	{1442}	36.812
(%)	*83,2%*	*12,9%*	*{3,9%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*9,7%* *73,5%*			
Public	*(regular employee)*			
freq	28.830	-	{1122}	29.952
(%)	*96,3%*	-	*{3,7%}*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*11,3%* *85,0%*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED				
freq	59.870	4.747	2.743	67.360
(%)	*88,9%*	*7,0%*	*4,1%*	*100,0%*
freq	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	12,2% 76,7%			

Total missing value for:

sex 12957

Table 6 - Household composition by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	**alone**	**in couple**	**in couple with children**	**other**	**Total**
by sex						
male						
freq.	9.327	5.382	5.293	17.441	3.176	40.619
(%)	*23,0%*	*13,2%*	*13,0%*	*42,9%*	*7,8%*	*100,0%*
female						
freq.	5.675	4.643	5.308	19.049	5.023	39.698
(%)	*14,3%*	*11,7%*	*13,4%*	*48,0%*	*12,7%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	15.002	10.025	10.601	36.490	8.199	80.317
(%)	*18,7%*	*12,5%*	*13,2%*	*45,4%*	*10,2%*	*100,0%*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	12.806	5.584	7.639	9.655	4.239	39.923
(%)	*32,1%*	*14,0%*	*19,1%*	*24,2%*	*10,6%*	*100,0%*
35-44						
freq.	2.196	4.442	2.961	26.835	3.959	40.393
(%)	*5,4%*	*11,0%*	*7,3%*	*66,4%*	*9,8%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	15.002	10.026	10.600	36.490	8.198	80.316
(%)	*18,7%*	*12,5%*	*13,2%*	*45,4%*	*10,2%*	*100,0%*
by level of education						
low						
freq.	{222}	{89}	{167}	2.072	{164}	2.714
(%)	*{8,2%}*	*{3,3%}*	*{6,2%}*	*76,3%*	*{6%}*	*100,0%*
medium						
freq.	9.711	3.108	2.905	13.150	3.976	32.850
(%)	*29,6%*	*9,5%*	*8,8%*	*40,0%*	*12,1%*	*100,0%*
high						
freq.	5.069	6.829	7.528	21.268	4.058	44.752
(%)	*11,3%*	*15,3%*	*16,8%*	*47,5%*	*9,1%*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	15.003	10.026	10.601	36.490	8.198	80.316
(%)	*18,7%*	*12,5%*	*13,2%*	*45,4%*	*10,2%*	*100,0%*
by employment status						
employed						
freq.	9.921	8.566	9.443	34.202	6.247	68.379
(%)	*14,5%*	*12,5%*	*13,8%*	*50,0%*	*9,1%*	*100,0%*
not employed						
freq.	2.478	{627}	{659}	{1328}	{1290}	6.382
(%)	*38,8%*	*{9,8%}*	*{10,3%}*	*{20,8%}*	*{20,2%}*	*100,0%*
inactive						
freq.	2.603	{833}	{498}	{959}	{662}	5.555
(%)	*46,9%*	*{15%}*	*{9%}*	*{17,3%}*	*{11,9%}*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	15.002	10.026	10.600	36.489	8.199	80.316
(%)	*18,7%*	*12,5%*	*13,2%*	*45,4%*	*10,2%*	*100,0%*

Table 6 continues... >>

>> Table 6 (continues)

	Household composition					
	with family of origin	**alone**	**in couple**	**in couple with children**	**other**	**Total**
by type of activity						
regular employee						
freq.	7.492	7.243	8.170	31.574	5.391	59.870
(%)	*12,5%*	*12,1%*	*13,6%*	*52,7%*	*9,0%*	*100,0%*
self-employed						
freq.	{495}	{858}	{1087}	2.022	{284}	4.746
(%)	*{10,4%}*	*{18,1%}*	*{22,9%}*	*42,6%*	*{6%}*	*100,0%*
not regular employee						
freq.	{1212}	{384}	{186}	{606}	{355}	2.743
(%)	*{44,2%}*	*{14%}*	*{6,8%}*	*{22,1%}*	*{12,9%}*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	9.199	8.485	9.443	34.202	6.030	67.359
(%)	*13,7%*	*12,6%*	*14,0%*	*50,8%*	*9,0%*	*100,0%*

Table 7 - Accomodation by household composition

	Accomodation			
	owned	**rented**	**free use**	**Total**
by household composition				
with family of origin				
freq.	7.784	{207}	6.957	14.948
(%)	*52,1%*	*{1,4%}*	*46,5%*	*100,0%*
alone				
freq.	5.086	2.551	2.219	9.856
(%)	*51,6%*	*25,9%*	*22,5%*	*100,0%*
in couple				
freq.	5.881	2.895	1.824	10.600
(%)	*55,5%*	*27,3%*	*17,2%*	*100,0%*
in couple with children				
freq.	25.995	2.801	7.332	36.128
(%)	*72,0%*	*7,8%*	*20,3%*	*100,0%*
other				
freq.	4.170	{1593}	2.435	8.198
(%)	*50,9%*	*{19,4%}*	*29,7%*	*80,6%*
Total				
freq.	48.916	10.047	20.767	79.730
(%)	*61,4%*	*12,6%*	*26,0%*	*100,0%*

4.4.2 Employment and job history (Tables 19-29)

Focusing on employment and job history of population aged 25-44 in Ljubljana, the figures show that the mean age their first job is 22,08 for men and 22,30 for women.

On average, full-time worker in Ljubljana, works more than 40 hours per week, namely 43,17. The average for men is 43,86 and for women 42,46. The incidence is higher for self employed, both, men and women (48,22 and 44,76 respectively), but particularly higher for self-employed belonging to the 35-44 age group (52 hours on average). The average of weekly working hours is higher for those working in the private sector than of those working in public sector (44,03 compared to 42,13) and for those without children compared to people with (43,57 in comparisons to 42,91).

Generally, part-time employment is not very widespread, neither among women nor men. Persons working part time, are mostly those with regular employment, although the incidence in this regard is higher for women than men (64,2% and 47, 8% respectively). Part-time employees work on average 26,21 hours per week and men work more than women (28,97 in comparisons to 26,2). Part-time employees in private sector on average work more than their colleagues in public sector (27,88 and 24,94 respectively).

A majority of workers have not made any contract changes in the last three years (69,4%), only 8,7% changed 1 contract, 13,8% changed between 2 and 3 contracts and only 8,1% more than 3. Among those who have made any contract changes in the last three years, 43,1% have changed between 2 and 3 contracts, 31,3% more than three contracts and 25,7% one contract. Those with not regular employment have a higher incidence of more than 3 contract changes than the self employed or regular employed (41,6% compared to 7% and 6,7%). Also, the incidence of changing at least one contract in the last three years is higher for those working in private sector compared to those working in public (37,2% compared to 23,5%). The reasons for changes are mainly voluntary (63,3%) compared to 33,1% non-voluntary, however more women declare non-voluntary reasons for job changes than men (42,1% compared to 23,8%).

More than half, 52,6%, workers with job history (therefore those, who have at least ones changed the job in the last three years), has not experienced unemployment periods at all in the last three years. The incidence of those experiencing unemployment periods is higher for women than for men (57,4% compared to 38,5%).

Table 19 - Mean age at first job by sex

	Mean age at first cohabitation			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	22,08	0,032	22,01-22,14	4,36
female	22,30	0,029	22,25-22,36	3,81

Table 20 - People working part-time by type of activity and sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male	*(regular employee)*				
freq	{684}		{82}	{665}	{1431}
(%)	*{47,8%}*		*5,7%*	*46,5%*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{12,2%}*	*{35,6%}*			
female					
freq	{1081}		{163}	{439}	{1683}
(%)	*{64,2%}*		*{9,7%}*	*{26,1%}*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{18,8%}*	*{45,4%}*			
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq	{791}		{82}	{1104}	1.977
(%)	*{40%}*		*{4,1%}*	*{55,8%}*	*100,0%*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{24,9%}*	*{15,1%}*			
35-44					
freq	{975}		{163}	{0}	{1138}
(%)	*{85,7%}*		*{14,3%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{0%}*	*{85,7%}*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	-		-	-	-
(%)	-		-	-	-
freq.	-	-			
(%)	-	-			
Medium					
freq	{749}		{75}	{874}	{1698}
(%)	*{44,1%}*		*{4,4%}*	*{51,5%}*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{11%}*	*{33,1%}*			
High					
freq	{1016}		{169}	{230}	{1415}
(%)	*{71,8%}*		*{11,9%}*	*{16,3%}*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{21,5%}*	*{50,3%}*			

Table 20 continues... >>

>> Table 20 (continues)

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	{464}		{244}	{639}	{1347}
(%)	*{34,3%}*		*{18,1%}*	*{47,4%}*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{6,0%}*	*{28,3%}*			
Public					
freq	{1301}		-	{465}	1766
(%)	*{73,7%}*		-	*{26,3%}*	*100,0%*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{23,2%}*	*{50,5%}*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	{1061}		{87}	{0}	{1148}
(%)	*{92,4%}*		*{7,6%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{18,4%}*	*{74%}*			
without children					
freq	{705}		{157}	{1104}	1.966
(%)	*{35,9%}*		*{8%}*	*{56,2%}*	*100,0%*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*{14,3%}*	*{21,6%}*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq	1.766		{244}	{1104}	3.114
(%)	*56,7%*		*{7,8%}*	*{35,4%}*	*100,0%*
freq.	*(fixed-term)*	*(permanent)*			
(%)	*15,8%*	*40,9%*			

Total missing value for:

sex	99
10years age groups	99
educational level	99
sector of activity	343
presence of children	99

Table 21 - Average hours worked for FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male	*(regular employee)*				
mean	43,49		48,22	{38,55}	43,86
st dev	*9,303*		*15,645*	*{8,26}*	*10,249*
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
mean	42,22	43,67			
st dev	*11,92*	*8,87*			
female					
mean	42,64		{44,76}	{23,54}	42,46
st dev	*8,818*		*{17,007}*	*{8,26}*	*10,249*
mean	42,42	42,67			
st dev	*8,10*	*8,93*			

Table 21 continues... >>

>> Table 21 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean		43,05	{40,59}	{30,01}	42,49
st dev		*9,022*	*{16,97}*	*{16,017}*	*10,236*
mean	43,03	43,05			
st dev	*10,02*	*8,70*			
35-44					
mean		43,06	52	{43,54}	43,7
st dev		*9,102*	*13,562*	*{4,458}*	*9,736*
mean	40,15	43,23			
st dev	*9,70*	*9,04*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean		44,13	{50}	-	44,37
st dev		*15,191*	*{0}*	-	*14,922*
mean	-	44,13			
st dev	-	*15,19*			
Medium					
mean		43,61	{49,79}	{35,96}	43,79
st dev		*9,893*	*{13,537}*	*{13,654}*	*10,553*
mean	44,06	43,54			
st dev	*14,088*	*9,079*			
High					
mean		42,68	45,97	{29,02}	42,75
st dev		*8,015*	*17,451*	*{16,735}*	*9,225*
mean	41,38	42,88			
st dev	*6,63*	*8,19*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean		43,86	47,48	{27,87}	44,03
st dev		*8,725*	*16,008*	*{17,948}*	*10,388*
mean	43,65	43,88			
st dev	*8,84*	*8,71*			
Public					
mean		42,19	-	{39,18}	42,13
st dev		9,291	-	*{8,62}*	*9,288*
mean	41,4	42,32			
st dev	*10,54*	*9,07*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean		42,69	46,37	44,17	42,91
st dev		*8,078*	*16,635*	*3,593*	*8,758*
mean	42,95	42,67			
st dev	5,737	8,215			
without children					
mean		43,62	48,51	{25,93}	43,57
st dev		*10,392*	*15,332*	*{15,71}*	*11,525*
mean	42,06	44,09			
st dev	11,373	10,031			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean		43,05	47,48	33,5	43,17
st dev		*9,068*	*16,008*	*15,181*	*9,974*
mean	42,33	43,16			
st dev	*10,02*	*8,91*			

Total missing value for:	
sex	1320
10years age groups	1320
educational level	1320
sector of activity	5894
presence of children	1320

Table 22 - Average hours worked for PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by sex					
male	*(regular employee)*				
mean	{28,97}		{20}	{24,55}	{26,4}
st dev	*{8,884}*		*{0}*	*{13,354}*	*{11,297}*
	(fixed-term)	*(permanent)*			
mean	{26,28}	{29,89}			
st dev	*{3,503}*	*{9,925}*			
female					
mean	{26,2}		{25,62}	{25,86}	{26,05}
st dev	*{6,252}*		*{2,444}*	*{13,432}*	*{8,525}*
mean	{26,67}	{26}			
st dev	*{4,722}*	*{6,778}*			
by 10years age groups					
25-34					
mean	{29,8}		{20}	{25,07}	26,75
st dev	*{8,763}*		*{0}*	*{13,394}*	*11,75*
mean	{26,53}	{35,17}			
st dev	*{4,328}*	*{11,221}*			
35-44					
mean	{25,22}		{25,62}	-	{25,27}
st dev	*{5,509}*		*{2,444}*	-	*{5,184}*
mean	-	{25,22}			
st dev	-	*{5,509}*			
by educational level					
Low					
mean	-		-	-	-
st dev	-		-	-	-
mean	-	-			
st dev	-	-			
Medium					
mean	{27,64}		{27,5}	{25,78}	{26,68}
st dev	*{6,335}*		*{2,517}*	*{13,303}*	*{10,48}*
mean	*{30}*	*{26,86}*			
st dev	{0}	{7,146}			
High					
mean	{26,99}		{22,07}	{22,36}	{25,65}
st dev	*{8,253}*		*{2,005}*	*{13,423}*	*{9,118}*
mean	{24,39}	{28,1}			
st dev	*{4,274}*	*{9,236}*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
mean	{32,69}		{23,74}	{25,97}	{27,88}
st dev	*{9,96}*		*{3,321}*	*{13,722}*	*{11,753}*
mean	{30}	{33,26}			
st dev	*{0}*	*{10,889}*			
Public					
mean	{25,34}		-	{23,83}	24,94
st dev	*{5,182}*		-	*{12,843}*	*7,973*
mean	{25,84}	{25,11}			
st dev	*{4,426}*	*{5,481}*			

Table 22 continues... >>

>> Table 22 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	TOTAL
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by presence of children					
with children					
mean	{25,79}		{24}	-	{25,66}
st dev	*{5,416}*		*{0}*	-	*{5,227}*
mean	{25}	{25,99}			
st dev	{5,012}	{5,497}			
without children					
mean	{29,49}		{23,59}	{25,07}	26,54
st dev	*{9,421}*		*{4,14}*	*{13,394}*	*11,785*
mean	{27,68}	{30,69}			
st dev	{3,301}	{11,69}			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
mean	27,27		{23,74}	{25,07}	26,21
st dev	*7,504*		*{3,321}*	*{13,394}*	*9,896*
mean	26,53	27,56			
st dev	*4,33*	*8,40*			

Total missing value for:	
sex	99
10years age groups	99
educational level	99
sector of activity	343
presence of children	99

Table 23 - Number of contracts during the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Contracts changes			
	1	2-3	>3	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq	3.530	4.855	3.447	11.832
(%)	*29,8%*	*41,0%*	*29,1%*	*100,0%*
Female				
freq	2.240	4.820	3.580	10.640
(%)	*21,1%*	*45,3%*	*33,6%*	*100,0%*
by 10years age groups				
25-34				
freq	4.777	6.333	5.581	16.691
(%)	*28,6%*	*37,9%*	*33,4%*	*100,0%*
35-44				
freq	{993}	3.342	{1446}	5.781
(%)	*{17,2%}*	*57,8%*	*{25%}*	*100,0%*

Table 23 continues... >>

>> Table 23 (continues)

	Contracts changes			
	1	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by educational level				
Low				
freq	{0}	{125}	{106}	{231}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{54,1%}*	*{45,9%}*	*{100%}*
Medium				
freq	{1363}	2.929	3.531	7.823
(%)	*{17,4%}*	*37,4%*	*45,1%*	*100,0%*
High				
freq	4.407	6.622	3.391	14.420
(%)	*30,6%*	*45,9%*	*23,5%*	*100,0%*
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	5.734	9.171	5.775	20.680
(%)	*27,7%*	*44,3%*	*27,9%*	*100,0%*
Inactive				
freq	{37}	{284}	{452}	{773}
(%)	*{4,8%}*	*{36,7%}*	*{58,5%}*	*{100%}*
Not employed				
freq	{0}	{221}	{800}	{1021}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{21,6%}*	*{78,4%}*	*{100%}*
Total workers with job history				
freq	5.770	9.675	7.027	22.472
(%)	*25,7%*	*43,1%*	*31,3%*	*100,0%*

Table 24 - Contract changes during the last three years by type of activity (for employed)

	Contract changes				
	0	**1**	**2-3**	**>3**	**Total**
by type of activity					
Regular employed					
freq	40.894	5.277	8.222	3.891	58.284
(%)	*70,2%*	*9,1%*	*14,1%*	*6,7%*	*100,0%*
Self-employed					
freq	3.419	{419}	{576}	{332}	4.746
(%)	*72,0%*	*{8,8%}*	*{12,1%}*	*{7%}*	*100,0%*
Not regular employed					
freq	{1266}	{0}	{273}	{1098}	2.637
(%)	*{48%}*	*{0%}*	*{10,4%}*	*{41,6%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq	45.579	5.696	9.071	5.321	65.667
(%)	*69,4%*	*8,7%*	*13,8%*	*8,1%*	*100,0%*

Total missing value for:

type of activity *2712,00*

Table 25 - Contract changes during the last three years by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Contract changes				
	0	1	2-3	>3	Total
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	19.490	3.522	5.218	2.822	31.052
(%)	*62,8%*	*11,3%*	*16,8%*	*9,1%*	*100,0%*
Public					
freq	22.410	{1673}	3.140	2.085	29.308
(%)	*76,5%*	*{5,7%}*	*10,7%*	*7,1%*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq	41.900	5.195	8.358	4.907	60.360
(%)	*69,4%*	*8,6%*	*13,8%*	*8,1%*	*100,0%*

Total missing value for:

sector of activity 2252

Table 26 - Reasons for job changes by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition (for respondent with job history)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	Non voluntary	Other	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq	5.741	1.950	{497}	8.188
(%)	*70,1%*	*23,8%*	*{6,1%}*	*100,0%*
Female				
freq	4.836	3.582	{99}	8.517
(%)	*56,8%*	*42,1%*	*{1,2%}*	*100,0%*
by 10 years age groups				
25-34				
freq	7.824	3.675	{418}	11.917
(%)	*65,7%*	*30,8%*	*{3,5%}*	*100,0%*
35-44				
freq	2.753	1.857	{179}	4.789
(%)	*57,5%*	*38,8%*	*{3,7%}*	*100,0%*
by educational level				
Low				
freq	{230}	{0}	{0}	{230}
(%)	*{100%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Medium				
freq	3.867	2.356	{458}	6.681
(%)	*57,9%*	*35,3%*	*{6,9%}*	*100,0%*
High				
freq	6.480	3.175	{139}	9.794
(%)	*66,2%*	*32,4%*	*{1,4%}*	*100,0%*

Table 26 continues... >>

>> Table 26 (continues)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by current employment condition				
Employed				
freq	9.928	4.473	{278}	14.679
(%)	*67,6%*	*30,5%*	*{1,9%}*	*100,0%*
Inactive				
freq	{476}	{259}	{61}	{796}
(%)	*{59,8%}*	*{32,5%}*	*{7,7%}*	*{100%}*
Not employed				
freq	{173}	{799}	{258}	{1230}
(%)	*{14,1%}*	*{65%}*	*{21%}*	*{100%}*
Total workers with job history				
freq	10.577	5.532	{596}	16.705
(%)	*63,3%*	*33,1%*	*{3,6%}*	*100,0%*

Total missing value for:

sex	*655,00*
10years age groups	*655,00*
educational level	*655,00*
current employment condition	*655,00*

Table 27 - Reasons for job changes by type of activity (for employed)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	**Non voluntary**	**Other**	**Total**
by type of activity				
Regular employed				
freq	8.153	3.514	{228}	11.895
(%)	*68,5%*	*29,5%*	*{1,9%}*	*100,0%*
Self-employed				
freq	{616}	{292}	{0}	{908}
(%)	*{67,8%}*	*{32,2%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Not regular employed				
freq	{830}	{492}	{49}	{1371}
(%)	*{60%}*	*{35,9%}*	*{3,6%}*	*{100%}*
Total				
freq	9.599	4.298	{277}	14.174
(%)	*67,7%*	*30,3%*	*{2%}*	*100,0%*

Total missing value for:

type of activity	*54205*

Table 28 - Reasons for job changes by sector of activity (for regular and not regular employees)

	Reasons for job changes			
	Voluntary	Non voluntary	Other	Total
by sector of activity				
Private				
freq	5.840	1.940	{179}	7.959
(%)	73,4%	24,4%	{2,2%}	100,0%
Public				
freq	3.093	1.897	{99}	5.089
(%)	60,8%	37,3%	{1,9%}	100,0%
Total				
freq	8.933	3.837	{278}	13.048
(%)	68,5%	29,4%	{2,1%}	100,0%

Total missing value for:

sector of activity 49565

Table 29 - Longest unemployment period in the last three years by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - current employment condition - type of activity - sector of activity

	Longest unemployment period					
	0	< 3 months	3-6 months	7-12 months	> 1 year	Total
by sex						
Male						
freq	7.320	{1257}	{1140}	{164}	2.013	11.894
(%)	*61,5%*	*{10,6%}*	*{9,6%}*	*{1,4%}*	*16,9%*	*100,0%*
Female						
freq	4.544	{1519}	{1600}	{1053}	1.946	10.662
(%)	*42,6%*	*{14,2%}*	*{15%}*	*{9,9%}*	*18,3%*	*100,0%*
by 10years age groups						
25-34						
freq	8.472	2.267	2.497	{986}	2.641	16.863
(%)	*50,2%*	*13,4%*	*14,8%*	*{5,8%}*	*15,7%*	*100,0%*
35-44						
freq	3.392	{509}	{244}	{231}	{1318}	5.694
(%)	*59,6%*	*{8,9%}*	*{4,3%}*	*{4,1%}*	*{23,1%}*	*100,0%*
by educational level						
Low						
freq	{125}	{0}	{0}	{106}	{0}	{231}
(%)	*{54,1%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{45,9%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Medium						
freq	2.893	1.813	{1043}	{502}	1.886	8.137
(%)	*35,6%*	*22,3%*	*{12,8%}*	*{6,2%}*	*23,2%*	*100,0%*
High						
freq	8.847	{963}	{1698}	{609}	2.073	14.190
(%)	*62,3%*	*{6,8%}*	*{12%}*	*{4,3%}*	*14,6%*	*100,0%*

Table 29 continues... >>

>> Table 29 (continues)

	Longest unemployment period					
	0	**< 3 months**	**3-6 months**	**7-12 months**	**> 1 year**	**Total**
by current employment condition						
Employed						
freq	11.711	2.359	2.090	{1032}	3.301	20.493
(%)	*57,1%*	*11,5%*	*10,2%*	*{5%}*	*16,1%*	*100,0%*
Inactive						
freq	{153}	{73}	{208}	{37}	{362}	{833}
(%)	*{18,4%}*	*{8,8%}*	*{25%}*	*{4,4%}*	*{43,5%}*	*{100%}*
Not employed						
freq	{0}	{344}	{442}	{148}	{296}	{1230}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{28%}*	*{35,9%}*	*{12%}*	*{24,1%}*	*{100%}*
by type of activity						
Regular employed						
freq	10.987	{1566}	{1251}	{753}	2.778	17.335
(%)	*63,4%*	*{9%}*	*{7,2%}*	*{4,3%}*	*16,0%*	*100,0%*
Self-employed						
freq	{506}	{169}	{217}	{82}	{355}	{1329}
(%)	*{38,1%}*	*{12,7%}*	*{16,3%}*	*{6,2%}*	*{26,7%}*	*{100%}*
Not regular employed						
freq	{82}	{443}	{497}	{148}	{119}	{1289}
(%)	*{6,4%}*	*{34,4%}*	*{38,6%}*	*{11,5%}*	*{9,2%}*	*{100%}*
by sector of activity						
Private						
freq	8.169	{1222}	{1146}	{230}	2.123	12.890
(%)	*63,4%*	*{9,5%}*	*{8,9%}*	*{1,8%}*	*16,5%*	*100,0%*
Public						
freq	3.405	{874}	{650}	{703}	{1178}	6.810
(%)	*50,0%*	*{12,8%}*	*{9,5%}*	*{10,3%}*	*{17,3%}*	*100,0%*
Total workers with job history						
freq	11.864	2.776	2.741	{1216}	3.959	22.556
(%)	*52,6%*	*12,3%*	*12,1%*	*{5,4%}*	*17,6%*	*100,0%*

Total missing value for:

type of activity	2604
sector of activity	2855

4.4.3 Social representation of work (Tables 30-32)

In relation to social representation of occupation regardless of gender, pay and job security, as well as job that meets one's abilities are very important characteristics of a job (over 70%). The difference between men and women can be observed with regard to "good working hours" as a characteristic of a job, that is more important for women than men (51,9% and 39,9% respectively).

Among those perceiving themselves as precarious workers, more than half (51,7%) are not regular employees and particularly men (57,3% and 43,4%). If we focus on fixed-term regular employees only, the incidence of women perceiving themselves as precarious worker is 44,7%, while for men is 21,5%. Similarly, the incidence of those perceiving themselves as precarious working in private sector is higher than those working in public sector (36,5% compared to 31,4%). The figures are higher also for fixed-term workers with children.

Table 30 - Social representation of occupation by sex - 10year age groups - level of education (multiple response)

	Most important aspects in a job			
	Good pay and job security	Good working hours	Job that meets one's abilities	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
male				
freq.	29.323	15.971	28.532	40.028
(%)	73,3%	39,9%	71,3%	
female				
freq.	29.092	20.222	26.512	38.928
(%)	74,7%	51,9%	68,1%	
Total				
freq.	58.415	36.193	55.044	78.956
(%)				
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	28.914	19.193	27.762	39.171
(%)	73,8%	49,0%	70,9%	
35-44				
freq.	29.500	17.000	27.281	39.785
(%)	74,1%	42,7%	68,6%	
Total				
freq.	58.415	36.193	55.044	78.956
(%)				
by level of education				
low				
freq.	1.736	{956}	{1319}	2.626
(%)	66,1%	{36,4%}	{50,2%}	
medium				
freq.	24.913	16.319	20.460	32.311
(%)	77,1%	50,5%	63,3%	
high				
freq.	31.766	18.919	33.265	44.019
(%)	72,2%	43,0%	75,6%	
Total				
freq.	58.415	36.193	55.044	78.956
(%)				

Table 31 - Characteristics a job should heve to support long-term family choices by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - type of activity - sector of activity - presence of children (multiple response)

	Main characteristics a job should have to support long-term family choices				
	Favourable financial aspects	Flexible working arrangements	Protection measures for women and family	Management aspects to reconcile work and family	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male					
freq.	21.242	8.748	2.708	12.339	37.710
(%)	*56,3%*	*23,2%*	*7,2%*	*32,7%*	
Female					
freq.	19.600	10.872	4.490	13.717	37.855
(%)	*51,8%*	*28,7%*	*11,9%*	*36,2%*	
Total					
freq.	40.842	19.621	7.198	26.056	75.565
(%)	*54,0%*	*26,0%*	*9,5%*	*34,5%*	
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	19.402	10.975	3.165	13.189	37.780
(%)	*51,4%*	*29,0%*	*8,4%*	*34,9%*	
35-44					
freq.	21.440	8.646	4.033	12.867	37.785
(%)	*56,7%*	*22,9%*	*10,7%*	*34,1%*	
Total					
freq.	40.842	19.621	7.198	26.056	75.565
(%)	*54,0%*	*26,0%*	*9,5%*	*34,5%*	
by level of education					
Low					
freq.	1.919	{255}	{335}	{622}	2.541
(%)	*75,5%*	*{10%}*	*{13,2%}*	*{24,5%}*	
Medium					
freq.	16.751	8.233	2.753	9.882	31.017
(%)	*54,0%*	*26,5%*	*8,9%*	*31,9%*	
High					
freq.	22.172	11.133	4.110	15.552	42.006
(%)	*52,8%*	*26,5%*	*9,8%*	*37,0%*	
Total					
freq.	40.842	19.621	7.198	26.056	75.565
(%)	*54,0%*	*26,0%*	*9,5%*	*34,5%*	
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	30.696	14.349	5.386	20.219	56.631
(%)	*54,2%*	*25,3%*	*9,5%*	*35,7%*	
Self-employed					
freq.	2.154	{901}	{508}	{1147}	4.148
(%)	*51,9%*	*{21,7%}*	*{12,3%}*	*{27,6%}*	
Not regular employee					
freq.	{1260}	{950}	{306}	{1105}	2.469
(%)	*{51%}*	*{38,5%}*	*{12,4%}*	*{44,7%}*	
Total					
freq.	34.110	16.200	6.200	22.470	63.248
(%)	*53,9%*	*25,6%*	*9,8%*	*35,5%*	

Table 31 continues... >>

>> Table 31 (continues)

	Main characteristics a job should have to support long-term family choices				
	Favourable financial aspects	**Flexible working arrangements**	**Protection measures for women and family**	**Management aspects to reconcile work and family**	**Total**
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq.	19.364	8.304	3.293	11.907	34.432
(%)	*56,2%*	*24,1%*	*9,6%*	*34,6%*	
Public					
freq.	14.410	7.765	2.869	10.489	28.388
(%)	*50,8%*	*27,4%*	*10,1%*	*36,9%*	
Total					
freq.	33.774	16.069	6.162	22.396	62.819
(%)	*53,8%*	*25,6%*	*9,8%*	*35,7%*	
by presence of children					
With children					
freq.	20.547	9.001	4.863	15.105	39.716
(%)	*51,7%*	*22,7%*	*12,2%*	*38,0%*	
Without children					
freq.	20.295	10.619	2.335	10.951	35.849
(%)	*56,6%*	*29,6%*	*6,5%*	*30,5%*	
Total					
freq.	40.842	19.621	7.198	26.056	75.565
(%)	*54,0%*	*26,0%*	*9,5%*	*34,5%*	

Table 32 - People perceiving themselves as precarious workers by sex - 10year age groups - educational level - sector of activity - presence of children

	Type of activity			
	Regular Employee *Fixed-term* *Permanent*	**Self Employed**	**Not Regular Employee**	**Total**
by sex				
male	*(regular employee)*			
freq	4.100	{858}	{923}	5.881
(%)	*14,7%*	*{25%}*	*{57,3%}*	*17,8%*
freq.	*(fixed-term)* *(permanent)*			
(%)	*21,5%* *13,7%*			
female				
freq	4.167	{175}	{476}	4.818
(%)	*14,1%*	*{16,4%}*	*{43,4%}*	*15,2%*
freq.				
(%)	*44,7%* *8,9%*			
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq	3.402	{359}	{1054}	4.815
(%)	*13,40%*	*{20,9}*	*{48,2}*	*16,4*
freq.				
(%)	*30,1%* *8,1%*			
35-44				
freq	4.865	{674}	{345}	5.884
(%)	*15,20%*	*{24,3}*	*{66,3}*	*16,7*
freq.				
(%)	*47,7%* *13,3%*			

Table 32 continues... >>

>> Table 32 (continues)

	Type of activity				
	Regular Employee		Self Employed	Not Regular Employee	Total
	Fixed-term	*Permanent*			
by educational level					
Low					
freq	{164}		{0}	-	{164}
(%)	*{8,8%}*		*{0%}*	-	*{8,4%}*
freq.					
(%)	-	*{8,8%}*			
Medium					
freq	3.472		{250}	{881}	4.603
(%)	*17,3%*		*{15,8%}*	*{51,5%}*	*19,7%*
freq.					
(%)	*36,2%*	*14,2%*			
High					
freq	4.630		{783}	{518}	5.931
(%)	*13,0%*		*{27,8%}*	*{52%}*	*15,1%*
freq.					
(%)	*32,9%*	*9,7%*			
by sector of activity					
Private					
freq	4.803		{1033}	{513}	6.349
(%)	*16,6%*		*{23%}*	*{36,5%}*	*18,3%*
freq.					
(%)	*36,5%*	*14,0%*			
Public					
freq	3.297		-	{886}	4.183
(%)	*11,7%*		-	*{79%}*	*14,3%*
freq.					
(%)	*31,4%*	*8,2%*			
by presence of children					
with children					
freq	4.602		{342}	{257}	5.201
(%)	*14,4%*		*{15,7%}*	*{42,5%}*	*15,0%*
freq.					
(%)	*41,1%*	*12,5%*			
without children					
freq	3.664		{690}	{1142}	5.496
(%)	*14,4%*		*{29,9%}*	*{54,4%}*	*18,4%*
freq.					
(%)	*31,6%*	*9,3%*			
TOTAL EMPLOYED					
freq	8.267		{1033}	{1399}	10.699
(%)	*14,4%*		*{23%}*	*{51,7%}*	*16,6%*
freq.					
(%)	*34,1%*	*11,3%*			

Total missing value for:

sex	3783
10years age groups	3783
educational level	3783
sector of activity	8871
presence of children	3783

4.4.4 Transition to adulthood and partnership history (Tables 10; 16-18)

With regard to partnership history, the focus is on those who first left the family of origin to either marry or cohabit. The mean age of those who left the family of origin to marry or to cohabit is higher for men than women (25,30 and 23,94 respectively) and it is increasing by level of education (22,75 low, 23,36 medium and 25,50 high). Both numbers are lower than the average at marriage (27,8 for women and 30,3 for men) or cohabitation at the national level, since in our population only those leaving the family of origin to form a union are considered.

The mean age at first marriage for those who first left their family of origin to marry is 24,97 for men and 23,71 for women, while the mean age at first cohabitation of those who first left their family of origin to cohabit is a little higher – 25,93 for men and 24,41 for women.

The mean age at the first child is lower for women than for men (25,96 compared to 28,18).

Among those who do have a relationship, but do not live together, majority intend to start living together as a couple in the next three years (84,9%) and the incidence is higher for men than women (90,6% compared to 76,4%).

Table 10 - Mean age when people left the family of origin to marry or to cohabit by sex - level of education - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at leaving family to marry or to cohabit			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	25,30	0,292	25,25-25,36	3,078
female	23,94	0,03	23,88-24,00	3,709
by level of education				
low	{22,75}	{0,082}	{22,59-22,91}	{3,08}
medium	23,36	0,03	23,29-23,42	3,500
high	25,50	0,027	25,44-25,55	3,254
by employment status at time of event				
employed	24,86	0,026	24,81-24,91	3,577
not regular employee	{31,75}	{0,038}	{31,68-31,83}	{0,658}
not employed	23,22	0,033	23,15-23,29	2,754
other	-	-	-	-

Table 16 - Mean age at first marriage by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first marriage			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	24,97	0,036	24,90-25,04	3,03
female	23,71	0,037	23,63-23,78	3,69
by employment status at time of event				
employed	24,47	0,031	24,41-24,53	3,56
not regular employee	-	-	-	-
not employed	23,13	0,042	23,04-23,21	2,70
other	-	-	-	-

Table 17 - Mean age at first cohabitation by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first cohabitation			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	25,93	0,049	25,83-26,03	3,07
female	24,41	0,052	24,31-24,52	3,70
by employment status at time of event				
employed	25,70	0,045	25,62-25,79	3,48
not regular employee	{31,424}	{0,081}	{31,26-31,58}	{0,9093}
not employed	23,36	0,054	23,26-23,47	2,83
other	-	-	-	-

Table 18 - People who intend to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	7023	{726}	7749
(%)	90,6%	{9,4%}	100,0%
female			
freq.	3951	{1221}	5172
(%)	76,4%	{23,6%}	100,0%
Total			
freq.	10974	1947	12921
(%)	84,9%	15,1%	100,0%

Table 18 continues... >>

>> Table 18 (continues)

	Intention to start a union (living in couple) in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	5259	{937}	6196
(%)	84,9%	{15,1%}	100,0%
30-34			
freq.	2777	{310}	3087
(%)	90,0%	{10%}	100,0%
35-39			
freq.	{1618}	{545}	2163
(%)	{74,8%}	{25,2%}	100,0%
40-44			
freq.	{1320}	{155}	{1475}
(%)	{89,5%}	{10,5%}	{100%}
Total			
freq.	10974	1947	12921
(%)	84,9%	15,1%	100,0%
by level of education			
low			
freq.	{87}	{0}	{87}
(%)	{100%}	{0%}	{100%}
medium			
freq.	5083	{1085}	6168
(%)	82,4%	{17,6%}	100,0%
high			
freq.	5804	{862}	6666
(%)	87,1%	{12,9%}	100,0%
Total			
freq.	10974	1947	12921
(%)	84,9%	15,1%	100,0%
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	8769	{1408}	10177
(%)	86,2%	{13,8%}	100,0%
not employed			
freq.	{835}	{173}	{1008}
(%)	{82,8%}	{17,2%}	{100%}
inactive			
freq.	{1369}	{366}	1735
(%)	{78,9%}	{21,1%}	100,0%
Total			
freq.	10973	1947	12920
(%)	84,9%	15,1%	100,0%
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	7340	{1189}	8529
(%)	86,1%	{13,9%}	100,0%
self-employed			
freq.	{555}	{38}	{593}
(%)	{93,6%}	{6,4%}	{100%}
not regular employee			
freq.	{562}	{181}	{743}
(%)	{75,6%}	{24,4%}	{100%}
Total			
freq.	8457	{1408}	9865
(%)	85,7%	{14,3%}	100,0%

4.4.5 Fertility choices and intentions (Tables 8-9; 11-15)

According to figures on fertility choices, the highest age on average to have a child is approaching 40s, as it is 37,88 for women and 39,62 for men, the lowest being in the age group from 25 – 29 (37,33). It does not differ much by employment status and it is slightly lower for regular employees (38,32) compared to other employees.

The desired number of children for people aged from 25 to 44 in Ljubljana is above 2 and similar for men and women (2,43 and 2,47 respectively). The number does not differ much between the 5 year age groups, being slightly lower for those aged 40-44 (2,47) who are probably approaching the end of their reproductive years.

Focusing on the intentions, around two thirds of those who do not have any children intend to have a first child in the next three years, of which, more men than women (70,2% compared to 61,2%). With regard to the age, the incidence is highest within the age group 30-34 (84%), regarding employment status; it is the highest for unemployed (84,8%) and among employees the highest share of those who intend to have a first child is among those with regular employment (70,4%).

It is interesting that among those who already have at least one child, only 18,8% intend to have another and the incidence is higher for men than women (21,4% and 16,7% respectively). The intentions to have another child are, as expected, decreasing with age (69,0% for 25-29, 44,4% for 30-34, 14,2% for 35-39 and 6,2% for 40-44).

Table 8 - Average number of children by sex - 5year age groups - level of education

	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	0,82	0,005	0,82-0,83	0,962
female	1,05	0,005	1,04-1,06	1,025
by 5year age groups				
25-29	0,16	0,003	0,15-0,17	0,451
30-34	0,67	0,006	0,66-0,69	0,840
35-39	1,40	0,007	1,39-1,42	0,956
40-44	1,48	0,007	1,47-1,50	0,989
by level of education				
low	1,27	0,013	1,25-1,30	0,653
medium	0,90	0,006	0,89-0,91	1,021
high	0,94	0,005	0,93-0,95	0,998

Table 9 - Average age of the youngest child...

	Average age of the youngest child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
...Among those who have children			(lower bound-upper bound)	
	7,73	0,028	7,67-7,78	5,647
...Among those who have children aged <=5 years				
	2,44	*0,012*	*2,42-2,46*	1,506

Table 11 - Mean age at first child by sex - employment status at time of event

	Mean age at first child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	28,18	0,030	28,12-28,24	4,20
female	25,96	0,030	25,90-26,02	4,53
by employment status at time of event				
employed	27,45	0,023	27,40-27,50	4,43
not regular employee	{27,93}	{0,113}	{27,71-28,15}	{3,964}
not employed	24,50	0,051	24,40-24,60	3,79
other	-	-	-	-

Tabel 12 - Highest age on average to have a child by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Highest age on average to have a child			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	39,62	0,035	39,55-39,69	6,775
female	37,88	0,023	37,83-37,92	4,454
by 5year age groups				
25-29	37,33	0,039	37,26-37,41	5,455
30-34	39,59	0,045	39,50-39,68	6,085
35-39	39,08	0,036	39,01-39,15	4,858
40-44	39,03	0,045	38,94-39,12	6,322
by level of education				
low	35,43	0,132	35,17-35,68	6,883
medium	38,23	0,034	38,17-38,30	6,120
high	39,32	0,026	39,27-39,37	5,306
by employment status				
employed	38,57	0,021	38,53-38,62	5,296
not employed	39,76	0,119	39,53-39,99	9,190
inactive	39,52	0,087	39,35-39,69	6,262
by type of activity				
regular employee	38,32	0,021	38,28-38,36	5,096
self employed	40,95	0,084	40,79-41,12	5,692
not regular employee	41,42	0,139	41,15-41,69	6,969

Table 13 - Desired number of children on average by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Desired number of children on average			
	mean	std.error	95% confidence interval for mean	std.dev
by sex			(lower bound-upper bound)	
male	2,43	0,006	2,42-2,45	1,123
female	2,47	0,005	2,46-2,48	1,078
by 5year age groups				
25-29	2,48	0,009	2,46-2,50	1,266
30-34	2,46	0,007	2,45-2,48	0,973
35-39	2,52	0,007	2,51-2,54	0,944
40-44	2,35	0,008	2,33-2,36	1,171
by level of education				
low	2,44	0,014	2,41-2,47	0,748
medium	2,43	0,006	2,41-2,44	1,134
high	2,47	0,005	2,46-2,48	1,095
by employment status				
employed	2,41	0,004	2,41-2,42	1,014
not employed	2,88	0,020	2,84-2,92	1,621
inactive	2,42	0,018	2,39-2,46	1,268
by type of activity				
regular employee	2,42	0,004	2,42-2,43	1,018
self employed	2,31	0,014	2,28-2,34	0,996
not regular employee	2,46	0,020	2,42-2,50	1,062

Table 14 - People who declare the intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	6.948	2.956	9.904
(%)	*70,2%*	*29,8%*	*100,0%*
female			
freq.	7.088	4.499	11.587
(%)	*61,2%*	*38,8%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	14.036	7.455	21.491
(%)	*65,3%*	*34,7%*	*100,0%*

Table 14 continues... >>

>> Table 14 (continues)

	Intention to have the FIRST child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	6.043	4.344	10.387
(%)	*58,2%*	*41,8%*	*100,0%*
30-34			
freq.	5.773	{1100}	6.873
(%)	*84,0%*	*{16%}*	*100,0%*
35-39			
freq.	{1527}	{481}	2.008
(%)	*{76%}*	*{24%}*	*100,0%*
40-44			
freq.	{693}	{1531}	2.224
(%)	*{31,2%}*	*{68,8%}*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	14.036	7.456	21.492
(%)	*65,3%*	*34,7%*	*100,0%*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	{0}	{167}	{167}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{100%}*	*{100%}*
medium			
freq.	5.430	3.049	8.479
(%)	*64,0%*	*36,0%*	*100,0%*
high			
freq.	8.607	4.240	12.847
(%)	*67,0%*	*33,0%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	14.037	7.456	21.493
(%)	*65,3%*	*34,7%*	*100,0%*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	11.702	5.767	17.469
(%)	*67,0%*	*33,0%*	*100,0%*
not employed			
freq.	1.717	{307}	2.024
(%)	*84,8%*	*{15,2%}*	*100,0%*
inactive			
freq.	{617}	{1381}	1.998
(%)	*{30,9%}*	*{69,1%}*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	14.036	7.455	21.491
(%)	*65,3%*	*34,7%*	*100,0%*
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	10.033	4.215	14.248
(%)	*70,4%*	*29,6%*	*100,0%*
self-employed			
freq.	{955}	{662}	{1617}
(%)	*{59,1%}*	*{40,9%}*	*{100%}*
not regular employee			
freq.	{615}	{617}	{1232}
(%)	*{49,9%}*	*{50,1%}*	*{100%}*
Total			
freq.	11.603	5.494	17.097
(%)	*67,9%*	*32,1%*	*100,0%*

Table 15 - People who declare the intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years by sex - 5year age groups - level of education - employment status - type of activity

	Intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years		
	Yes	No	Total
by sex			
male			
freq.	3.399	12.449	15.848
(%)	*21,4%*	*78,6%*	*100,0%*
female			
freq.	3.323	16.557	19.880
(%)	*16,7%*	*83,3%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	6.722	29.006	35.728
(%)	*18,8%*	*81,2%*	*100,0%*
by 5year age groups			
25-29			
freq.	{1102}	{496}	{1598}
(%)	*{69%}*	*{31%}*	*{100%}*
30-34			
freq.	2.908	3.644	6.552
(%)	*44,4%*	*55,6%*	*100,0%*
35-39			
freq.	1.780	10.733	12.513
(%)	*14,2%*	*85,8%*	*100,0%*
40-44			
freq.	{932}	14.133	15.065
(%)	*{6,2%}*	*93,8%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	6.722	29.006	35.728
(%)	*18,8%*	*81,2%*	*100,0%*
by level of education			
low			
freq.	{125}	1.944	2.069
(%)	*{6%}*	*94,0%*	*100,0%*
medium			
freq.	2.053	11.620	13.673
(%)	*15,0%*	*85,0%*	*100,0%*
high			
freq.	4.545	15.442	19.987
(%)	*22,7%*	*77,3%*	*100,0%*
Total			
freq.	6.723	29.006	35.729
(%)	*18,8%*	*81,2%*	*100,0%*
by employment status			
employed			
freq.	6.144	27.443	33.587
(%)	*18,3%*	*81,7%*	*100,0%*
not employed			
freq.	{209}	{910}	{1119}
(%)	*{18,7%}*	*{81,3%}*	*{100%}*
inactive			
freq.	{368}	{654}	{1022}
(%)	*{36%}*	*{64%}*	*{100%}*
Total			
freq.	6.721	29.007	35.728
(%)	*18,8%*	*81,2%*	*100,0%*

Table 15 continues... >>

>> Table 15 (continues)

	Intention to have ANOTHER child in the next three years		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
by type of activity			
regular employee			
freq.	5.518	25.488	31.006
(%)	*17,8%*	*82,2%*	*100,0%*
self-employed			
freq.	{577}	{1480}	2.057
(%)	*{28,1%}*	*{71,9%}*	*100,0%*
not regular employee			
freq.	{0}	{307}	{307}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{100%}*	*{100%}*
Total			
freq.	6.095	27.275	33.370
(%)	*18,3%*	*81,7%*	*100,0%*

4.4.6 Time use and work-family reconciliation (Tables 33-43)

With regard to time use and relation between family and work there are significant gender related differences. Men spend considerably less time for housekeeping than women So many as 70,6% of men spend only between 0,30 and 1,00 hours a day for housekeeping (and only 29,6 % of women), while 44,7% of women spend between 1 and 2 hours and more than 1 in 4 spend more than this. Also those living in couple with children spend more time for housekeeping than those living in couples only.

Women also spend considerably more time than men for taking care of the family and as many as 17,9% of them spend 4 hours a day or more for these activities. As expected, younger spend less time than older - up to one hour 49,5% (25-34) and 26,4% (35-44). As well, families with children spend more time for taking care of the family than those living in couples. For example, 59,3% of those living in couple with children spend 2 hours or more, while the incidence in this time group is much lower for those living in couple only (35,6%).

Gender differences can be observed also in relation to spare time, generally women having less spare time than men, for instance, the incidence of spare time up to 1 hour is higher for women (47,6% and 33,4% respectively), while the incidence of spare time between 2 and 4 hours is higher for men (45,9% compared to 30,6%).

Residents of Ljubljana spend on average up to 1 hour for moving (93,7% of men and 93,8% of women). With regard to time spent for paid work, two thirds spend from 6 to 8 hours (67,7%), but 23,3% usually spend more and only 8,9% spend less than 6 hours.

Regarding the sharing of responsibilities in taking care of the children, the majority of men (75,6%) declare that it is equally divided between the partners, while the opinion is shared by only 56,9%. As many as 41,4% of women and only 1,8% of men declare that it is them who mostly take care of children.

Nevertheless, both, men and women declare that they reconcile work and family (82%).

With regard to use of services for children aged less than 5, a big majority 92,3%, uses public services and among these kindergarten, nursery and refectory.

Table 33 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for housekeeping by sex - 10year age groups - household composition

	Daily time spent for housekeeping (in hours)					
	lowest - 0,30	**0,31-1,00**	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex						
Male						
freq.	3.428	25.271	8.634	2.548	{738}	40.619
(%)	*8,4%*	*62,2%*	*21,3%*	*6,3%*	*{1,8%}*	*100,0%*
Female						
freq.	{854}	10.882	17.750	9.302	{910}	39.698
(%)	*{2,2%}*	*27,4%*	*44,7%*	*23,4%*	*{2,3%}*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	4.282	36.153	26.384	11.850	{1648}	80.317
(%)	*5,3%*	*45,0%*	*32,8%*	*14,8%*	*{2,1%}*	*100,0%*
by 10year age groups						
25-34						
freq.	2.492	20.531	12.065	4.588	{248}	39.924
(%)	*6,2%*	*51,4%*	*30,2%*	*11,5%*	*{0,6%}*	*100,0%*
35-44						
freq.	1.790	15.622	14.320	7.262	{1400}	40.394
(%)	*4,4%*	*38,7%*	*35,5%*	*18,0%*	*{3,5%}*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	4.282	36.153	26.385	11.850	{1648}	80.318
(%)	*5,3%*	*45,0%*	*32,9%*	*14,8%*	*{2,1%}*	*100,0%*
Household composition						
In couple						
freq.	{396}	5.172	3.925	{1064}	{43}	10.600
(%)	*{3,7%}*	*48,8%*	*37,0%*	*{10%}*	*{0,4%}*	*100,0%*
In couple with children						
freq.	{680}	13.284	13.580	7.883	{1063}	36.490
(%)	*{1,9%}*	*36,4%*	*37,2%*	*21,6%*	*{2,9%}*	*100,0%*
Alone with children						
freq.	{82}	{554}	{1423}	{526}	{0}	2.585
(%)	*{3,2%}*	*{21,4%}*	*{55%}*	*{20,3%}*	*{0%}*	*100,0%*
Total						
freq.	{1158}	19.010	18.928	9.473	{1106}	49.675
(%)	*{2,3%}*	*38,3%*	*38,1%*	*19,1%*	*{2,2%}*	*100,0%*

Table 34 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for taking care of the family by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status - type of activity

	Daily time spent for taking care of the family (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex					
Male					
freq.	17.132	9.276	10.518	3.638	40.564
(%)	*42,2%*	*22,9%*	*25,9%*	*9,0%*	*100,0%*
Female					
freq.	13.258	8.100	11.230	7.109	39.697
(%)	*33,4%*	*20,4%*	*28,3%*	*17,9%*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	30.390	17.376	21.748	10.747	80.261
(%)	*37,9%*	*21,6%*	*27,1%*	*13,4%*	*100,0%*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	19.744	6.036	8.262	5.827	39.869
(%)	*49,5%*	*15,1%*	*20,7%*	*14,6%*	*100,0%*
35-44			,		
freq.	10.646	11.341	13.487	4.921	40.395
(%)	*26,4%*	*28,1%*	*33,4%*	*12,2%*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	30.390	17.377	21.749	10.748	80.264
(%)	*37,9%*	*21,6%*	*27,1%*	*13,4%*	*100,0%*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.	4.937	1.894	2.709	{1060}	10.600
(%)	*46,6%*	*17,9%*	*25,6%*	*{10%}*	*100,0%*
In couple with children					
freq.	4.299	10.543	13.978	7.669	36.489
(%)	*11,8%*	*28,9%*	*38,3%*	*21,0%*	*100,0%*
Alone with children					
freq.	{590}	{971}	{775}	{249}	2.585
(%)	*{22,8%}*	*{37,6%}*	*{30%}*	*{9,6%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	9.826	13.408	17.462	8.978	49.674
(%)	*19,8%*	*27,0%*	*35,2%*	*18,1%*	*100,0%*

Table 34 continues... >>

>> Table 34 (continues)

	Daily time spent for taking care of the family (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01-4,00**	**4,01 and more**	**Total**
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	24.818	14.928	19.473	9.161	68.380
(%)	*36,3%*	*21,8%*	*28,5%*	*13,4%*	*100,0%*
Inactive					
freq.	2.983	{1073}	{617}	{828}	5.501
(%)	*54,2%*	*{19,5%}*	*{11,2%}*	*{15,1%}*	*100,0%*
Not employed					
freq.	2.589	{1376}	{1660}	{758}	6.383
(%)	*40,6%*	*{21,6%}*	*{26%}*	*{11,9%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	30.390	17.377	21.750	10.747	80.264
(%)	*37,9%*	*21,6%*	*27,1%*	*13,4%*	*100,0%*
by type of activity					
Regular employee					
freq.	20.268	13.677	17.386	8.539	59.870
(%)	*33,9%*	*22,8%*	*29,0%*	*14,3%*	*100,0%*
Self-employed					
freq.	2.212	{759}	{1378}	{398}	4.747
(%)	*46,6%*	*{16%}*	*{29%}*	*{8,4%}*	*100,0%*
Not-regular employee					
freq.	{1585}	{442}	{541}	{175}	2.743
(%)	*{57,8%}*	*{16,1%}*	*{19,7%}*	*{6,4%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	24.065	14.878	19.305	9.112	67.360
(%)	*35,7%*	*22,1%*	*28,7%*	*13,5%*	*100,0%*

Table 35 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for moving by sex

	Daily time spent for moving (in hours)				
	lowest - 0,30	**0,31-1,00**	**1,01-2,00**	**2,01 and more**	**Total**
by sex					
Male					
freq.	11.945	20.551	2.090	{89}	34.675
(%)	*34,4%*	*59,3%*	*6,0%*	*{0,3%}*	*100,0%*
Female					
freq.	9.093	22.503	1.966	{142}	33.704
(%)	*27,0%*	*66,8%*	*5,8%*	*{0,4%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	21.038	43.054	4.056	{231}	68.379
(%)	*30,8%*	*63,0%*	*5,9%*	*{0,3%}*	*100,0%*

Table 36 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for paid work by sex - 10year age groups - level of education - household composition

	Daily time spent for paid work (in hours)			
	lowest - 6,00	6,01-8,00	8,01 and more	Total
by sex				
Male				
freq.	3.377	21.890	9.409	34.676
(%)	*9,7%*	*63,1%*	*27,1%*	*100,0%*
Female				
freq.	3.728	23.015	6.961	33.704
(%)	*11,1%*	*68,3%*	*20,7%*	*100,1%*
Total				
freq.	7.105	44.905	16.370	68.380
(%)	*11,1%*	*68,3%*	*20,7%*	*100,1%*
by 10year age groups				
25-34				
freq.	3.569	19.321	8.039	30.929
(%)	*11,5%*	*62,5%*	*26,0%*	*100,0%*
35-44				
freq.	3.536	25.584	8.331	37.451
(%)	*9,4%*	*68,3%*	*22,2%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	7.105	44.905	16.370	68.380
(%)	*10,4%*	*65,7%*	*23,9%*	*100,0%*
Level of education				
Low				
freq.	{0}	{1664}	{591}	2.255
(%)	*{0%}*	*{73,8%}*	*{26,2%}*	*100,0%*
Medium				
freq.	2.740	15.943	6.394	25.077
(%)	*10,9%*	*63,6%*	*25,5%*	*100,0%*
High				
freq.	4.365	27.298	9.385	41.048
(%)	*10,6%*	*66,5%*	*22,9%*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	7.105	44.905	16.370	68.380
(%)	*10,4%*	*65,7%*	*23,9%*	*100,0%*
Household composition				
In couple				
freq.	{722}	6.391	2.330	9.443
(%)	*{7,6%}*	*67,7%*	*24,7%*	*100,0%*
In couple with children				
freq.	3.158	23.347	7.697	34.202
(%)	*9,2%*	*68,3%*	*22,5%*	*100,0%*
Alone with children				
freq.	{247}	{1486}	{738}	2.471
(%)	*{10%}*	*{60,1%}*	*{29,9%}*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	4.127	31.224	10.765	46.116
(%)	*8,9%*	*67,7%*	*23,3%*	*100,0%*

Table 37 - Daily time (in hours) spent on average (in classes) for spare time by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - number of children (in classes)

	Daily spare time (in hours)				
	lowest - 1,00	1,01-2,00	2,01-4,00	4,01 and more	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	13.574	8.386	10.964	7.695	40.619
(%)	*33,4%*	*20,6%*	*27,0%*	*18,9%*	*100,0%*
Female					
freq.	18.910	8.629	7.618	4.541	39.698
(%)	*47,6%*	*21,7%*	*19,2%*	*11,4%*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	32.484	17.015	18.582	12.236	80.317
(%)	*40,4%*	*21,2%*	*23,1%*	*15,2%*	*100,0%*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	11.914	8.418	10.864	8.726	39.922
(%)	*29,8%*	*21,1%*	*27,2%*	*21,9%*	*100,0%*
35-44					
freq.	20.571	8.597	7.717	3.510	40.395
(%)	*50,9%*	*21,3%*	*19,1%*	*8,7%*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	32.485	17.015	18.581	12.236	80.317
(%)	*40,4%*	*21,2%*	*23,1%*	*15,2%*	*100,0%*
Household composition					
In couple					
freq.	2.477	2.776	3.217	2.130	10.600
(%)	*23,4%*	*26,2%*	*30,3%*	*20,1%*	*100,0%*
In couple with children					
freq.	22.765	7.991	4.008	1.726	36.490
(%)	*62,4%*	*21,9%*	*11,0%*	*4,7%*	*100,0%*
Alone with children					
freq.	{1293}	{740}	{470}	{82}	2.585
(%)	*{50%}*	*{28,6%}*	*{18,2%}*	*{3,2%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	26.535	11.507	7.695	3.938	49.675
(%)	*53,4%*	*23,2%*	*15,5%*	*7,9%*	*100,0%*
Number of children					
No children					
freq.	5.629	7.173	13.305	9.936	36.043
(%)	*15,6%*	*19,9%*	*36,9%*	*27,6%*	*100,0%*
One child					
freq.	9.773	4.788	2.106	{1425}	18.092
(%)	*54,0%*	*26,5%*	*11,6%*	*{7,9%}*	*100,0%*
Two or more children					
freq.	16.828	4.774	2.899	{657}	25.158
(%)	*66,9%*	*19,0%*	*11,5%*	*{2,6%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	32.230	16.735	18.310	12.018	79.293
(%)	*40,6%*	*21,1%*	*23,1%*	*15,2%*	*100,0%*

Table 38 - Sharing responsibility in taking care of children by sex - 10year age groups - household composition - employment status

	Persons responsible in taking care of the children				
	Mostly the respondent	Both the respondent and the partner equally	Mostly the partner	Other persons	Total
by sex					
Male					
freq.	{323}	13.484	4.036	{0}	17.843
(%)	*{1,8%}*	*75,6%*	*22,6%*	*{0%}*	*100,0%*
Female					
freq.	9.314	12.799	{229}	{158}	22.500
(%)	*41,4%*	*56,9%*	*{1%}*	*0,7%*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	9.637	26.283	4.265	{158}	40.343
(%)	*23,9%*	*65,1%*	*10,6%*	*{0,4%}*	*100,0%*
by 10year age groups					
25-34					
freq.	3.132	5.746	{1682}	{158}	10.718
(%)	*29,2%*	*53,6%*	*{15,7%}*	*{1,5%}*	*100,0%*
35-44					
freq.	6.504	20.538	2.583	{0}	29.625
(%)	*22,0%*	*69,3%*	*8,7%*	*{0%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	9.636	26.284	4.265	{158}	40.343
(%)	*23,9%*	*65,2%*	*10,6%*	*{0,4%}*	*100,0%*
by household composition					
In couple					
freq.	{0}	{133}	{0}	{0}	{133}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{100%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
In couple with children					
freq.	6.672	24.495	4.070	{125}	35.362
(%)	*18,9%*	*69,3%*	*11,5%*	*{0,4%}*	*100,0%*
Alone with children					
freq.	2.061	{359}	{0}	{0}	2.420
(%)	*85,2%*	*{14,8%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*100,0%*
Total					
freq.	8.733	24.987	4.070	{125}	37.915
(%)	*23,0%*	*65,9%*	*10,7%*	*{0,3%}*	*100,0%*
by employment status					
Employed					
freq.	8.480	24.973	4.265	{125}	37.843
(%)	*22,4%*	*66,0%*	*11,3%*	*{0,3%}*	*100,0%*
Inactive					
freq.	{460}	{678}	{0}	{33}	{1171}
(%)	*{39,3%}*	*{57,9%}*	*{0%}*	*{2,8%}*	*{100%}*
Not employed					
freq.	{696}	{633}	{0}	{0}	{1329}
(%)	*{52,4%}*	*{47,6%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Total					
freq.	9.636	26.284	4.265	{158}	40.343
(%)	*23,9%*	*65,2%*	*10,6%*	*{0,4%}*	*100,0%*

Table 39 - Current use of public or private services by household composition - employment status (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Sector of services currently used		
	Public	**Private**	**Total**
by household composition			
In couple			
freq.	{43}	{0}	{43}
(%)	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
In couple with children			
freq.	9.940	{851}	10.791
(%)	*92,1%*	*{7,9%}*	*100,0%*
Alone with children			
freq.	{207}	{0}	{207}
(%)	*{100%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Total			
freq.	10.190	{851}	11.041
(%)	*92,3%*	*{7,7%}*	*100,0%*
by employment status			
Employed			
freq.	10.242	{792}	11.034
(%)	*92,8%*	*{7,2%}*	*100,0%*
Inactive			
freq.	{183}	{59}	{242}
(%)	*{75,6%}*	*{24,4%}*	*{100%}*
Not employed			
freq.	{438}	{0}	{438}
(%)	*{100%}*	*{0%}*	*{100%}*
Total			
freq.	10.863	{851}	11.714
(%)	*92,7%*	*{7,3%}*	*100,0%*

Table 40 - Kind of services used by employment status - type of activity (among people with children aged <= 5 years)

	Kind of services currently used								
	Micro-nursery	Nursery	Kindergarten	Pre-After opening time school	Summer holidays services	Baby sitter	Transfer home/school	Refectory	Total
by employment status									
Employed									
freq.	-	{1453}	9.596	{1431}	-	{988}	{1206}	2.774	11.034
(%)	-	*{13,2%}*	*87,0%*	*{13%}*	-	*{9%}*	*{10,9%}*	*25,1%*	
Inactive									
freq.	-	{0}	{242}	{171}	-	{0}	{0}	{171}	{242}
(%)	-	*{0%}*	*{100%}*	*{70,7%}*	-	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{70,7%}*	
Not employed									
freq.	-	{209}	{229}	{0}	-	{0}	{0}	{0}	{438}
(%)	-	*{47,8%}*	*{52,2%}*	*{0%}*	-	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	
Total									
freq.	-	{1663}	10.067	{1602}	-	{988}	{1206}	2.945	11.714
(%)		*{14,2%}*	*85,9%*	*{13,7%}*		*{8,4%}*	*{10,3%}*	*25,1%*	
by type of activity									
Regular employee									
freq.	-	{1112}	9.116	{1262}	-	{820}	{1037}	2.606	10.380
(%)	-	*{10,7%}*	*87,8%*	*{12,2%}*	-	*{7,9%}*	*{10%}*	*25,1%*	
Self-employed									
freq.	-	{168}	{391}	{168}	-	{168}	{168}	{168}	{391}
(%)	-	*{42,9%}*	*{100%}*	*{42,9%}*	-	*{42,9%}*	*{42,9%}*	*{42,9%}*	
Not regular employee									
freq.	-	{174}	{89}	{0}	-	{0}	{0}	{0}	{263}
(%)	-	*{66%}*	*{34%}*	*{0%}*	-	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	
Total									
freq.	-	{1453}	9.596	{1431}	-	{988}	{1206}	2.774	11.034
(%)		*{13,2%}*	*87,0%*	*{13%}*		*{9%}*	*{10,9%}*	*25,1%*	

Table 42 - People reconciling family commitments with work engagements by sex - household composition - number of children

	Do you reconcile work and family?			
	Yes	**Hardly**	**No**	**Total**
by sex				
Male				
freq.	28.090	4.963	{1199}	34.252
(%)	*82,0%*	*14,5%*	*{3,5%}*	*100,0%*
Female				
freq.	27.198	5.010	{989}	33.197
(%)	*81,9%*	*15,1%*	*{3%}*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	55.288	9.973	2.188	67.449
(%)	*82,0%*	*14,8%*	*3,2%*	*100,0%*
by household composition				
In couple				
freq.	8.655	{657}	{130}	9.442
(%)	*91,7%*	*{7%}*	*{1,4%}*	*100,0%*
In couple with children				
freq.	25.582	7.183	{1263}	34.028
(%)	*75,2%*	*21,1%*	*{3,7%}*	*100,0%*
Alone with children				
freq.	2.177	{206}	{87}	2.470
(%)	*88,1%*	*{8,3%}*	*{3,5%}*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	36.414	8.046	{1480}	45.940
(%)	*79,3%*	*17,5%*	*{3,2%}*	*100,0%*
by number of children				
No children				
freq.	24.458	1.742	{606}	26.806
(%)	*91,2%*	*6,5%*	*{2,3%}*	*100,0%*
One child				
freq.	11.250	3.824	{873}	15.947
(%)	*70,5%*	*24,0%*	*{5,5%}*	*100,0%*
Two or more children				
freq.	18.854	4.314	{610}	23.778
(%)	*79,3%*	*18,1%*	*{2,6%}*	*100,0%*
Total				
freq.	54.562	9.880	2.089	66.531
(%)	*82,0%*	*14,9%*	*3,1%*	*100,0%*

Table 43 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family by sex - household composition - type of activity (multiple response)

	Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family							
	Shiftwork/work on week-end/too much burden	Inflexibility of working hours	Frequent business trip	Too long distance to reach the working place	Inflexibility of school opening time and lack of care services	Too high cost of paid care personnel/lack of tax benefit	Partner is not collaborating	Total
by sex	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Male								
freq.	4.026	2.633	{763}	{167}	{93}	{93}	{0}	5.816
(%)	*69,2%*	*45,3%*	*{13,1%}*	*{2,9%}*	*{1,6%}*	*{1,6%}*	*{0%}*	
Female								
freq.	4.207	2.261	{527}	{38}	{555}	{87}	{123}	5.672
(%)	*74,2%*	*39,9%*	*{9,3%}*	*{0,7%}*	*{9,8%}*	*{1,5%}*	*{2,2%}*	
Total								
freq.	8.233	4.894	{1291}	{205}	{648}	{180}	{123}	11.488
(%)	*71,7%*	*42,6%*	*{11,2%}*	*{1,8%}*	*{5,6%}*	*{1,6%}*	*{1,1%}*	
by household composition								
In couple								
freq.	{524}	{180}	{133}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{655}
(%)	*{80,1%}*	*{27,5%}*	*{20,2%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	
In couple with children								
freq.	6.046	3.530	{566}	{167}	{648}	{87}	{123}	8.190
(%)	*73,8%*	*43,1%*	*{6,9%}*	*{2%}*	*{7,9%}*	*{1,1%}*	*{1,5%}*	
Alone with children								
freq.	{170}	{87}	{175}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{257}
(%)	*{66%}*	*{34%}*	*{68%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	
Total								
freq.	6.740	3.798	{874}	{167}	{648}	{87}	{123}	9.101
(%)	*74,1%*	*41,7%*	*{9,6%}*	*{1,8%}*	*{7,1%}*	*{1%}*	*{1,4%}*	
by type of activity								
Regular employee								
freq.	7.343	3.875	{1171}	{205}	{648}	{180}	{123}	10.131
(%)	*72,5%*	*38,3%*	*{11,6%}*	*{2%}*	*{6,4%}*	*{1,8%}*	*{1,2%}*	
Self-employed								
freq.	{567}	{533}	{119}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{772}
(%)	*{73,5%}*	*{69%}*	*{15,5%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	
Not regular employee								
freq.	{273}	{436}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{0}	{486}
(%)	*{56,1%}*	*{89,8%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	*{0%}*	
Total								
freq.	8.183	4.845	{1291}	{205}	{648}	{180}	{123}	11.389
(%)	*71,9%*	*42,5%*	*{11,3%}*	*{1,8%}*	*{5,7%}*	*{1,6%}*	*{1,1%}*	

Notes

55 People having a stable partner who do not cohabit. Generally this definition excludes those individuals who have not yet left the parental home.

PART II

Transition to adulthood: the experience of home leaving in Italy, Germany, Poland and Slovenia

The purpose of this chapter is to delineate some characteristics of home leaving, in the four selected countries, precisely, major cities of the four countries, namely Rome (Italy), Hamburg (Germany), Warsaw (Poland) and Ljubljana (Slovenia). Leaving parental home is one in a number of events in the transition to adulthood process, along with the exit from education and entering employment sphere, starting a partnership, becoming a parent and others. In the last decades, especially with the prolonged education, and the new reality of job flexibility and instability patterns etc., the transition to adulthood has been generally postponed. Young people across Europe have been postponing events that lead to household and family formation, such as exiting parental home; forming a partnership and becoming parents. As Billari (2005: 56) has put it: "In the new millennium, leaving the parental home, forming a new union, getting married and becoming a parent are being experienced on average later than ever before." Transition to adulthood has become more complex individualised and characterised with diversity and change.

Nevertheless, across Europe, different patterns of home-leaving can be observed and the aim of the chapter is to examine some differences in leaving home behaviour among the four countries with the emphasis on characteristics of young people exiting parental home as well as on the interrelation between stable employment and leaving home for partnership. The empirical basis of our analysis was the CATI research "Job instability and family trends" carried out in four countries, and thus our descriptive analysis is restricted to young people aged 25 to 44 in the selected major cities.

Different patterns of home leaving

Although the last decades have been characterised with the postponement of key demographic events across Europe, such as leaving the parental home, union formation, formation of families etc., the situation among countries varies greatly; there can, however, be found some similarities among groups of countries. In some countries, for instance Northern countries, young people to a greater extent choose to exit their homes to live alone or with roommates rather than to marry or cohabit, as it is the case in Southern European countries (Billari, Phillipov, Baizan, 2001; Iacovu 2001). There exist also differences in the time and sequence of the events of the transition (Billari, 2005; Iacovu, 2001). Timing and sequences of leaving school, entering the labour market, finding a stable job, forming the own household, differ, but all usually represent the prerequisite for young people to have children.

Various typologies can be used (mainly in heuristic way) to differentiate between different groups of countries in terms of analysing dynamic of transition to adulthood. The classic, Esping-Andersen`s (1990) threefold welfare – state typology, distinguishing between liberal, conservative and social democratic regime, has been added the Southern (Mediterranean) model (Ferrera, 1996, Bonoli 1997), while in the case of Eastern European countries, besides this term, the term Post communist model is sometimes used (Ule, Kuhar, 2001).

The countries included in our research, namely Italy, Germany, Poland and Slovenia represent different social, economic and cultural realities, as well as different welfare systems, Italy and Germany being representatives of Western Europe old member states (Southern and Northern - Central, accordingly) and Poland

and Slovenia two representatives of new EU member-states. Our four countries could therefore be characterised as representatives of conservative/continental European model - Germany, Southern model – Italy and Post-communist model (newcomer) countries – Poland and Slovenia. It is, however, important to highlight the idea that besides institutional context, also individual – level factors play an important role, thus to stress the importance of micro-macro level interaction (Aassve et. alt., 2002, Billari, 2005). Therefore, it is important to analyse the impact of a micro-level factors of home leaving in different welfare regime contexts.

Southern European pattern of home-leaving and especially the Italian case is considered as an extreme and peculiar case, since it is characterised with so-called latest-late transition to adulthood, defined with late home-leaving as well as late transition to parenthood (Billari, 2004). Youth in Southern countries tend to leave their homes for union formation, especially marriage and to lesser extent to live alone or to cohabit (Billari, Phillipov, Baizan, 2001).

Conservative/Continental European model is characterised with earlier home leaving compared to the Southern one and young people leave their homes to leave alone – for studies etc. and to the less extent to family formation (Billari, Phillipov, Baizan, 2001). Interestingly, Iacovu (2001) differentiates only between Northern and Southern model, placing Germany in the first one that is characterised with rather early home-leaving and the exit occurs as to live as single person.

Despite the fact that Poland could be identified as Post-communist country, according to Sienkewiz (2005), the characteristics of home living in Poland are to some extent similar as in Southern European countries. Poland follows the pattern of late home leaving and the main reason for home leaving is partnership formation, especially marriage and to less extent the cohabitation.

Slovenia has, similarly as other Eastern European countries, faced important structural changes and the existing surveys (Rener, 1998; Ule, Kuhar, 2003) show the trend of delaying transition to adulthood, thus delayed exiting of the education, as well as late entering into employment sphere and reaching economic independence in the last years. The period of young people's dependence on families of origin is being prolonged as well.

Socio-economic changes in the world have a significant impact on transition to adulthood process. Postmodern society has faced a trend of globalisation and individualisation, some of which related to circumstances of restructuring labour market that demands flexible and educated workface, thus putting individuals in the position of dependence from various institutions, among which also educational institutions and labour market (Beck, 1994 in Ule et. alt,) Various authors have demonstrated the influence of employment and general economic stability (also of the family of procreation) on home leaving (Aassve et. alt, 2000; Aassve et. alt, 2001; Mulder and Clark, 2000), finding out that employment stability is often prerequisite for young people to exit their nest families. A Europe-wide process of prolonged education, along with the decline of labour force participation and the increasing spells of unemployment, influences transition to adulthood process as well (Laaksonen, 2000). The new reality of young people is characterised with job instability and overall flexibility patterns – temporary, contract jobs, periods of unemployment, overall labour market instability. These changes have an important impact on leaving home and household formation, too.

The influences of these trends are buffered in different ways in different welfare systems. In the "Conservative" regime countries (in our case Germany) the basis of the system are families – the state support (insurance based mainly) is oriented towards the support of families and not towards individuals. The situation of young adults depends very much on their condition on the employment market. The main characteristic of Southern models (Italy) is the family as main support giver, while the state support is rather low, especially for young unemployed. Post communist countries have been characterised with an overall transition of systems, therefore drastic changes at all levels of social life, and they have also faced the state support (state-intervention on general) reduction at all levels of social life in the last decades.

Household composition in the four countries

Household composition of the population 25-44 can present the first outline of the situation in the four countries. Hamburg differs significantly from other cities in the way that the large percentage of young men

and women in this country lives alone (42,8 % of men and 25, 9% of women), compared to other countries in which people aged 25-44 live mainly in couples with children. While living in family of origin seems not to be an option for young people in Hamburg (0,9% men and 0,2% women), it is quite often for young people living in Rome (29,3 % of men and 22,1 % of women). Already basing on these differences we can delineate a line between "North" (Germany) and "South" (Italy). Within the population aged 25-44 of the capitals of the two new member states, Poland and Slovenia, only approx. one in ten lives alone, to a lesser degree they live in couples only, while they live mainly in couples with children. Living in family of origin is more common for Ljubljana than Warsaw.

Table 1: Household composition, population 25-44

	ROME		HAMBURG		WARSAW		LJUBLJANA	
	Men %	Women %	Men %	Women %	Men %	Women %	Men %	Women %
Living alone	17,2	11,0	42,8	25,9	12,1	10,1	13,2	11,7
Living in couple	11,1	13,6	23,8	16,6	17,1	11,2	13,0	13,4
Living in couple with children	32,6	36,5	25,8	41,4	42,9	45	42,9	48,0
Living with family of origin	29,3	22,1	0,9	0,2	11,8	10,3	23,0	14,3
Other	9,8	16,8	6,6	16	16,1	23,4	7,8	12,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Destinations of leaving parental home

First, we examine destinations of leaving parental home in all four countries. In the table 2, we can observe inter-country variations in destinations of leaving home of the population aged between 25 and 44 in the four cities by gender. In accordance with previous researches (Billari, Phillipov, Baizan, 2001; Laaksonen, 2000), young people in Germany, as representative of Continental European model, tend to leave their homes to live alone – this is the case for as many as three out of four respondents. In accordance with this data, only 2,6 % of young men and 1,2 % of young women have not left their family of origin yet. If they left their family for partnership, it was in the larger extent to cohabit (16,7 % of all men and 17,2 % of all women), than to marry (3,0% of all men and 6,4% of all women). Hamburg case is an outlier compared to the other three cities in which young people tend to leave their homes for partnership.

In line with Southern European patterns of home leaving, young Romans mainly leave their home for partnership and the percentage of who have left the family to live alone is the lowest among the four countries (37% for men and 31,9% for women), while there is quite a significant share of those who have not left the family of origin yet (31,9% of women and 23,3% of men) – late home staying. A large percentage of, especially women, first leave their home for marriage (24,7 % of men and 36,9% of women), while the exit for cohabitation is less common.

Table 2: Home leaving (population 25-44) by gender (When you first left your family of origin, it was for…)

	Rome			Hamburg			Warsaw			Ljubljana		
	Men %	Women %	Total %	Men %	Women %	Total %	Men %	Women %	Total %	Men %	Women %	Total %
Live alone	37	31,9	34,4	77,7	75,1	76,5	42,6	42,5	42,5	38,5	41,4	40,0
Marriage	24,7	36,9	31,0	3,0	6,4	4,7	26,7	32,4	29,7	18,2	26,1	22,1
Cohabitation	6,3	8,0	7,0	16,7	17,2	16,9	10,1	7,1	8,5	9,8	12,8	11,3
Not left the family of origin	31,9	23,3	26,8	2,6	1,2	1,9	20,6	18,0	19,3	33,5	19,7	26,6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Focusing on the cities of the last group – Warsaw and Ljubljana, young people most often exit the family to live alone. With regard to leaving home for partnership, the share of those who leave the family for marriage is higher in Warsaw than in Ljubljana, and, if compared also to other countries, especially high for men (26,7% men and 32,4% women). Comparing the two countries, the share of youth who have not left their family of origin is higher in case of Ljubljana than Warsaw (and it is also comparable to that of Rome), which is especially true for young men in Ljubljana (33,5 % men and 19,7 % women).

In case young people left their parental home for partnership, in Warsaw, Rome and Ljubljana, they usually left it for marriage instead of cohabitation. Germany is the exception in this regard, since those who exit parental homer for partnership, usually do it for cohabitation. It is interesting to observe, however, that once young people left their home to leave alone and afterwards started to leave with someone as a couple, they more often started to cohabit (Table 3). This share is particularly high in the case of Ljubljana (59,9%). The number of young people living alone, who never lived with someone as a couple in Hamburg is also striking, considering the fact that Germany also has the largest number of people who left their family to leave alone.

Destinations of leaving the parental home differ between genders. In all the four countries, although the differences are sometimes small, women more often exit their families for marriage. On the other hand, among those who never left their family of origin, are more men.

Table 3: After you left your parental home to leave alone, you started living with someone as a couple:

	ROME	HAMBURG	WARSAW	LJUBLJANA
	%	%	%	%
To marry	27,4	10,7	23,0	13,2
To cohabit	30,8	42,6	38,8	59,9
I never lived with someone as a couple	41,9	46,7	38,2	26,9
Total	100	100	100	100

Staying in and leaving the parental home in four countries

There exist significant differences between countries with relation to the share of people who never left the parental home. In the Table 4 we can observe that in Hamburg the share of youth never leaving the parental home in the lowest age group 25-29 is minimal (4,5 %), especially if compared to that of Rome (65,5%) and it decreases with age groups. In Slovenia, Poland and Italy, the formation of own household is taking place later, mostly between 30 and 39 years of age and the share of those who never left parental home ranks from 35 % (Poland).

Table 4: The share of people staying in the parental home by age groups

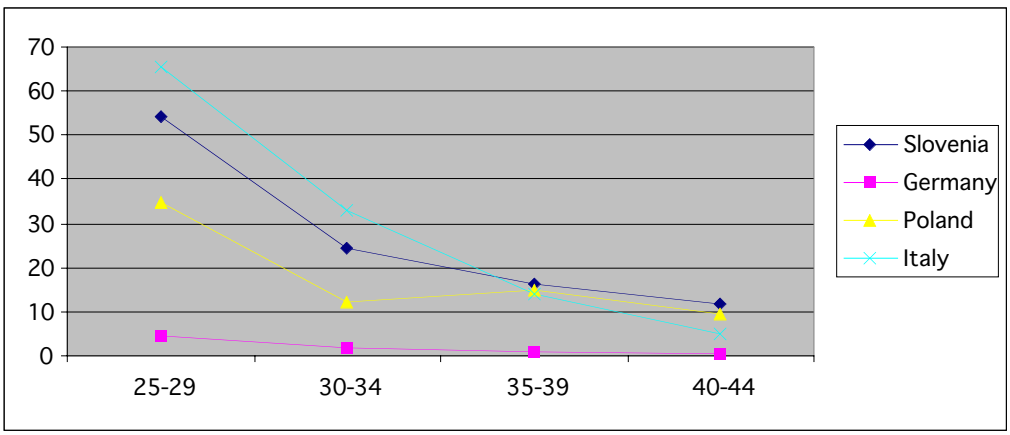
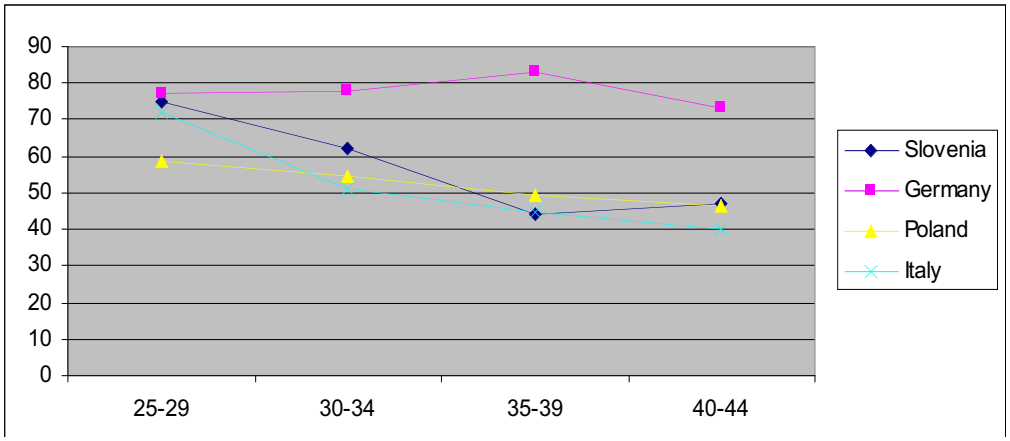


Table 5: Leaving home to live alone



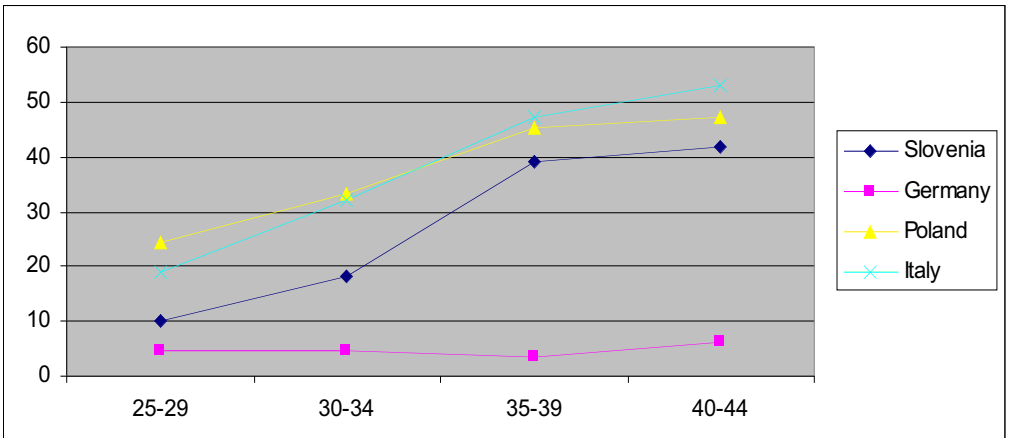
Focusing on different age groups of those who first left their home to live alone, often for reasons such as study, work etc., Slovenia, Poland and Italy follow somehow similar pattern: young generations (25-29 and 30-34) in a larger share than older ones (35-39 and 40-44) leaving their homes to live alone. Besides more loose social norms, probably also prolonged education at higher levels have an important impact on this issue. In Germany the proportion of young people first leaving their parental home to live alone does not differ significantly across generations, being always rather high.

Leaving home for partnership

As already observed, the share of those leaving home for partnership (either marriage or cohabitation) differs across countries, being the highest in Italy and Poland and the lowest in Germany (38,2 % Italy, 38,2% Poland, 33,4% Slovenia and 21,6 % Germany). Therefore, in many cases leaving home and partnership formation are interrelated. If in Hamburg they prevalently chose to exit the family for cohabitation, in other cities they leave parental homes mainly for marriage.

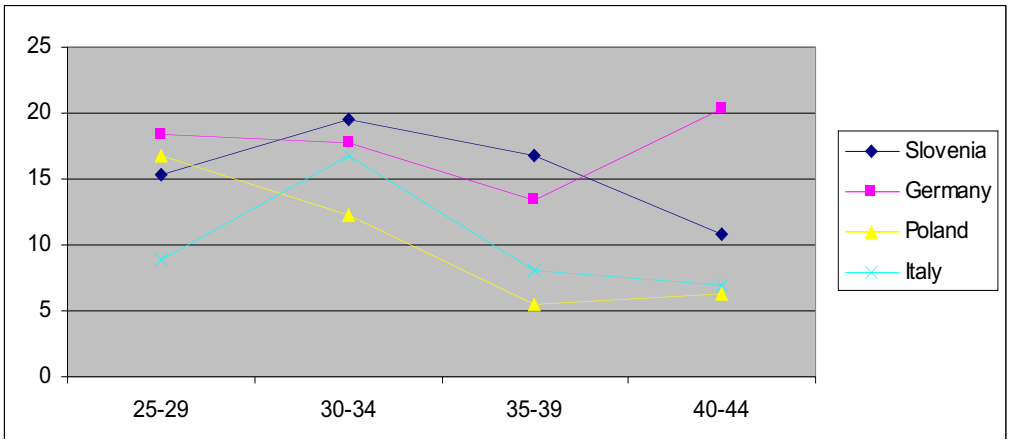
If we look at the differences among the age groups in leaving home for partnership, we can observe two trends. On the one hand, in Poland, Italy and Slovenia, younger generations (25-29 and 30-34) to less extent tend to leave their parental home for marriage, than older ones (35-39 and 40-44); while on the other in Germany there seem to be no significant differences in home leaving for marriage across the age groups.

Table 6: Leaving home for marriage (% of those who first left their home) by age groups



With regard to leaving home for cohabitation, the patterns of the four countries are quite diverse. Italy and Slovenia show the similar trend of changes, with low level of home leaving for cohabitation in the lowest age group (25-29), who mainly leave their homes to live alone, probably in the large extent for reasons for study and the highest level of home leaving to cohabit in the age group from 30 to 34.

Table 7: Leaving home for cohabitation (% of those who first left their home) by age groups



Focusing on age of young people who first left their home for cohabitation or marriage in the four countries, we can differentiate between the three patterns, early leaving, late-leaving and the mid-way. The age of those who first left their home for partnership is very low for Germany (Hamburg) on one hand, and significantly higher for Italy (Rome) on the other, while both new member state countries, Poland (Warsaw) and Slovenia (Ljubljana), rank somewhere in between. The age at which 50% of those who first left their home for partnership, left home in Germany is 22, in Italy 27 and in Slovenia and Poland 24. In all cases we can observe gender differences, since women, if they left parental home, left it earlier. The late home leaving (in this case for partnership) of young people in Rome is consistent with latest-late pattern of transition to adulthood while the early leaving in Hamburg is in accordance with the Central - Northern pattern (Billari, Phillipov, Baizan, 2001).

Table 8: Age by which 50%/80% of those that first left their home for partnership (either cohabitation or marriage) left home

	ROME		HAMBURG		WARSAW		LJUBLJANA	
	50%	80%	50%	80%	50%	80%	50%	80%
Total	27	30	22	25	24	26	24	27
Men	27	30	22	26	24	27	26	28
Women	26	29	21	25	23	26	24	27

According to Iacovu (2001), in countries where home leaving occurs early, young people are more likely to start leaving on their own as singles, than as a part of couple. Our data shows the same trend. In Hamburg, where home-leaving occurs early, they tend to leave their homes to leave alone, while in other countries, where the exit from the parental home is being postponed, they tend to leave their homes for partnership.

In accordance with previous researches in leaving parental home, employment stability as a part of general economic usually stability plays an important role in decisions for home-leaving (Aassve et. Alt. 2002), there, however, exist differences between countries. For example, Aassve et alt. (2002) discovered that employment and income are important factors for exiting the parental home in Southern regimes in which welfare state plays a rather weak role, while they are less significant in Central and especially Northern

(Social-democratic) ones. Having this in mind, Billari (2004) highlights the idea that micro – level factors have different influences in different institutional and cultural settings.

Since our focus is on partnership formation, we examined the employment status of the respondent, as well as the employment status of the partner at the time of leaving home for partnership (either marriage or cohabitation). In the Table 9 it can be observed that in the case of leaving home for partnership, in two new member states (Poland and Slovenia), as well as in Italy, regular employment seems to be quite important factor of home-leaving, since in approx. three out of four cases (Italy 81,3 %, Poland 72,1 and Slovenia 77,2) at least one of the partners was in regular employment, while in more than half of the cases both were regular employees. In Germany, on the other hand, the regular employment seems to play less important role, since in as many as 42,2 percent of the cases none of the partners was in regular employment.

Some researchers noted that having employment for young Italians was necessary, but not sufficient condition for leaving home (Billari and Ongaro 1998 in Aassve et. alt., 2000). Also Iacovu (2001) highlighted the importance of cultural factors (a "strong" faily and the importance of kinship on general) and preferences in the case of the ongoing debates on the reasons why Southern Europeans remain so long in the parental home.

Table 9: Employment status of the respondent and the partner at the time of leaving home for partnership

Employment status of the respondent	Rome			Hamburg			Warsaw			Ljubljana		
	Employment status of the partner											
	Regular employee	Other	Total	Regular employee	Other	Total	Regular employee	Other	Total	Regular employee	Other	Total
Regular employee	62,7	11,3	74	37,5	15,1	52,6	54,1	14,2	68,3	61,3	11,7	73,0
Other (not regular, not employed)	18,6	7,4	26	19,7	27,7	47,4	18	13,6	31,6	15,9	11,1	27,0
Total	81,3	18,7	100	57,2	42,8	100	90,1	27,8	100	77,2	22,8	100

Reasons for leaving home for partnership

Here we put the attention on reasons of respondents who left their parental home for partnership. It can be observed that in all the four countries the reasons to start living out of the parental home in a union are mainly related to the value sphere, such as investing in living together, enforcing a union stability and desire for privacy. The latter is especially highlighted in case of leaving parental home for cohabitation and particularly among Polish youth. Italians highlight investment in living together, especially if they left home for marriage. In case of Poland, Slovenia and Germany quite a large share of respondents (22,9%, 28,7% and 30,4% respectively) chose expecting a child as one of the reasons for marriage. The answer that might imply to some extent still existing cultural importance of the institution of marriage in relation to family formation.

Table 10: Reasons for leaving the parental home for marriage (multiple response)

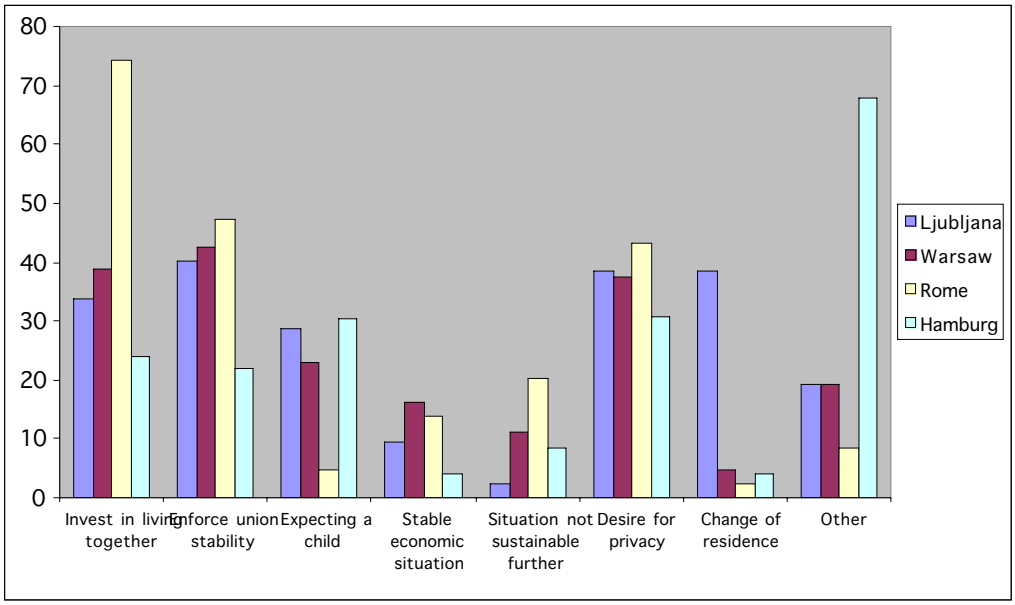
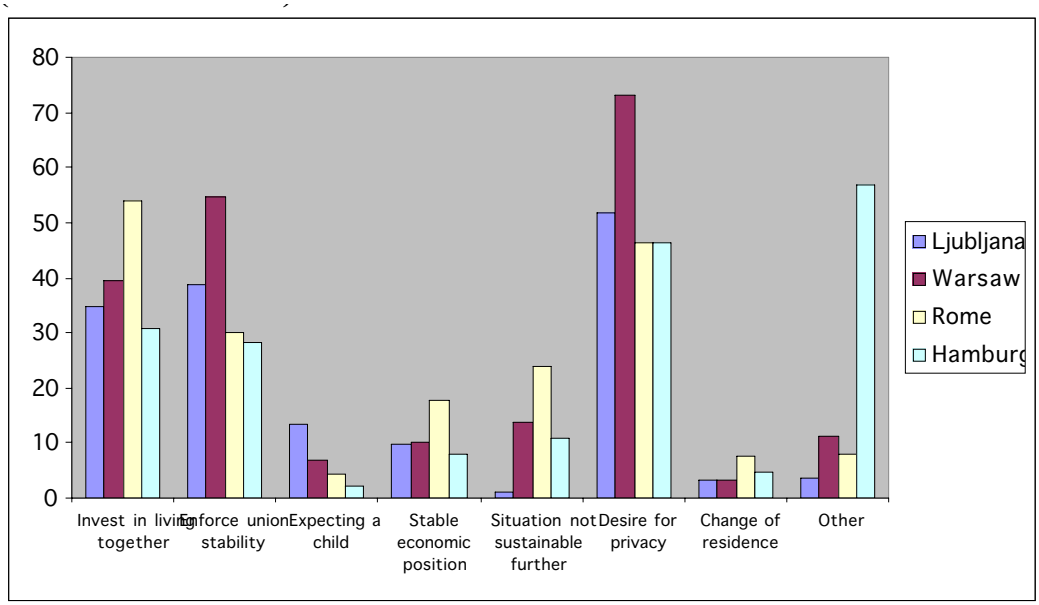


Table 11: Reasons for leaving the parental home for cohabitation (multiple response)



It is interesting that although according to the Table 9 economic circumstances seem to play an important role in Ljubljana, Warsaw and Rome, "stable economic position" was not often chosen for an answer. Nevertheless, as it was pointed out at the Italian national round table, the "investment in living together" could mean besides investing in emotions and quality of partnership, as well an economic investment in partnership and living together, therefore investment in material, economic terms, too.

Discussion and recommendations

In this chapter we briefly presented home leaving in four countries and delineated some characteristics of exiting the parental home. Trying to outline social-policy measures facilitating the transition from the parental home to the formation of the own household, as one of the events in the transition to adulthood is not an easy task, especially due to its diversity across different countries. Among the four selected countries we could broadly define two polarities: on the one hand, the trend of delaying formation of own household in Italy, Poland and Slovenia, however with a still quite large share of young people leaving their homes to form a union; on the other, rather constant early home leaving in Germany, but mainly for young people to live alone.

What could be policy responses to the challenge of late home leaving in Italy, Slovenia and Poland as one of the important features on the transition to adulthood? Which social-policy measures could sustain and help young people exit their family of origin and create their own households? Besides, what measures could be taken to sustain the economic stability of young couples? We try to answer the question also by analysing the recommendations deriving from the four round tables organised in each of the countries. The discussants of national round tables were focusing on the different themes and wider context when trying to answer these questions.

To mitigate transition to adulthood processes is a relatively difficult task, since it should encompass measures in various areas, such as education, employment, housing, gender equality etc. Participants of the national round tables pointed out as well that social policy measures in different fields should be harmonised.

Since employment and stable jobs are one of the important features in home-leaving process, one of the focuses should be on policies that support work and education. Adequate preparation of young people for the labour market is central issue in facilitating transition to adulthood process on general. In this sense, producing more programs combining education and work, establishing dialogue between education and work, adapting schedules to the need of workface should create more intensive link between work and education. Besides focusing on applicability of education, focus should be put also on quality of vocational education, on reducing dropouts, as well as on measures to reduce abnormal prolongation of studies. Bologna reform that aims at shortening the length of schooling is already one of the processes in this way.

Young people trying to form their own households should be offered help also in solving their housing problems, by creating necessary changes of housing policy in the sense of availability of flats for renting, non-profit and social flats, offering some incentives for young couples, not only families. In some countries, such as Slovenia, also the adaptation of bank loaning system to the circumstances of job instability and new forms of employment is needed.

In order to facilitate transition to adulthood on general, putting a focus also on partnership and family formation, some policy measures should focus also on reduction of double burden of women (employment and family work) and interrelated need for changes in values and cultural patterns– the necessity to enhance the greater parental (family) role of men on the one hand and the necessity to redefine informal, family work within the family policy. Related the problem of demanding jobs, existing norm of long working hours, etc. and the problem of reconciling work and family engagements highlights the necessity for employers to introduce family friendly policies and good practices (flexible working hours, childcare arrangements etc.)

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Reproductive behaviour and fertility intentions in four European urban contexts

1. Introduction

The fertility decline and the delay of parenthood of the young generations have been observed all around Europe since some decades and are of great concern to researchers in different fields, such as economists, demographers, sociologists, as well as policy experts. Some European countries, such as those of Northern Europe, have answered promptly to such trends with policy measures that have not managed to avoid the fertility decline, but anyway reduced its intensity and speed. In these countries the average number of children per woman is about 1.5, within the Peter McDonald's (2006) so-called "safety zone" of population replacement level. In other countries, in which the welfare system leave to the family most of the burden related to childrearing activities and other family commitments, the total fertility rates dropped below this level, reducing seriously the capability of the population to reproduce itself over time.

Nowadays the scientific and political debate is particularly concerned about the definition of policy measures which could hamper this trend. Such policy measures cannot be considered separately, but rather as a "horizontal system of integrated policies" which act at the level of educational process (long-life learning), economic, social, demographic and cultural level. In order to develop policies to support positive reproductive choices it is necessary to focus on family policies jointly with good gender policies, policies supporting investment in human capital, labour market policies and young children oriented policies (McDonald, 2006). After the mid-term monitoring of the Lisbon Strategy it turned out to be necessary to foresee integrated policy measures: the definition of the 24 integrated guidelines for growth and employment makes available for the first time for the EU a common set of guidelines in terms of social and economic policies since the EU Constitutional Treaty of the European Community (M.J. Rodrigues, 2006).

At the end of the current paper which focuses on the determinants of fertility decline and delay in four European urban contexts (Rome, Hamburg, Warsaw and Ljubljana) and on fertility intentions from a couple's perspective, we highlight some policy guidelines that might be helpful in contrasting the recent trends in the family formation process.

The J.I.F.T. (*Job Instability and changes in Family Trends)* research project aims first at exploring the possible relations between employment instability and reproductive choices, but it investigate also other dimensions of the individual's biography: the family and cultural background, the investment in human capital, the union formation process, the family model adopted as reference, etc.

The project starts from considering the economic dimension, i.e. employment instability, as an important determinant of family choices, which reflects a "genetically modified" labour market due to the process of individualization and fragmentation in all the spheres of life in the post-modern society (Cesareo, 2005). A progressive deinstitutionalization of the employment experience is underway (Lo Verde, 2005) translated into a transformation of the factors characterising work and employment in their modern definition. The spatial and temporal dimension of work has changed (Giaccardi, Magatti, 2003; Semenza, 2004): work has not to be necessarily performed within the working place, various alternative solutions are possible (i.e. working at home or other), and the limits between working time and time for private life have faded out [Lo Verde, 2005], between professional work and spare time, in line with the strongly promoted flexibility of the working hours.

Moreover, the concept of professional career has been redefined rather as *professional course* intended as a heterogeneous and gradual process including different employment experiences and professional skills. This is the society of pluralization, heterogeneity and differentiation of labour (Accornero, 2000). It is the era of the *knowledge workers* and of the *knowledge jobs* (Lo Verde, 2005), when it does not matter only the knowledge but the ability to know how to do something. However, it is also the society in which employment does not provide anymore with adequate guaranties of social protection (at least in some countries): the temporary employment opportunities, the discontinuity of employment condition, the frailty of the condition of *insider* within the labour market make the field of protection very flowing. The plurality of contractual forms and working arrangements facilitates the way towards precariousness and black labour. In such a context emerge the *working poors*, employees who risk social exclusion, with low salary, heavy working burden, and absence of protection, those who give up or are discouraged, young long-term unemployed or looking for a first job who passed into a condition of inactivity or tired to continue to search hopelessly a job. The "society of labour" emphasizes knowledge and skills acquired during the formation process and different working experiences, and thus promotes employment of highly skilled labour force. However, it tends to ignore the medium-low skilled and thus favours the trap of the black labour and daily jobs (F. Deriu, 2006).

Nevertheless, as suggested in the paper by P. Naticchioni and S. Muzi, the JIFT project points out that in three out of four urban contexts (Rome, Hamburg and Warsaw) it is the young highly skilled who remain stuck in the instability trap. Such a situation naturally emphasizes the need to identify the anomaly in the system which brings to such a paradox.

During the last decade the end of labour has been prophesised on the one hand (Rifkin, 1995; Beck, 2000), while on the other hand its centrality in the setting-up of the social identity has been stressed (Donati, 2001; Gallino, 2002; Chiesi, 2002; Accornero, 2000). However, these two positions are not necessarily contrasting one with the other. It is true that the idea of stable, permanent employment, which allows to make long-term family plans, has changed. The time when employment stability has been accompanied with the stability of other institutions such as the family, the education system, the political parties, by someone defined as *zombie institutions* (Beck, 1999), has come to an end.

The post-modern society has not been able to react to the fading out of the concept of permanent job and left a complex system of social relations to the power of the trade and market economy. In a demographic perspective, the young generations have thus adapted to the new context by changing their reproductive behaviour, i.e. by reducing or even giving-up the experience of becoming a parent.

In the current chapter we analyse fertility behaviour, both in terms of its realizations and intentions, in the four cities covered by the survey. The first part of the chapter is devoted to fertility realizations, while in the second part we focus on couple's fertility intentions.

With regard to fertility realizations we first investigate whether postponement dynamics are under way also in the four urban contexts, as has been largely confirmed in the scientific literature about the overall trends of fertility postponement in Europe. Low and late fertility are the commonalities observed all around Europe, obviously with country specificities, and the cities under study are located in countries which are characterised by both a noticeably low average number of children per woman and late motherhood. Nevertheless, it has to be pointed out that if on the one hand in Italy and Western Germany the increase in the age at first birth has been observed already in the 1970s, in Slovenia and particularly in Poland the postponement of first birth is a relatively recent phenomenon. Therefore, it is interesting to investigate from a cohort perspective whether the postponement dynamics of the birth of the first child act differently in the four urban contexts, with particular regard to the younger cohorts, and whether these different dynamics bring to convergence or divergence across the four cities.

The possible determinants of the fertility decline and postponement in Western European countries have been largely explored in the scientific literature. The economic theory (Becker, 1991) explains the fertility decline in terms of an increase of the women's opportunity costs with regard to childbearing and childrearing, on the one hand, and their participation and self-realization in the labour market, on the other. According

to many authors fertility and family changes find explanation also in the prolonged process of education (Blossfeld and Huinink, 1991; Coppola, 2004). Furthermore, a change in values and attitudes has also been indicated as having a role in orienting individual's reproductive behaviour and family formation patterns (i.e. van de Kaa, 1987; Lesthaeghe, 1995). Similar explanations are looked for also in regard to demographic changes occurred during the 1990s and still under way in many Eastern European countries, despite some evident differences (Philipov, 2003).

It has to be anyway recognised that employment plays an important role in defining people's choices and behaviour in terms of family formation and having children. On the one hand, despite persistent differences in the female labour force participation rates around the EU countries, the larger women's involvement in the labour market has stressed the need to redefine the gender roles within the family and the setup of policy measures supporting the reconciliation between work and family. On the other hand, the more recent spread of new working contract forms opposing employment stability to employment flexibility has weakened another link within the traditional scheme of family formation, i.e. having a stable economic situation as a necessary condition to form a family. Employment stability comes later and later in one's life course, in line with the postponement of parenthood. Is employment stability still a pre-requisite for having children, or are the new cohorts adapting to the new labour market dynamics and form a family, despite having temporary working arrangements? We try to answer this question for Hamburg, Ljubljana, Rome and Warsaw through the evidence from the JIFT data. Finally, we synthesise some important aspects in people's employment needed for making family formation choices and try to highlight their association with some respondents' individual characteristics, both structural and related to childbearing.

In the second part of the chapter we focus on fertility intentions as expressed by both male and female respondents in the four cities under study.

Fertility intentions are widely studied in the hope that they could be used as an indicator or predictor of future fertility. Empirical studies which tested the correlation between fertility intentions and behaviour, show that a certain share of intentions remain unrealized. Such a result in fact depends on the fact that intentions are "revised" to a certain extent (Monnier, 1989; Morgan, 2003): factors that lead to a positive intention may have changed, so that fertility intentions previously formulated may happen to be optimistic (Weinstein, 1980), particularly so among young adults who may underestimate the significance of restrictive factors on childbearing, or overestimate their ability to control them. However, despite a certain share of intentions remain unrealized, fertility intentions remains strong predictors of fertility behaviour, particularly if the intentions are rated with a strong degree of certainty (Schoen et al., 1999). Moreover, individual characteristics which predict fertility intentions are generally the same that predict fertility behaviour, since intentions do not mediate the effect of other variables but rather represent the additional value due to motivation to parenthood. A better understanding of intended fertility and its determinants highlights the significance of intervening situational forces in explaining the gap between intentions and their realization (Bühler, 2006).

Because of the cross-sectional character of the JIFT survey data we cannot test the predicting value of fertility intentions expressed at the moment of the interview with respect to a time-point in the future. Nor we can use the valuable information on partners' employment at the moment of the interview to analyse fertility events occurred in the past. Our interest in fertility intentions in the second part of this chapter focuses on the way in which couples childbearing intentions vary according to the employment situation of both partners.

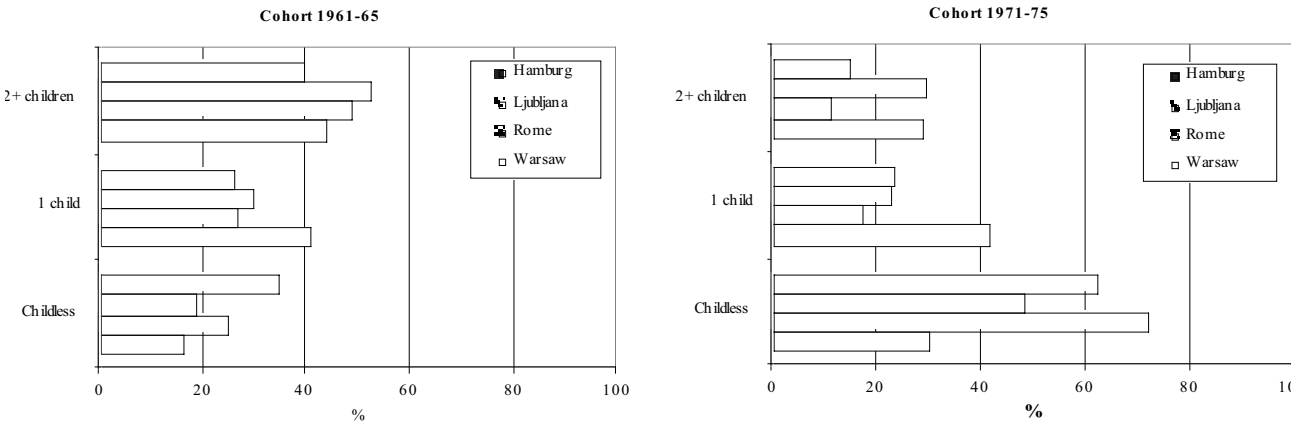
2. Fertility realizations

2.1. Entering parenthood: postponement dynamics under way

Focusing on the distribution of the number of children already born across the four cities for the cohorts 1961-65 and 1971-75 (Figure 1), we note for the oldest cohort that the highest percentage of childless is observed in Hamburg, followed by Rome, Ljubljana and Warsaw. The highest percentage of people with 2+

children is registered in Ljubljana, followed by Rome, Warsaw and Hamburg. According to this first rough picture, there seems to be some differences in the childbearing behaviour across the four cities, probably linked to the differences between the urban contexts themselves and to the well-known cross-country differences regarding fertility behaviour. Differences persist if we compare younger cohorts. For those who are in their early thirties at the time of the interview, 72.1% are still childless in Rome, 62.0% in Hamburg, followed by Ljubljana (48.0%) and Warsaw (30.1%). Such a result is even more striking if we consider the youngest cohort only, with Rome registering the highest proportion of childless people (93.0%) and Warsaw the lowest (69.2%).

Figure 1 – Distribution of children already born for the cohorts 1961-65 and 1971-75



The most characterising phenomenon in Europe regarding changes in reproductive behaviour since the 1970s can definitely be identified with the *motto* "lower and later fertility". Apart from the decrease of fertility intensity, cohorts have been also constantly postponing childbearing. A vast scientific literature is available on this topic (see recently i.e. Kohler et al., 2002; Sobotka, 2004). Similar fertility dynamics, though with their own specificities, seem to have involved also the four urban contexts under analysis. A first rough impression that such a process is under way comes already from the number of people still childless in the younger cohorts, in particular by those in their early thirties, at the time of the interview.

A life course perspective allows us to identify to what extent the fertility postponement process, through the analysis of the transition to the first child, has involved the younger cohorts and what are, if any, the differences between men and women and between the four urban contexts.

A delay in the transition to motherhood can be noticed across cohorts in all four cities, though reflecting the national specificities (Table 1 and Table 2). For the older cohorts, in Ljubljana and Warsaw women still show lower median ages at first birth, while Rome and Hamburg register a later transition to motherhood. For women of the oldest cohort 50% experienced a first birth by the age of 30 and 32.8 in Hamburg and Rome respectively, while in Ljubljana and Warsaw the figures are as low as 27.1 and 25.8 years of age. Among women born between 1971-75 only 15% or less have already experienced a first birth by age 25 in Rome, Ljubljana and Hamburg, while in Poland the share of parents of one child is as high as 27%. Despite the differences in the transition to motherhood between the four cities, it has to be pointed out however that, first, changes are moving in the same direction and, second, the postponement dynamics push Ljubljana and Warsaw to catch up quite fast with the other two Western European cities as far as the younger cohorts are concerned.

For men's cohorts the postponement dynamics are confirmed and the median ages might be well above the age of 30 for the recent cohorts in all four cities. By comparing the oldest with the youngest cohort, we note for the oldest one that at most 17% of men (Warsaw) experienced a first birth by the age of 25 with the minimum observed in Rome (4%), while for the youngest cohort not even 10% of men have experienced a first birth in any of the four cities by the age of 25.

There are gender differences in the median ages at entering parenthood with men showing higher median ages than women. Nevertheless, such differences are not striking, apart from Hamburg which registers noticeably higher median ages for men.

With regard to the percentage of respondents that experienced a first birth by the age of 35, we notice that the percentage has been generally decreasing across cohorts.

Table 1 - First birth. Synthetic value estimates from Kaplan-Meier survivor functions – Females

	Cohort 1961-65			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	25.2	30.0	0.75	0.33
Ljubljana	23.2	27.1	0.64	0.27
Rome	27.2	32.8	0.87	0.39
Warsaw	22.4	25.8	0.54	0.13
	Cohort 1966-70			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	26.9	33.5	0.80	0.45
Ljubljana	23.0	28.3	0.67	0.25
Rome	28.8	33.9	0.89	0.44
Warsaw	23.7	27.5	0.67	0.23
	Cohort 1971-75			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	27.7	32.2	0.85	0.38
Ljubljana	28.1	34.5	0.87	0.50
Rome	30.5		0.92	0.51
Warsaw	24.6	30.3	0.73	0.30
	Cohort 1976-81			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	28.5		0.85	
Ljubljana	29.5		0.94	
Rome			0.94	
Warsaw	27.1		0.87	

Table 2 - First birth. Synthetic value estimates from Kaplan-Meier survivor functions - Males

	Cohort 1961-65			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	28.1	41.0	0.89	0.57
Ljubljana	25.5	30.5	0.81	0.31
Rome	29.4	33.2	0.96	0.47
Warsaw	26.3	32.3	0.83	0.42
	Cohort 1966-70			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	32.8		0.92	0.65
Ljubljana	28.3	31.8	0.89	0.41
Rome	30.8	38.0	0.96	0.64
Warsaw	25.8	29.3	0.82	0.31
	Cohort 1971-75			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg	32.8		0.94	0.71
Ljubljana	29.5		0.93	0.51
Rome			0.98	0.79
Warsaw	27.0	31.3	0.87	0.31
	Cohort 1976-81			
	First q.	Median	S(25)	S(35)
Hamburg			0.91	
Ljubljana			0.98	
Rome			0.97	
Warsaw			0.93	

2.2. Parents' employment and first birth

According to the traditional scheme signing the steps of the transition to adulthood, finding a job usually precedes family formation, or at least, having children. Thus, being employed is an important determinant for entering parenthood. In particular, a stable economic condition is a well-known determinant for having the first child and having children at all. Therefore, employment stability is one of the pre-requisites for entering parenthood as a rational choice. Since the JIFT data do not allow to analyse the impact of the job trajectory on the transition to parenthood as the job history has not been collected, we simply try to identify if there are any predominant combinations between the mother's and father's employment at first pregnancy.

If we focus on those who have already experienced a first birth and consider the respondent's and his/her partner's employment status at first pregnancy, we note that employment stability, including both regular employees with an unlimited contract and self-employed, for at least one of the parents is a necessary condition (Table 3). In all four cities the most frequent combination is when both partners are employed, somewhat higher in Ljubljana and Warsaw, probably reflecting the higher female labour force participation traditionally characterising Slovenia and Poland as other countries of the former socialist bloc, in comparison to many Western European countries.

Finally, if on the one hand we noticed that fertility postponement is under way in all four urban contexts, it might well be the case that, apart from changes in the socio-cultural context which partly influence the decision to enter parenthood later, the opportunity to have a stable job, and thus a stable economic situation, is also reached at a later stage of the individual's life cycle. Therefore, if the sequence of the events does not change substantially, the later the economic stability is reached the later individuals enter a union and form a family.

Considering the case where only one in the couple is employed at first pregnancy, it is usually the woman who has a not regular employment position or is not employed (i.e. in Rome the figure equals to 30.6% if the respondent is a woman and 22.8% if the respondent is a man). Such a result would deserve further investigation. On the one hand, it might suggest that it is still preferable for the man first rather than for the woman to have a stable employment position in order to enter parenthood. Nevertheless, on the other hand, also the age difference between partners has to be taken into account, usually with the man being older and thus having more time to find a suitable job, or considering the fact that there are still gender differences in the opportunity to find a stable employment position particularly in the private sector.

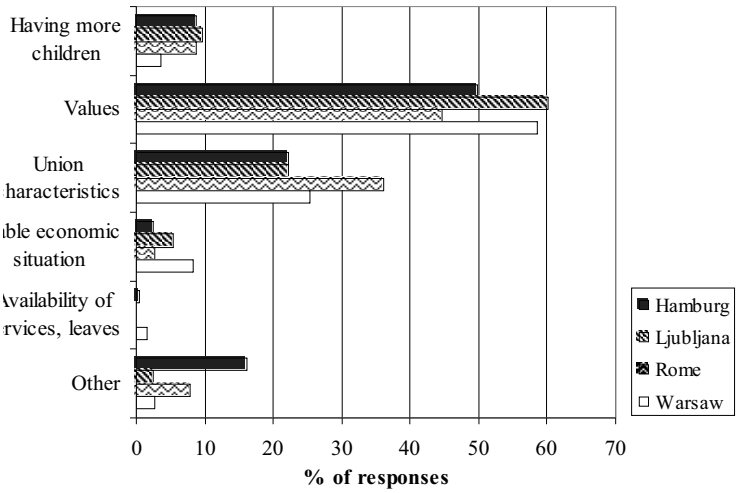
Despite the necessary *caveats* regarding the number of cases, it is interesting to note that across cohorts the combination where only one in the couple is employed increases slightly for the younger cohorts, particularly in Hamburg and Rome, suggesting that employment stability for both partners is harder to reach for the younger generations. Fertility postponement dynamics for the younger cohorts go together with a later access to stable employment and, thus, young couples deciding to have a child are more and more characterised by only one in the couple having stable employment or even with both partners being in unstable employment.

Table 3 – Respondent's and partner's employment status at first pregnancy. Women and men separately

ROME							
	Partner's employment status				*Partner's employment status*		
Respondent's (woman) employment status	Employed	Not employed	Total	*Respondent's (man) employment status*	Employed	Not employed	Total
Employed	62.9	1.4	64.3	Employed	69.0	22.8	91.8
Not employed	30.6	5.1	35.7	Not employed	4.7	3.5	8.2
Total	93.5	6.5	100.0	Total	73.7	26.3	100.0
WARSAW							
	Partner's employment status				*Partner's employment status*		
Respondent's (woman) employment status	Employed	Not employed	Total	*Respondent's (man) employment status*	Employed	Not employed	Total
Employed	71.71	5.36	77.06	Employed	71.2	16.1	87.2
Not employed	18.32	4.61	22.94	Not employed	3.3	9.5	12.8
Total	90.03	9.97	100	Total	74.4	25.6	100.0
LJUBLJANA							
	Partner's employment status				*Partner's employment status*		
Respondent's (woman) employment status	Employed	Not employed	Total	*Respondent's (man) employment status*	Employed	Not employed	Total
Employed	75.81	2.93	78.75	Employed	76.3	11.4	87.8
Not employed	14.53	6.72	21.25	Not employed	7.0	5.3	12.2
Total	90.34	9.66	100	Total	83.3	16.7	100.0
HAMBURG							
	Partner's employment status				*Partner's employment status*		
Respondent's (woman) employment status	Employed	Not employed	Total	*Respondent's (man) employment status*	Employed	Not employed	Total
Employed	61.2	7.8	69.0	Employed	60.8	22.5	83.4
Not employed	16.3	14.7	31.0	Not employed	6.7	9.9	16.6
Total	77.5	22.5	100.0	Total	67.6	32.4	100.0

The economic dimension, however, does not show up significantly if we analyse the reasons given by the respondents regarding the birth of the first child (Figure 1). Thus, this might suggest again that a stable economic situation has to be intended as a necessary condition for thinking of having a child and then realising fertility intentions. The dimension regarding values appears as the most important motivation for the first birth in all four cities: having a child fulfils the life, is expression of love, gives joy, satisfaction, and realises the desire to become a parent. This dimension is followed by the characteristics related to the union experience, such as partner's agreement on having a child, the fact that having a child might complete the union experience, etc.

Figure 1 – Reasons for having decided to have the first child



2.3. Transition to the first child: are the four urban contexts converging?

In order to evaluate whether there are differences in the transition from childlessness to the first birth across the four cities by cohort we prose the event history analysis and estimate a piecewise constant exponential model for women and men separately, including both constant and time-varying covariates.

In the first step we include in the model the urban context and the cohort as time constant covariates. In the second model we consider the interaction between the cohort and the city of the survey in order to quantify possible differences by cohort across the urban contexts. In the third model, we include some individual characteristics in order to control for the different impact of some well-known determinants of the transition to the first child. As time constant we consider the respondent's number of siblings and educational attainment at the time of the interview. In the various models we run by taking into account different covariates as proxies for the respondent's family background, the number of siblings turns out to be the only statistically significant and thus we include it also in the final model. The respondent's educational attainment has been chosen in order to proxy for compositional differences in the population. Furthermore, we take into account two time varying covariates: the experience of union formation (both marriage and cohabitation) and first job, both of them important determinants of the transition to parenthood but which could act with different intensity across cities and cohorts.

In the first model both for women and men (Table 4 and Table 5) we notice a decrease of the transition to the first birth for the younger cohorts with respect to the oldest one. Moreover, if we take into account differences across cities, the chance to have a first child is higher in Ljubljana, Hamburg and Warsaw with respect to Rome.

Model 2 allows us to investigate whether there are some country specific differences across cohorts which turn out to be more significant for men than for women. If we take a look at Figure 3, we note that with regard to women respondents there are substantial differences in the transition to the first birth between the four cities across cohorts. According to Model 2, Ljubljana and Warsaw differ noticeably from Rome, apart from the fact that also Hamburg shows significant increasing divergence for the youngest cohort. However, by controlling for some individual characteristics the results from Model 3 suggest that the differences between the four cities are actually smaller, in particular with regard to Ljubljana and Warsaw towards Rome. Moreover, also differences between Ljubljana and Warsaw themselves seem to be smaller. Considering the covariates for individual characteristics, all of them are statistically significant and confirm the expected results. Women with a larger number of siblings have a higher chance to enter motherhood as well as those who already entered a first union and had a first job experience. Educational attainment can only be interpreted as a proxy for population composition as does not reflect the educational level reached by the respondent at the time of first birth.

For men (Figure 5) the results of Model 2 indicate that there is divergence between Rome, on the one hand, and Ljubljana and Warsaw, on the other. However, such a diverging process across cohorts slows down if we consider Model 3 that controls for differences in some important determinants of the transition to first birth. It is interesting to note that the transition rate of becoming father for the first time is first lower in Hamburg than in Rome, while afterwards they diverge again with Hamburg showing a higher rate for the youngest cohort. Also for men the effect of the covariates is as expected: also here having already experienced a first union and first job has a positive effect on the transition to fatherhood.

Table 4 – Coefficients of the piecewise constant exponential model for the transition to first birth, women

	Model 1	Sig.	Model 2	Sig.	Model 3	Sig.
Cohort (Ref. 1961-65)						
1966-70	-0.1764	*	-0.2659	°	-0.1675	
1971-75	-0.4432	***	-0.5572	***	-0.1309	
1976-81	-0.8294	***	-1.1851	***	-0.6614	*
City (Ref. Rome)						
Ljubljana	0.6369	***	0.4615	**	0.5714	***
Hamburg	0.2341	**	0.1416		-0.2241	
Warsaw	0.9922	***	0.9122	***	1.0282	***
*City*Cohort (Ref. Rome 1961-65)*						
Lju*1966-70			0.4265	*	0.4738	*
Lju*1971-75			0.1145		-0.1061	
Lju*1976-81			0.1529		-0.1206	
Ham*1966-71			-0.0421		-0.0026	
Ham*1971-75			0.2624		0.1388	
Ham*1976-81			0.6397	°	0.1792	
War*1966-72			0.0026		-0.2004	
War*1971-75			0.1290		-0.2936	
War*1976-81			0.4590		-0.2236	
# Siblings (Ref. <2 sib.)					0.1221	°
Educational attainment (Ref. Low)						
Medium					-0.2508	*
High					-0.6597	***
In union (Ref. No)					2.4669	***
First job (Ref. No)					0.1763	*
Log-likelihood	-7411.52		-7402.25	*	-6707.50	***

Legend: *** p<0.001; **p<0.01; * p<0.05; ° p<0.10

Table 5 – Coefficients of the piecewise constant exponential model for the transition to first birth, men

	Model 1	Sig.	Model 2	Sig.	Model 3	Sig.
Cohort (Ref. 1961-65)						
1966-70	-0.1352		-0.3605	*	-0.1777	
1971-75	-0.4628	***	-1.2855	***	-0.8997	***
1976-81	-0.7709	***	-2.2212	***	-1.4805	**
City (Ref. Rome)						
Ljubljana	0.6430	***	0.4193	**	0.6707	***
Hamburg	-0.0986		-0.4234	**	-0.6776	***
Warsaw	0.8804	***	0.2466		0.1934	
*City*Cohort (Ref. Rome 1961-65)*						
Lju*1966-70			0.1798		-0.1787	
Lju*1971-75			0.8099	**	0.3925	
Lju*1976-81			1.0901	°	0.4884	
Ham*1966-71			0.1778		0.1345	
Ham*1971-75			0.8228	**	0.4966	
Ham*1976-81			2.1748	***	1.4228	**
War*1966-72			0.6002	**	0.4539	**
War*1971-75			1.4434	***	1.0026	***
War*1976-81			1.9399	***	1.2419	**
# Siblings (Ref. <2 sib.)					0.1102	
Educational attainment (Ref. Low)						
Medium					-0.2082	°
High					-0.4064	***
In union (Ref. No)					2.4514	***
First job (Ref. No)					0.4012	***
Log-likelihood	-5938.00		-5912.01	***	-5415.02	***

Legend: *** p<0.001; **p<0.01; * p<0.05; ° p<0.10

Figure 2 – Differences in the transition to first birth between the four cities by cohort, women P 360

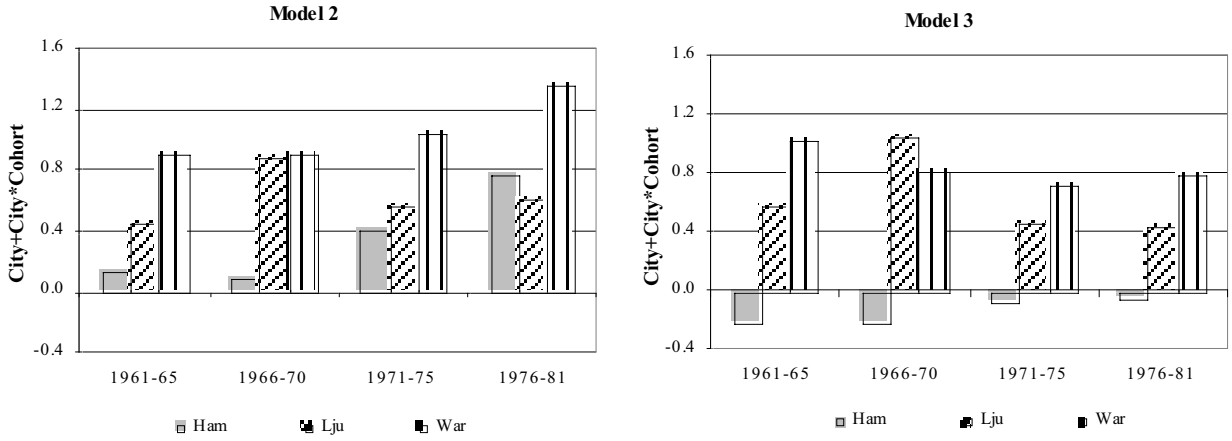
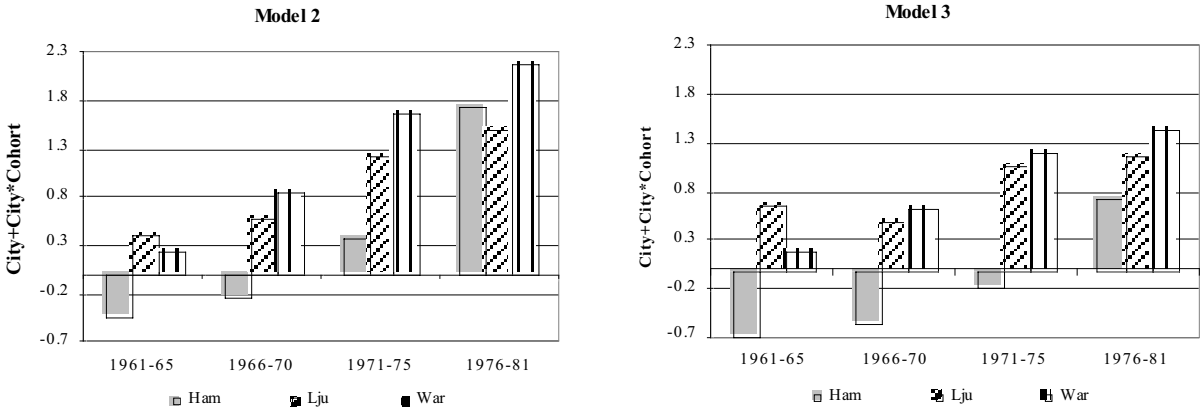


Figure 3 - Differences in the transition to first birth between the four cities by cohort, men



2.4. Work and family: what aspects are important for family choices?

Apart from employment stability other dimensions of occupation may play a role in the decision to form a family and have children. To synthesise the different employment aspects that are important in orienting mid- and long-term family choices we perform a multiple correspondence analysis (MCA), separately for each city, considering the following dimensions: 1) favourable economic condition; 2) flexible working arrangements; 3) protection measures for women and family; 4) aspects related to the reconciliation between work and family. Each of these categories and their subcategories are included in the analysis and actively contribute to the selection of the factors. We try then to highlight the association between the new dimensions emerged from the MCA and some structural variables and variables related to fertility behaviour, included in the analysis as supplementary variables: gender, age, educational attainment, employment status, household composition, marital status, main activity, number of children, desired number of children, intention to have a child in the next three years, today's view on children.

The variability explained by the first two factors is as high as 38.3% for Rome, 37.1% for Ljubljana, 40.2% for Warsaw and 28.3% in Hamburg. After considering Benzecri's (1979) corrected estimation of the variability explained by the factors in the MCA, we decide to take into account only the plane formed by the first two factors as it explains a significant part of the total variability of the phenomenon in all four cities.

In Rome the first factorial dimension distinguishes between those who report that a favourable economic

situation (on the negative semi-axis) - in particular a good and continuous pay, having more sources of income and the possibility for savings - helps support family choices, and those who indicate flexible working arrangements, protection measures for women and family, i.e. longer and better paid leaves, and aspects favouring the reconciliation between work and family, such as availability of childcare services close to or within the working place and the possibility to better coordinate employee's and school vacations. If we consider the projection of the supplementary variables on the factorial plane, the negative semi-axis is associated with respondents who are men, never married, still living in the family of origin, for whom a child is a "cost" and who do not have yet clear fertility intentions. Women, respondents living in couple with children, with high educational attainment, married and who see having a child as an "investment" are associated with the positive semi-axis of the first factor. The second factor characterises those who indicate as important aspects the possibility to work part-time, within a flexi-time regime, to choose other flexible working arrangements, and having a good economic situation in the positive semi-axis. With regard to the supplementary variables, older respondents and those with medium educational attainment are significantly associated with the negative semi-axis, while on the positive side we find those for whom having a child is an "investment".

In Hamburg, the first factor identifies on the positive semi-axis respondents who indicate the economic stability, availability of protection measures and measures aimed at favouring the reconciliation between work and family the dimensions necessary to support family choices. On the negative semi-axis we find male respondents, persons with low educational attainment, never married, generally living alone, childless and with no fertility intentions for the next three years. Female respondents, persons leaving in couple with children and those who desire to have more than two children are significantly associated with the positive semi-axis of the first factor. The second factor distinguishes between those who quote a favourable economic situation (negative semi-axis) - i.e. a good and continuous pay - as an important aspect for making family choices, and those who point out the need for more support for the reconciliation between work and family, in particular with regard to the availability of childcare services linked to the working place and the possibility to better coordinate parents' holidays with school vacation. Similarly to the case of Rome, the negative semi-axis characterises male respondents, people who live in the family of origin, with a medium educational attainment and who do not intend to have children in the next three years. On the other side, we find women, respondents who are highly educated and who intend to have a child in the next three years.

In Ljubljana, we note along the first factor the aspects related to the reconciliation between work and family as opposite to the dimension linked to a favourable economic situation. Respondents living in couple, with more than one child, married, persons who intend to have children in the next three years are significantly associated with the negative semi-axis of the first factor, in contraposition with those who have never married, are young, living still in the family of origin, childless and see in childbearing an "obstacle". The second factor synthesises aspects related to flexible working arrangements and protection measures for women and the family.

Finally, Warsaw indicates as characteristic for the first factor aspects related to protection measures for families, measures aimed at facilitating the reconciliation between work commitments and family engagements, and to a minor extent, flexibility in working arrangements. The lack of these aspects is associated to male respondents, persons not child oriented, in opposition to female respondents, persons with children and more child oriented. The second factor synthesises the importance of a positive economic situation characterised mainly by a good and continuous income and it is associated with male respondents, medium educational attainment, employed persons and respondents who do not have clear projects with respect to fertility intentions.

To sum up, as already aforementioned economic stability is confirmed to be a necessary condition to form a family and enter parenthood in all four cities. In fact, such a dimension is pointed out generally by those who have not got children yet but might do so in the next future, are rather young, do not have clear plans to form a family and have children and are usually still living in the family of origin. However, besides a favourable economic situation, the need for more flexible working arrangements translated into the opportunity to have flexible working hours and other measures aimed at reconciling work and family, such as the

availability of childcare services close to the working place, are also indicated as relevant for family choices generally by those who already have children and have, thus, already faced some of the difficulties in managing both employment and family commitments.

3. Couples' employment status and fertility intentions

In this second part of the chapter we analyze the relation between couples' fertility intentions and the employment status of both partners jointly. In the next section we discuss briefly the theoretical relations between an unstable job situation and reproductive intentions and behaviour as they are discussed in the demographic literature. In section 3.2 we justify the importance of using a couple perspective when we are interested in the relationship between employment and fertility intentions. In section 3.3 we describe in detail the nature of the independent and the dependent variables and how we model their relationship. In section 3.4 we highlight the main results and discuss them in the concluding section.

3.1. Job insecurity

Two partially overlapping scientific "narratives" are used in demography to describe the implications of job instability on the work-life balance and the consequences that job instability has on fertility intentions and behaviour. In a previous work (cfr. Bernardi et al., 2006), we labelled these narratives the "insecurity narrative", inspired by economic theory, and the "uncertainty narrative", inspired by socio-psychological frameworks of the life course.

The insecurity narrative is well-represented in the demographic literature. The main line of argument is that job instability equals economic insecurity because the former brings in its wake fluctuating incomes arising from unstable unemployment episodes and rapid job changes. In addition, job instability often requires high residential mobility (given the growing demand for flexibility and mobility). The notion of insecurity is related to expectations about one's own living standard and living style. As parenthood is a resource-intensive and long-term commitment, the intention to have a child is likely to be postponed or forgone when income and the working conditions are not perceived as stable.

The uncertainty narrative identifies biographical uncertainty rather than economic insecurity per se as the major consequences of job instability. The un-structuring of the life course (Hurrelmann, 2003), which is a consequence of the growing demands for flexibility in the educational and job sphere, brings forth increasing biographical uncertainty in terms of which choices are to be faced and in terms of their timing. According to this narrative, life-course choices that reduce the level of uncertainty are particularly attractive. In this sense, parenthood is a way of producing biographical certainty (Friedman et al., 1994). Parenthood thus can be thought of as a force that contrasts the biographical uncertainty produced by precarious job situations—and can therefore be seen as something that is desired.

The two narratives share one common ground. Both insecurity and uncertainty are deemed to be general negative states that individuals will tend to avoid or reduce. However, in terms of defining what effect job insecurity has on fertility intentions the two narratives would lead opposite predictions.

3.2. Couple perspective and hypotheses

Previous literature has shown that taking a couple perspective changes the impact of individuals' characteristics on childbearing intentions and their certainty (Thomson et al., 1990). Our main interest is in fertility intentions over a specific time frame (the three years following the interview). Childbearing intentions so defined differ from more general fertility desires since they are more realistic statements about the next future. Therefore, they are conditional to the current life situation of respondents and they are useful to understand childbearing timing.

According to the theory of rational behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1973 and Ajzen, 1991) intentions are the result of several interacting dimensions like beliefs, subjective norms, and perceived control. Since most women intend to have a child when they are in union, the latter two elements, subjective norms and perceived control can hardly be imagined to be independent from the characteristics of the partner. Previous qualitative research on childbearing intentions has shown that the perception of the partner's opinion about a possible birth and of the partner's potential role as parent and provider enter the formulation of intention (for instance see Bernardi, 2006). In this chapter we concentrate on those factors that may modify the perceived control of childbearing. We start with quantifying the effect of the partners' employment characteristics.

The literature about fertility careers stresses that having a job is an incentive to have a child for men but a disincentive for women (among the others, Pinnelli and Di Giulio, 2003). However, the characteristics of the job itself (like the type of job contract and the expectations regarding the future job career of both partners) may modify the timing of fertility intentions, especially for the intention to become parent for the first time[56].

Among all job characteristics, we are particularly interested in the stability of a working position and the different effect that having or not an unlimited contract has on women and men. We analyse the effect of the contract characteristics of the respondent controlled for the contract characteristics of his or her partner. According to the male bread-winner model one would expect that when the man has a permanent contract this would encourage births, all things equal.

Our aim is teasing out whether the young urban generations in Europe plan their birth according to:

a) a male-bread-winner model (then we expect his secure job situation to be more relevant)
b) a one-earner model (then we expect one secure job situation to be gender interchangeable)
c) a flexible-earners model (then we expect that job security makes no difference in any case).

3.3. Data and models

We focus the analysis on childless couples[57] (any kind of union). Our aim is to identify the determinants of the intention to have a child within a specific time frame, which in this case is the next three years. Our independent variable is therefore constructed as follows: we group the answers 'Probably Yes' and 'Definitely Yes' as one single modality "YES", and in the same way we recode the answers 'Probably Not' and 'Definitely Not' as "NO". Respondents who are undecided about the answer (10.2% on average, with the lowest value in Germany 4.2% and the highest in Poland, 15.4%) are excluded from the analysis, given that it is not possible to infer their behaviour and group them with one of the other modality[58].

We analyse the intention to have a child in the next three years (Yes vs. No) by means of a series of logistic regressions (see section 3.4). We performed the logistic regressions including one variable at a time, in order to check the possible interference of variables. However, the stepwise procedure does not lead substantial modifications in the effect of each covariate in the different steps.

We estimate a first model for childless men and a separate one for childless women (models A and B). We included 226 men in model A and 284 women in model B. In all the analysis we keep men and women samples separated because the relation between the intention to have a child and employment characteristics are likely to differ by gender. Given that this distinction further reduces the sample of childless individuals, we are obliged to merge all city samples together to reduce the uncertainty in the estimations which would be introduced by dealing with too small numbers. Our theoretical starting point is that there are reasons to believe that job related instability affects intentions for parenthood. We formulated some hypotheses concerning the direction of the effect of job instability on intentions and how it may vary depending on whether it is his or her job to be unstable. Therefore our independent variables of interest are selected in order to differentiate more or less stable life situations, in terms of biographical as well as job stability. The explanatory variables in the model are:

- Man's working contract: this variable contrasts the couples in which the male partner has an unlimited (stable) contract to all those in which the male partner does not have an unlimited contract (irregular or time-limited contracts), is self-employed or does not work at all.
- Woman's working contract: defined as the equivalent variable for men.

Since the JIFT data give substantial additional information about the job characteristics of the employed respondents, we run another model selecting out the not employed (about 8% of the male sample and 17% of the female sample). Again, men and women are analysed separately in order to capture the possible different effect that specific type of job-related characteristics have on their fertility intentions by gender (models A1, based on 208 men, and B1, based on 236 women):

- Self-definition of precarious worker: this dichotomous variable indicates individuals who define themselves as precarious workers. This measures the subjective perception of being in a non stable working position. As a matter of fact also unlimited-time employees and self-employed ones can express their concern about the future expectations linked to their current position (for instance if they are private employees and their firma may close down in case of economic hardship). Subjective perceptions of stability or instability are indicators of the way in which reality is appraised by respondents and this definition of reality may influence short term fertility intentions. Subjective perceptions of instability are only partially correlated to the objective definition we used to identify stable workers (those with unlimited contract).
- Having a working contract in the public sector: public employees have more secure and protected jobs as compared to the private ones or to the self employed. Moreover, jobs in the public sectors are generally more favourable to flexible work arrangements, not only in the everyday routine but also in the long run (prolonged maternity leave etc.), that should be relevant and have a positive effect especially for women. On the other hand, especially in countries like Poland and Slovenia, a working contract in the private sector may be more rentable in terms of income and offer more opportunities for multiple activities. Therefore the effect of this variable may also be the opposite or a combination of the two effects.
- Having a part time contract: part time contracts make work and family life more compatible in terms of time and could have a positive effect on the intentions, particularly for women. However, the literature shows that the incompatibilities between childrearing and work increase with the second child and that most mothers of one child manage to arrange childcare for a single child. In addition a part time job reduces substantially the economic resources available to face the costs of a child.
- At least one partner is a student: the fact that one of the two partners is still in education (higher education like university studies or equivalent) should have the effect of postponing childbearing intentions to a further time point. In all contexts falling in the JIFT sample there is a normative incompatibility between being in education and parenthood. We expect therefore a negative impact of this condition on fertility intentions.
- Flexible work arrangements: this variable indicates the possibility – without restrictions – of taking days off and reducing working hours, vary the entrance/exit time and profit from daily permits or accumulated working time. Respondents who agreed that their job is characterized by all these conditions are thought to be in a more favourable situation in order to manage possible family-work reconciliation problems, and should therefore be more ready to have a child than respondents who are in the opposite situation. This variable should be more relevant for women, who traditionally bear a higher burden with family responsibility.

In addition to the variables of interest described above, in each model we control for a set of sociodemographic characteristics which are generally correlated with fertility intentions. The control variables are:

- Location: we insert a control for the city (Hamburg, Rome, Warsaw and Ljubljana) to obtain estimation net of contextual effects, given that there are possible differences in the institutional and cultural frames specific for each city. We are aware that this choice is not optimal because there is still the possibility that the effects vary from one context to the other so that where in one context they raise the probability to intend a pregnancy in the other context they may have the opposite effect and these two effects compensate. We checked carefully the data to avoid misinterpretations due to this merge.
- Age of respondent: this variable contrasts the older age group (35-44 years old) with the younger one (25-34). We expect that a higher age has a more marked negative influence on fertility intentions for women than for men due to the biological limits to female fecundability.
- Age of the partner: this variable is coded in the same way as the previous one. Similarly we expect the age of the woman partner to be more relevant than that of the man partner.
- Couple's education: this variable compares the couples where none of the partners has a tertiary degree of education with those couples where at least one partner does (separately if this is the case of the man or of the woman) or both partners do. It is not only a proxy for a gender related power relations within the couple but also for individuals' human capital investment. We expect that couples in which only the man has a tertiary degree (and the woman has therefore a lower level of education than him) are more traditional than other couples. Moreover couples that invest longer in their human capital more easily postpone their fertility plans.
- Partnership status: marriage is strictly correlated to parenthood and intentions to parenthood and therefore we expect the usual strong effect of this variable when it is considered as a determinant (Pinnelli et al., 2003). However, marrying and having the first child are almost endogenous in many contexts and certainly in countries like Italy and Poland, since stability and legal protection are part of the reasons why people marry when they want to have children.
- Type of accommodation: this control distinguishes between couples who live in an accommodation that they own (owned) and all the others, namely those who live in a rented accommodation or enjoy their accommodation as free use. Also in this case we can imagine that people who live in an owned accommodation are more stable than others, and so have a more favourable attitude to childbearing.

3.4. Results

All models with covariates are significantly better than the models without covariates. Since the stepwise procedure does not lead substantial modifications in the effect of each covariate we comment here directly the preferred models for men and women separately.

Models estimations including employed and unemployed

Women in our survey seem to weight considerably the importance of a protected working contract for women, so that not having an unlimited contract depresses childbearing perspectives (Model A and B – Table 6 and Table 7). Contrary to what has been sometime argued, short term contracts for women do not have the feared effect of sending women "back home", but rather of depressing fertility intentions and consequently behaviour. Irrespective of the job situation of the partner, women without a stable job situation are less likely to desire a child in the next three years. In addition, they prefer men in more dynamic working conditions since the effect of a not unlimited job contract of their partner has a positive effect on women's fertility intentions. Men who are self employed, engaged in atypical working activities or work with a non permanent contract are more likely to have a wife who wants a child. This unexpected result may be related to the nature of the limited term contract in specific countries. Limited contracts which guarantee some career perspective and a very low risk of unemployment between contracts may be more attractive than secure, stable but non dynamic positions. This kind of contracts and the associated job career on the other hand may be unsuitable to be combined with child raising activities because generally imply high competition time engagement. Therefore, women with a preference for a more traditional couple management where the childcare will be

mostly taken in charge by them could be more likely to intend to have a child under these conditions (see for instance Bernardi, 2006, p.106 and ff.).

Both men and women are less likely to intend to have a child if they belong to the older age group and, net from their own age effect, they are also discouraged to engage in parenthood if their partner is older than 35. This group of "old" childless is probably selected to a certain extent because a) it includes those who have never intended to have a child and reached age 35 and more without a child; b) those who may have unsuccessfully tried to have a child for some time and despite do not declare themselves infertile, may prefer to state a negative intention; c) those who may desire a child but declare a realistic intention given their reduced reproductive-life-expectancy (women).

In all models, living in married couples is a very strong predictor of the intention to have a child in the next three years compared to couples being in a cohabiting union. In countries like Poland and Italy marriage and children represent a package deal and the percentages of birth out of marriage are relatively small so that parenthood intentions are contingent to marriage. Cohabiting couples who do not intend to marry would probably express a negative intention to have a child, as well as those who intend to marry but have not made concrete plans for a marriage in the near future.

The control for the relative educational achievement of the two partners, which we use as a proxy for power relations within the couple and of the social status, shows that only when the couple is unbalanced in favour of the man (he has higher education), then he is more likely to intend to have a child than couples in which they are both equally low educated. All other cases (unbalanced education in favour of the woman or both highly educated) are not significant in both men and women models. However, even though not statistically significant, it is remarkable that women are more likely to express a negative intention when they are highly educated independently of the relative education of their partner. On the contrary for high educated men or men living with a higher educated woman the coefficient remains positive (reference group: low equally educated partners).

A housing property lowers the probability of declaring a positive intention to bear a child for men and women compared to those who rent. Our childless sample is relatively young and having engaged in buying a house may represent a relatively recent strain. It is plausible to interpret this highly significant negative effect as the effect of relatively onerous mortgage duties which may be competing with the foreseen costs of a potential parenthood in the next three years.

Regional differences are not completely explained by individual and couple characteristics. German men and women interviewed by the JIFT are less likely to plan to become parents in the three years to come, also after controlling for socio-demographic characteristics and for the employment situation of the couple.

Models with only employed men and women

In this second set of models (Model A1 and B1 – Tables 8 and 9) we tested the job characteristics of those men and women in the sample who have a job at the moment of the interview. The introduction of our measures of precariousness, public employment does not improve the explicatory power of the model, with the only exception of the student status (negative effect for both genders as expected). Contrary to our initial hypothesis, the indicator for a highly flexible working environment for women is rather a negative factor on fertility intentions. Again, the fact that this effect is registered only for women (as for the negative effect of limited contracts), it is likely that at least a share of these jobs are highly qualified career related jobs, for which a flexible schedule is traded for a high investment in terms of time and dedication, both rather incompatible with childrearing.

Table 6 - Model A: Logistic regression on the intention to have a child in the next three years, childless men

	B	Sig.
Location (ref. Ljubljana)		
Hamburg	-1.743	***
Rome	0.390	
Warsaw	0.797	
Respondent's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-0.283	
Partner's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-1.202	***
Education of the couple (ref. Both not tertiary)		
Only he tertiary	1.266	**
Only she tertiary	0.164	
Both tertiary	0.539	
Partnership status (ref. Cohabiting)		
Married	1.298	***
Type of accommodation (ref. rented or free-use)		
Owned	-0.815	*
Man's job contract (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	0.213	
Woman's job contract (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	0.183	
Constant	1.011	*

Legend: *** p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10

Table 7 - Model B: Logistic regression on the intention to have a child in the next three years, childless women

	B	Sig.
Location (ref. Ljubljana)		
Hamburg	-0.944	*
Rome	0.719	
Warsaw	-0.015	
Respondent's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-1.321	***
Partner's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-0.818	**
Education of the couple (ref. Both not tertiary)		
Only he tertiary	-0.401	
Only she tertiary	-0.344	
Both tertiary	0.203	
Partnership status (ref. Cohabiting)		
Married	0.668	*
Type of accommodation (ref. rented or free-use)		
Owned	-0.209	
Man's job contract (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	0.801	**
Woman's job contract (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	-0.681	*
Constant	1.528	***

Legend: *** p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10

Table 8 - Model A1: Logistic regression on the intention to have a child in the next three years, childless men, employed

	B	Sig.
Location (ref. Ljubljana)		
Hamburg	-1.708	***
Rome	2.032	
Warsaw	1.708	
Respondent's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-0.308	
Partner's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-1.460	***
Education of the couple (ref. Both not tertiary)		
Only he tertiary	1.426	**
Only she tertiary	-0.214	
Both tertiary	0.101	
Partnership status (ref. Cohabiting)		
Married	1.340	***
Type of accommodation (ref. rented or free-use)		
Owned	-0.567	
Man's job contract (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	0.065	
Woman's job contract (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	-0.185	
Precarious (ref. No)		
Yes	0.083	
Type of contract (ref. private or self-employed)		
Public	0.068	
Part-time contract (ref. No)		
Yes	0.640	
At least one student in the couple (ref. No)		
Yes	-1.078	
Flexibility in the working schedule (ref. No)		
Yes	-0.489	
Constant	0.159	

Legend: *** p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10

Table 9 - Model B1: Logistic regression on the intention to have a child in the next three years, childless women, employed

	B	Sig.
Location (ref. Ljubljana)		
Hamburg	-0.460	
Rome	1.144	*
Warsaw	-0.082	
Respondent's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-1.549	***
Partner's age (ref. 25-34)		
35-44	-1.047	**
Education of the couple (ref. Both not tertiary)		
Only he tertiary	-0.482	
Only she tertiary	-0.294	
Both tertiary	0.308	
Partnership status (ref. Cohabiting)		
Married	0.445	
Type of accommodation (ref. rented or free-use)		
Owned	-0.302	
Job contract of the men (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	-0.909	**
Job contract of the woman (ref. Other)		
Unlimited	0.922	*
Precarious (ref. No)		
Yes	-0.500	
Type of contract (ref. private or self-employed)		
Public	0.204	
Part-time contract (ref. No)		
Yes	-0.028	
At least one student in the couple (ref. No)		
Yes	-1.395	*
Flexibility in the working schedule (ref. No)		
Yes	-0.920	**
Constant	1.519	*

Legend: *** p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10

4. Conclusions

Our analysis has confirmed that changes in the transition to parenthood in the four urban contexts are moving in the same direction, in particular towards lower and later fertility. Despite this common trajectory, the four urban settlements show their own specificities that to some extent reflect the national characteristics. Italian men and women are entering parenthood later if compared to the Polish ones, who still show an earlier childbearing pattern.

With regard to the first birth, economic stability, i.e. stable employment for at least one of the partners, turns out as a necessary condition to become a parent. If on the one hand a favourable economic situation is a pre-condition for the transition to parenthood in all four cities, the need for suitable policy measures to reconcile work engagements and family commitments is also expressed by many respondents as necessary for mid- and long-term family plans. The various aspects that have been pointed out by the respondents suggest that more attention should be paid in finding a balance between work duties and family responsibilities. Flexible working arrangements, i.e. part-time or flexi-time solutions, may help better reconcile parents' working hours with children services opening hours. Therefore, easier access and greater acceptance of such solutions might favour a better management of family life and professional career. Furthermore, the involvement of employers in facilitating the reconciliation between work and family seems also to be suggested with regard to the possibility to have childcare services close or within the working place. It is interesting to note that the economic dimension is generally related to the personal income and does not involve better paid periods of parental or childrearing leaves. On the contrary, the need of longer leaves rather suggest that there is not a clear desire to give up completely with childrearing activities, if only this was compatible with work responsibilities and career advancement.

Our analysis of childbearing intentions was based on a time framed indicator, which should be read as a contingent attitude towards parenthood depending on current socio-economic and affective circumstances and the expectation on the way in which such circumstances may evolve in the near future. .

The different correlation of the level of education and the intention to have a first child for men and for women respectively seems to document a gender-model conflict, namely a conflict between a male breadwinner model and a double-earner or gender-equal model. Compared to the situation in which both partners are low educated, men's fertility intentions are positive and the strongest if they are the one in the couple holding a tertiary degree or if both partners have a tertiary degree. On the contrary, childless women score a negative risk to want a child when they have a partner with an educational degree higher than themselves or when they are more educated than their partner. Only in the case in which both partners are highly educated there is a positive effect on childbearing intentions compared to the situation in which both partners are low educated. In other words, it seems that indicators of gender equality in the couple are significant indicators for women's childbearing intentions, particularly for women in equally high educated couples. Men seem to evaluate education unbalance in their favour as appropriate for intending to have a child while such unbalance in her favour would rather discourage them. .

The effect of working contract conditions on employed women's childbearing intentions is remarkable, An unlimited contract for employed women is positively correlated to the intentions to have a child and feeling a precarious worker has a negative effect. Both indicators show the need of women to feel stable in their own job before entering motherhood.. The later achievement of a stable position for women is delaying positive fertility intentions.

We can conclude that the strongest factor which could encourage couples to intend a child would be to guarantee them a secure job situation for the female partner, net of the different combination of educational degrees . In order to incorporate children in such a family model also the care duties would have to be taken by both partners equally to avoid a power shift in the partnership and the kick-in of the traditional gender-role models with the birth of the first child (Beaujot 2006) – a fear that might make especially career- oriented women question their desire for children (McDonald 2000, p. 8). It is clear that employers have a great role in developing and promoting stable positions for women. Short trial period with tenure perspectives are one

Table 10. Policy Recommendations Sustaining Family Formation Reproductive Behaviour

Employment stability	Employment/educational flexibility	Housing	Cultural	Work-family Reconciliation
Policy measure principles (P. McDonald, 2006) a) neutrality b) efficacy c) efficiency				
• priority to sign permanent contracts • atypical and temporary contracts only as the initial step into the labour market • measures promoting the transformation of atypical/temporary contracts into permanent contracts (fiscal benefits, costs reduction of working contracts) • policies supporting women's employment stability • policies promoting economic equity of the salaries between men and women in order to favour women's economic independence **Intergenerational solidarity:** • the stop of career progression (in the medium run) in order to devote the resources to the setting-up of permanent contracts for the young entering the labour market **Involvement of enterprises:** • increasing resources for innovation through the stable employment for highly skilled young persons	• The right of employed, both permanent and temporary (neutrality of policies) to: • management of the flexibility of working hours • possibility to freely negoziate the working times • …in accordance with specific family needs (childcare, childrearing, health, etc..), starting with various measures available. **Stage and working experiences** • Before the attainment of a degree enable the student to start a stage or a professional experience in firms/a public bodies at local or national level/international organizations/cooperatives joined to the Universities by public agreements, in order to enhance the inclusion of young people with high degrees in the labour market. **Enterprises' collaboration:** • improving the management of human resources	• better conditions for young couples (in which at least one ha san unstable job) to receive a loan or other form of financing to buy their first accommodation • priority in the access to public housing assistance for the young couplet expecting a child • cash benefits for the rent paid by young couples expecting the first child, in which one of the partners is a student	• support to women's career progression • greater attention towards the social dimension of children • cultural promotion of intergenerational solidarity • fight against the stigma towards men who take benefit of parental leaves • favour a cultural change with regard to an equal division of work burden within the couple against a division of roles within the family	• introduction of flexibility mechanisms regarding measures for work-family reconciliation • provide a common neutral basis of measures that everyone can freely negotiate with the employer depending on personal needs • longer periods of parental leaves • easier access to public services: a) harmonisation of the opening hours of public services with the working times b) availability of administrative services by computer (postal, banking..) c) harmonisation of school opening hours with working times • greater investments of private enterprises in services for the employees: a) the setting-up of childcare services within or close to the working place b) creation of private/public markets inside the working place c) social/administrative front-office, inside the working place, sustained by volunteers retired people; d) institution of *time banks* with the conjoint participation of both retired people and personnel in activity.

way to reduce the feeling of precariousness. Policies should care to encourage firms and employers by bonuses for companies which build in a gender-independent transition to a stable contract relatively early in the career in their recruiting conditions.

5. Policy Recommendations

The current research confirms the strategic challenges that the new family models pose to the European social model (M. J. Rodrigues, 2006). The results highlight the multi-dimensionality of the factors that influence the fertility choices of the young-adults living also in different contexts. The sustainability of the European social model depends therefore on a series of reforms that should be implemented at socio-economic level, regarding the education system, the labour market, etc. in order to face the novelties in the reproductive behaviour and family formation patterns shown by the new generations of young Europeans. Besides these reforms, a cultural change has also to be triggered promoting a gender-equal division of labour within the family, in particular with respect to childrearing.

Flexibility, equal opportunities, reconciliation and services are the keywords of such reforms. This translates into flexible access to permanent training, flexibility in working hours, equal opportunities in professional choices and national employment agreements, family-oriented assistance services (M. J. Rodrigues, 2006). All this would lead toward an integrated system of policy measures responding to clear needs and problems.

What emerges clearly from the current study is the importance of economic stability, intended as the necessary condition for realizing fertility intentions. Nevertheless, economic stability reflects a wider concept included in the 21st guideline of the renewed Lisbon Strategy, which points out the importance of promoting employment *security*, together with *flexibility*. Certainty, thus, in the society of uncertainty, and flexibility in the society of fluidity. However, in order to face the new trends in the reproductive behaviour of the young adults and the new family models, it is necessary to think of more dimensions and more levels, all of them connected to each other.

Some policy guidelines are thus suggested, which involve transversally different fields: the employment stability, flexibility, housing, work-family reconciliation, and culture in general. Finally, but not less important, it would be necessary to promote culturally and support socially the realisation of concrete intergenerational solidarity, to be translated into policy measures able to link the young adults to the more numerous elderly population. One way of doing so could be the realisation of the intergenerational *time-banks*, to be promoted also at the enterprise level (between those who are retired and those who is still in employment).

According to P. McDonald the principles upon which policies supporting family choices should be based are the following: neutrality, efficacy, efficiency and acceptability. Moreover, they should follow a life course approach and should be enduring.

Neutrality means that policy measures should be entitled to subjects (the children, in this case) having a relationship with those who receive indirectly the benefits of policies (i.e. the parents). So, neutrality can be associated to working condition of parents or to gender.

Efficacy means that policies must reach their most direct aim: in this case, to raise quite moderately national birth rates.

Efficiency is conceived in terms of costs and benefits. Resources are limited and their use must reach efficacious results.

Acceptability, in political terms, concerns the need to convince people that children have a high social benefit.

Moreover, the policy measures shown in Table 10 take into account: a) the life course of people; b) changes needed in cultural context to influence fertility behaviour; c) the long-term character of policies supporting families. In Table 10 are summarized some brief policy measures that should be followed in a life course approach. With regard to *employment stability,* permanent contracts should be considered a priority of the employment agenda, even if not regular or fix-term contracts could be used to favour entering the labour market. To sustain the adoption of this kind of contracts, private firms/enterprises should be encouraged and sustained with tax benefit as well as reducing the costs of work.

In order to sustain women intentions to have children, policies should support their career, avoiding penalties in case of interruption of their activity during the pregnancy. Policies should also grant equal wages levels between men and women to support women economic independence. This study, in fact, shows that women intentions to have the first child are strictly related to their employment stability, to career progression as well as to economic independence. Intergenerational solidarity should be also encouraged and supported among both private and public sector, stopping almost in medium-term progression in career of permanent employees, in order to assign the saved resources to employ young workers. Firms, enterprises should also assign more resources to innovation technology employing highest skilled young people.

To enhance *employment flexibility*, time of work should be managed according to commitments of both men and women employees. Both women and men should be entitled to apply for flexible measures of working time, but it should be worth to enable them to negotiate the way to use the measures chosen. Employment flexibility could be also reached creating a linkage between Universities and firms/public local bodies/international organizations and so on. Before attaining the degree, young people should participate in stages or working experiences in firms, public local body joined with Universities by specific agreements. Stages and working experiences should be oriented to not regular or fix-term contracts, in order to favour the transition to the labour market.

Housing is another crucial node for policies that should promote births. Young couples, in which almost one of the two is an atypical worker, should be helped to borrow a loan to buy the first house. Moreover, young couples waiting their first child (also second) should have a priority in access to residential public buildings as well as to cash benefits for renting.

Then, *reconciliation measures* play a crucial role in supporting birth rates. A set of reconciliation measures should be provided for both employed men and women, while the way to access and to use them should be negotiated time by time according to personal needs. Longer periods of parental leaves should be appreciated more than better paid ones. Affective dimension is preferred to the economical one. Access to public child care services should be favoured: a) harmonizing their opening time with working hours; b) through technology innovation of administrative services (postal, banking etc..); c) harmonizing school opening time with working hours.

Enterprises should also assign more resources to services for their employees, as follow:

a) child-care services inside or close to working places;
b) creation of private/public markets inside the working place;
c) social/administrative front-office, inside the working place, sustained by volunteers retired people;
d) institution of *time banks* with the conjoint participation of both retired people and personnel in activity.

However, we must not underestimate the importance of cultural change, to promote a raise in birth rates. The social value of children must be sustained through public campaign as well as women career and independence, intergenerational solidarity, equal access to parental leaves, sharing duties among couples. As recently affirmed by the European Commissioner of the DGV, Vladimir Spidla, referring to the constraints on families' choices, politics alone cannot solve this problem: it is necessary to accompany politics with a wider and deeper socio-cultural change.

Notes

56 Another reason why we limit to childless couples is due to the low case numbers for couples with higher parities who have small children, that therefore are at higher risk of having another child, if wished.

57 Cohabiting or married childless couples represent a small share of the JIFT sample: in Germany 18.5%, in Italy 10.5% , in Poland 14.3%, and in Slovenia 12.8% of the sample.

58 We run a set of models (not shown) where the dichotomous dependent variable distinguished respondents who stated a certain intention (positive or negative) from those who stated to be uncertain. Respondents in Germany are more certain than those in Slovenia and both men and women respondents are more likely to be uncertain about their intentions after age 35. There is virtually no effect of job stability on the degree of certainty of intentions. We do not comment further these models given that the estimations are pretty unreliable due to the small numbers.

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Labour market flexibility and family choices: a comparative perspective in the EU

Introduction

In the mid-1990s, main of the European countries faced the big challenge of improving labour market performance and coping with the sharp rises in unemployment and especially for young individuals. This challenge was undertaken by the implementation of a wide set of reforms strongly supported by the main international institutions. The poor labour market performance was mainly related to high degree of labour market "rigidity" - or to put it positively, in term of a lack of flexibility" (OECD, 1986). Therefore, the need of enhancing flexibility was one of the main broad recommendations within the wide-ranging programme suggested to tackle the key challenges of that period (OECD, 1994).

The relevance of more flexible labour market was stressed also by the European Union with the launching, in 1997, of the European Employment Strategy (EES) and the adoption, in 2000, of the Lisbon Strategy aiming at reducing long-term unemployment and youth unemployment, at modernising work organization, flexibility of working arrangements and promoting more adaptable forms of contracts. The EU strategy identified three main challenges for the future guidelines: (i) raising employment and participation rates in accordance with the Lisbon and Stockholm targets, thus also helping to reduce unemployment; (ii) improving quality at work and promoting productive jobs; (iii) promoting an inclusive labour market, by reducing disparities at social (including gender) and territorial levels. The approach proposed by the EU stresses the relevance of balancing flexibility with security on the labour market in order to meet the needs of firms and workers. In this context, the EU, jointly with Member States and social partners, committed themselves to explore the development of a set of common principles on flexicurity (EU, 2006).

Nowadays, after at least a decade since this process started, there is a growing consensus on the need of an appraisal of its results. Time has came to take stock of whether the reforms implemented in the labour market have proved to be effective and how they might need to be revised and extended to respond to new challenges. In this context, a particular attention has been paid to the linkages between labour market reforms and family trends. The specific objective of this strand of the analysis is to verify the existence of a correlation between the wide labour market reforms and the unprecedented demographic changes that have affected the European countries in the last decades.

The purpose of this chapter is to offer a contribution to a better knowledge of this topic by analysing the linkages between employment status and family situation in four big cities across different EU countries, Hamburg (Germany), Rome (Italy), Warsaw (Poland) and Ljubljana (Slovenia). With this aim, using specific surveys conducted in 2006 in the four reference cities, we wish to detect how more flexible work arrangements interact with family choices of individuals aged 25 to 44.

Consistently with the prevalent approach, we consider two different aspects of flexibility: from one side, flexibility of working time and work schedules; and from the other side, flexibility as result of more flexible hiring policies and higher labour mobility. More specifically, we focus on the linkages between

family choices and part-time contracts and between family choices and unstable contracts, such as temporary or atypical contracts. The analysis has been carried out with a comparative perspective aiming at underling differences and similarities across the countries in our sample. The final aim is to identify main trends, best practices and main drawbacks in order to suggest possible recommendations about policy measures to improve the effectiveness of EU and national interventions in this sector.

The comparative perspective of the study is particularly relevant for at least two reasons. Firstly, the composition of our sample is highly representative of different situations within the EU. Indeed, if we consider the results of the analysis for the specific cities of our reference sample as representative of the situation at the national level, we can shed some lights on the correlation between family trends and labour market trends in very different EU countries. Namely, one of the Western European countries (Germany), one of the Southern European countries (Italy) and two of the New Member States (Poland and Slovenia). Secondly, our analysis is based on a database collected trough a questionnaire built on purpose, which is the same for each country. This allows us to overcome the structural lack of comparable data that is at the origin of the difficulties in carrying out such international comparisons.

Concerning the first issue, we provide empirical evidence on the incidence and characteristics of part-time employment with a specific attention to the role of part-time jobs as a reconciliation tool between work and family commitments (especially for women) or as an instruments for promoting young individuals' entry into the labour market. Hence, we offer a comprehensive picture of the main characteristics of part-timers trying to verifying whether family status really affect part-time choices of people aged 25 to 44, if there are differences between women and men attitudes, and what are the main differences and similarities among different European countries.

We, then, carry out a multivariate analysis that allows us to control for various determinants of part-time. With this aim, we estimate four binary probit models for each of the four countries and we, then, compare their results. In all the four models, the dependent variable is the "employment status" of workers, i. e., the choice between full-time employment versus part-time employment. It is widely know that this "choice" is influenced by a series of individual and household characteristics as well as by some characteristics of firms or industries. Considering that, and following the traditional empirical literature, we include within the explanatory variables the socio-economic characteristics of workers, the family status, and the sector of activity.

The analysis confirms the role of part-time as a reconciliation tool in Italy and Germany. The situation in Poland and Slovenia is less clear. The results of the analysis for these countries lead us to be cautious about the use of part-time for reconciling between work and family commitments. On the other side, an interesting and negative link between age and the probability of being part-timers is observed in Italy and Slovenia. The combination of this effect with those related to the educational level suggest that part-time can be also used for reasons not related to the existence of family ties.

The second contribution is related to the occurrence and features of flexible or "unstable" workers. In this second section, we define job instability as the complement for permanent job. More specifically, we consider as unstable the sub-sample of jobs regulated by fixed-term contracts and by atypical contracts without making distinction between part-time and full-time arrangements within each of the categories. Also in this case we start from a broad description of the main characteristics of unstable workers focused on the incidence of the gender dimension, of age and of different educational levels. Of course, our attention is also on the linkages between "unstable contracts" and family choices. The analysis has been carried out by considering at first unstable workers as a whole, and then by considering independently the two sub-samples of workers holding fixed term contracts and workers with atypical contracts.

We, then, identify the correlates of being unstable. More specifically, we estimate the determinants of being unstable versus having a permanent contract controlling for the gender dimension, the socio-economic characteristics of workers including risk propensity, the existence of unstable job history, and the socio-economic status of the family of origin. Of course, we control also for the relationship between being unstable and family status.

Anticipating the results of this section, with the only exception of Poland the probability of working as not regular employee or fixed-term employee is negatively affected by age, consistently with the hypothesis that

unstable contracts can be considered a tool for supporting young workers access into the labour market. Besides the age effect, the incidence of the educational level seems to be particularly relevant. The existence of a positive link between being unstable and having a high educational level, detected in all the countries but Poland, is in contrast with the experience of other advanced economies, like Usa and Canada, where lower educated workers are more likely to have a 'weak' position in the labour market, i.e. lower wages, longer and frequent unemployment spells or a high probably to be affected by job instability. Finally, the existence of an unstable job history is highly significant and positive. This confirms the existence of a risk of persistence into instability already highlighted in other analysis.

The structure of the chapter is the following. Section 2 presents the analysis of the linkages between part-time work and family status. In section 3 we present the results of our international comparison about determinants and characteristics of instability and family situation. Finally, section 4 concludes and draws policy recommendations.

Part-time employment

Part-time employment is nowadays recognised as an important instrument for allowing workers, and especially women, to deal with family commitments without necessarily going out from the labour market. Given our interest in the linkages between family status and employment situation, we devote the first section of this chapter to the analysis of part-time by addressing the following issues. Is part-time considered as a reconciliation tool in all the EU25 countries? Does the family status really affect employment choices of people aged 25 to 44 and specifically their choice between part-time and full time contracts? Are there differences between women and men attitudes? What are the differences and similarities among different European countries?

As a first step, we analyse data collected in the four cities of our survey in a comparative perspective, then we examine these data with those at the national level. As table 1 shows, the incidence of part-time employment as a proportion of total employment varies widely across our sample[59]. The highest incidence is in Hamburg, with part time employment accounting for 27% of total employment, and the lowest is in Ljubljana, where only less than 5% of total workers hold part time contracts. Part-time employment was equal to 19% of total employment in Rome and 13% in Warsaw. Concerning the situation at the national level, most of the countries, namely Germany, Italy and Poland, show a lower percentage of people working part-time. This trend is consistent with our expectations. Indeed, at the national level, we consider all the individuals in the labour forces (aged 15 to 64) including in the sample workers less affected by the need of reconciling between work and family. Very different is the situation in Slovenia, where part-time employment is higher at the national level than in Ljubljana.

Table 1 – Part-time employment and female employment rate

	Part-time employment as a proportion of total employment		Women's share in part-time employment		Women employment rate	
	Survey	National level*	Survey	National level*	Survey	National level*
GERMANY	27.0	24.0	73.7	81.4	77.1	59.6
ITALY	18.8	12.8	78.8	78.0	70.0	45.3
POLAND	13.3	10.8	58.3	66.5	76.7	46.8
SLOVENIA	4.7	9.0	55.4	na	84.8	61.3

Source: JIFT database; Eurostat (2006)
***Data are for people aged 15 to 64 and refer to 2005*

Women's share in part-time employment is higher in Hamburg and Rome, as well as in Germany and Italy, than in Warsaw and Ljubljana. In the specific case of Germany and Poland, there is also a positive difference between the situation at the national level and those in cities of our analysis. This difference suggests a wide use of part time employment for older (or younger) female workers.

We complete the picture by looking at other indicators, such as female employment rate and employment rate for women with and without children. Also in this case, as well as in part-time employment, the situation of Slovenia is peculiar. In 2006, the employment rate for women in Ljubljana, and in Slovenia also, was the highest in the sample (85% compared to 70% of Rome)[60]. In addition, Ljubljana is the only city with a higher female employment rate for women with children (91%) than for women without children (75%). On the contrary, in the other countries the pattern is the opposite, with a lower employment rate for women with children than for women without children (respectively 71% and 85% in Hamburg; 67% and 73% in Rome; 71% and 87% in Warsaw) (Table 2).

Data suggest some first remarks. Concerning the basic question of the correlation between family status and part-time employment, the four countries in the sample are characterised by very different situations. The biggest difference is between Slovenia and Germany. Indeed, if in Ljubljana part-time employment seems not to be crucial for promoting the already high women's employment rate, in Hamburg the occurrence of a high incidence of part-time employment, linked to a significant share of women in part-time employment, suggests a successful use of these kind of contracts as a tool for boosting female participation in the labour market. The situation of Rome is very close to Hamburg even though with both a lower female labour market participation and lower incidence of part-time. Finally, there is the case of Warsaw where the incidence of part-time is relatively high but associated to a modest employment rate for women, especially at the national level, and a modest share of women in part-time employment.

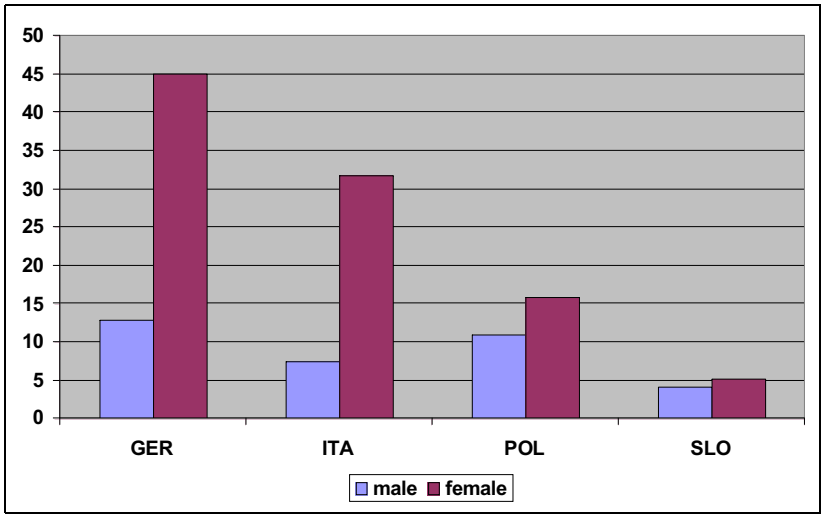
Table 2 – Total and part-time employment rate for women

	Women with children		Women without children	
	Total	Part-time	Total	Part-time
GERMANY	70.9	48.1	84.8	19.3
ITALY	67.0	26.6	72.8	18.6
POLAND	71.3	11.4	87.3	13.4
SLOVENIA	91.0	3.8	75.1	5.0

We complete the analysis of the linkages between part-time employment and female labour market participation by looking at the trend of these two variables during the last decade. As expected, in Germany both part-time employment and female employment rate increase monotonically with respect to 1991 when the incidence of part-time was 15.1% and the female employment rate 55.1%. A similar trend is confirmed in Italy where both women's employment rate and part-time employment for women were definitely lower at the beginning of the '90s (respectively 35.8% and 5.5% in 1991)[61]. On the contrary, the share of part-timers in total employment has not changed in Poland: it was 10.7% of total workers in 1997 (the first year for which data are available) and 10.3% in 2003. This incidence is very similar to those of Southern European countries and quite high if compared to the other Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries.

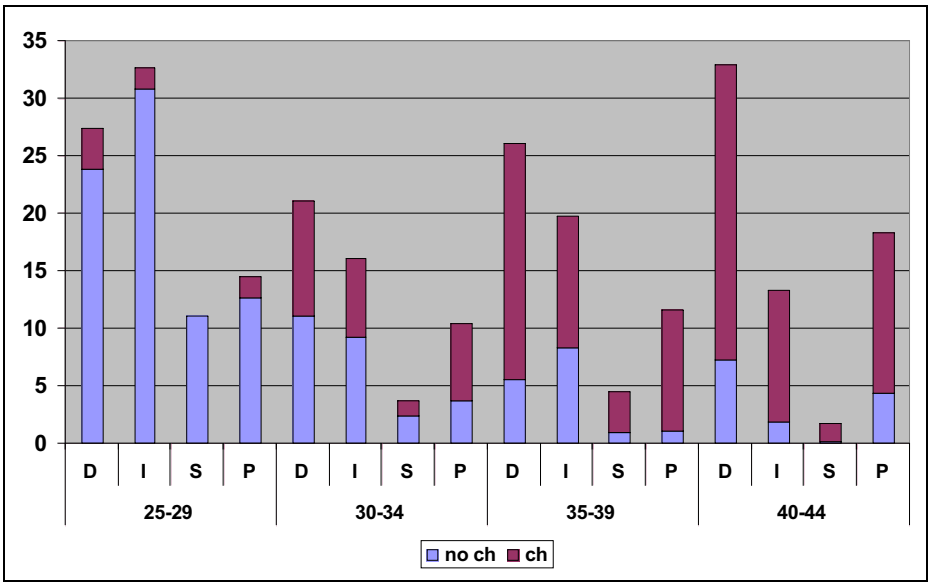
CEECs and EU15 countries show a different situation also with regard to the gender dimension of part-time employment. Indeed, although women are more often employed as part-time comparing to men in all the four countries of our sample, the difference among men and women is definitively smaller in Poland and Slovenia than in Germany and Italy (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Part-time as a percentage of total employment



Finally, we disaggregated the share of part-timers by age taking also into account the role of having children (Fig. 2). The four countries are, all, characterised by a high incidence of part-timers among the younger workers (aged 25-29) without children. Part-timers slightly decrease within the 30-34 age class, then increase. The percentage of part-times having children raises also. The increasing percentage of part-timers with children, especially for workers aged 30 or more, seems to support the traditional view of part-time employment as a tool for reconciliation between work and family life. Nevertheless, data show that part-time is also widely widespread among younger workers without children in all the countries. This suggests that it can be also used as a way for entering in the labour market or combining economic activity with education.

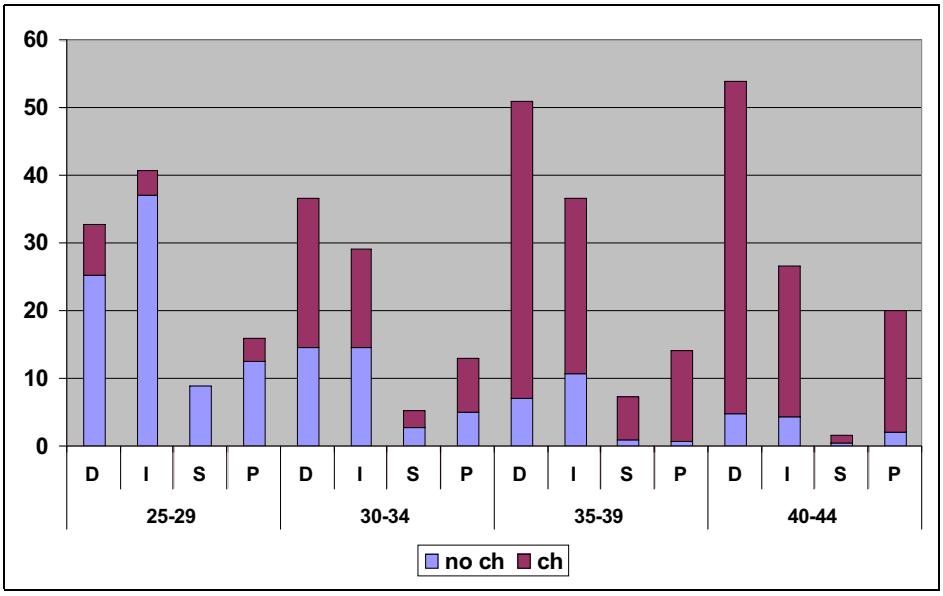
Figure 2. Part-time by age classes and presence of children (total)



The sub-sample of women workers needs some specific remarks. In Germany, the incidence of part-time employment among women increases monotonically with age, involving about 50% of total female workers aged 35-44, of which more than 85% with children. This trend confirms the use of part-time, in this country, mainly as a reconciliation tool. In other countries, data validate also the double role of part-time as an instrument for entering into the labour market. The use of part-time for younger worker is stronger in Italy where the percentage of part-timers is very high among younger women workers without children. This result is consistent with the picture emerging from other empirical analysis that underlines how, despite the robust relationship between female part time employment and family ties is confirmed for all the EU members, it is relatively weaker in the Southern EU countries (Boeri et al., 2005). The spreading of part-time employment must, then, be explained also by other factors.

Consistently with the empirical literature (Boeri et al., 2005), data confirm part time work as being mainly the result of a voluntary choice with very low or even missing difference between men and women. About 80% of people working part-time in Poland and 87% of part-timers in Germany and Slovenia have chosen this kind of contract. This is also the case for 68% of part-timers in Italy.

Figure 3. Part-time by age classes and presence of children (women)



What lies behind part-time work?

In order to identify the determinants of part-time employment, either for all workers or for the specific case of women, we have to consider the role of many variables. In addition, most of these variables are strictly related to each other or can have a mutual influence in explaining how working age individuals choose their labour market status (i.e the choice among working part-time versus working full-time). In order to investigate the role of these variables in influencing part-time employment we carry out a multivariate analysis that allow us to control for various determinants of part-time at the same time. Of course, coefficients of our regression represent only partial correlations since, given the smallness of our sample we can not control for endogeneity and causality. However, despite these well-known shortcomings, the multivariate analysis allows us to assess the role of some specific variables after having controlled for possible composition effects.

The objective of this section is to add some insights to the descriptive analysis. The focus is on two specific issues: the incidence of part-time employment as a reconciliation tool between work and family commitments and the use of part-time as a tool for young workers to entry in the labour market or bringing together

work and education. With this aim, we estimate four binary probit models for each of the four countries and we, then, compare their results. In all the four models, the dependent variable is the "employment status" of workers, i.e., the choice between full-time employment versus part-time employment. It is widely know that this "choice" is influenced by a series of individual and household characteristics as well as by some characteristics of firms or industries. Considering that, and following the traditional empirical literature, we include as explanatory variables: dummies related to workers characteristics (gender, age, and educational level); variables for family status, such as the presence of a cohabiting partner, a proxy for the economic status given by a categorical variable measuring the difficulty in saving, a variable for self-perception of the capacity of conciliating. We checked also for the incidence of being employed in the private sector and we, finally, considered the incidence of having children[62].

The results of the models, reported in Table 2, confirm the existence of two different patterns among the four countries of our analysis. A first pattern is observed for Germany and Italy, where the probability of working part-time is highly related to the set of explanatory variables; whilst a different situation emerges in the case of Poland and Slovenia that are, both, characterized by a more complex situation.

More specifically, with regard to our first question, the hypothesis of part-time employment as a tool for reconciliation between work and family ties is confirmed in Germany and Italy. In both these countries, the coefficients for family situation and gender dimension are relevant and statistically significant: workers with children are, respectively, 14% and 7% more likely to work part-time than workers without children and being women raises this probability of holding a part-time job of 30% in Germany and 22% in Italy. The association between family status and part-time employment is confirmed also by the positive and statistically significant coefficient for the dummy related to the difficulty in saving, a proxy for the household income. The lower is the disposable income, the higher is the probability of working part-time. Meaning that turning to part-time employment can be considered as a way for dealing with family commitments when making use of other, more expensive, way of reconciliation, such as private childcare institutes, are not affordable. Working in the private sector is associated with a 15% higher probability of being part-timers. This can be explained by the tighter working rules or less flexibility typical of this sector that do not allow workers to manage to bring together work and family commitments if employed full-time, stimulating as a consequence the recourse to part-time contracts.

Table 3. Correlates of part-time employment in four EU25 countries

	dF/dx			
	Germany	**Italy**	**Poland**	**Slovenia**
female	0.300***	0.222***	0.060**	0.005
30-34	-0.069*	-0.135***	-0.017	-0.019*
35-39	-0.036	-0.094**	-0.031	-0.019*
40-44	0.010	-0.144 ***	0.026	-0.032**
medium educational level	0.179***	-0.077**	-0.101	0.838***
high educational level	0.115**	-0.065	-0.232	0.392***
private	0.029	0.149***	0.029	-0.024**
living with partner	0.013	-0.014	0.048**	-0.011
difficulty in saving	0.127***	0.068***	0.024	0.000
conciliation capacity	0.034	0.043	0.044*	0.010
children	0.136***	0.072**	-0.054*	-0.007

weighted robust estimation

* *dF/dx is the marginal effect of changes in control variables; for dummy variable dF/dx is the marginal effect of a discrete change from 0 to 1.*

The incidence of the gender dimension in the probability of being part-timer is detected also in Poland, even tough with a lower impact (being woman increases the probability of working part-time only of 7%). However, when we add to the picture the role of having children, the linkages between part-time employment and family situation becomes unclear. Indeed, the small and negative impact of having children on the probability of working part-time leads us to be cautious about the use part-time employment as a reconciliation tool supporting the results of previous empirical analysis.

Finally, the case of Slovenia is confirmed as peculiar. In this country, none of the coefficients for the family situation is significant, neither is significant the gender dimension. On the contrary, the combined role of education and age is relevant. The probability of working part-time decreases with age and raises with education (it is highest for people with a medium educational level) suggesting not only that part-time employment is mainly used by young people but also that the reasons behind this choice are linked to the need of reconciling work and study.

A significant and negative role of age is found out also in Italy. However, in this case the combined positive effect of education is not verified. Having a medium educational level decreases the probability of working part-time, whilst being highly educated does not imply significant changes with respect to the omitted category (workers with the lowest educational level). Young workers are more likely to work part-time than old workers are. However, given the coefficients for the educational level, this seems not linked to the need of conciliation between working and studying. Therefore, in this case part time can be considered as a way for young individuls to entry into the labour market.

Job instability and family choices

During the '90s the EU countries implemented a wide set of reforms aiming at enhancing labour markets flexibility[63]. These reforms, strongly supported by the most important international institutions (i.e EU and OECD), followed a wide empirical and theoretical debate that suggested the existence of a negative relationship between labour market rigidities and labour market outcomes (among others, OECD, 1986; Bentolila and Bertola 1990; Bentolila and Dolado 1994, Bertola and Rogerson, 1997). According to this literature, labour market rigidities determined the economic stagnation of the nineties (especially considering the differences between US and EU) and led to the difficult labour market situation of EU economies, characterized by a high long duration unemployment rate and by an excess of youth over total unemployment.

The focus of this literature was on different aspects. On one hand, it stressed the role of wage competition. As pointed out by Blanchard and Wolfers (2000), macroeconomic shocks were largely common across all industrial countries. Productivity growth slowed down in the early 1970, the oil price increased in the 1970s and early 1980s. In the 1980s and 1990s, globalisation and technological change reduced demand for unskilled labour and stability-oriented macroeconomic policies were implemented by most OECD countries, which experienced large falls in inflation. However, the outcomes of macroeconomic shocks on labour market were different. Unemployment rates remained low in labour markets where such developments accommodated by changes in absolute and relative real wages, but surged where negative labour demand shocks were faced by high, rising, and compressed real wages.

On the other hand, the attention was on the effects of high firing and hiring costs. In particular, the impact of firing costs on employment and labour market flows has been thoroughly analysed in a number of important contributions. These studies show an ambiguous impact of more stringent employment protection on the level of overall employment but a negative impact on labour flows (Bentolila and Bertola, 1990; Bentolila and Saint-Paul, 1992; Bentolila e Dolado, 1994; Garibaldi, 1998; Hopenhayn and Rogerson, 1993; Millard and Mortensen, 1997). An increasing attention was also devoted to the impact of more flexible hiring policies, as the provision of fixed-duration contracts. The effects of the implementation of these policies are equivalent to those of a lowering in firing costs (Cahuc and Postel-Vinay, 2002). However, as many authors emphasized, more flexible hiring policies can reduce unemployment without harming the so-called "insid-

ers", protected by high job security (Bentolila and Dolado, 1994; Saint Paul, 1996; Cabrales and Hopenhayn, 1997; Blanchard and Landier, 2002).

As mentioned before, this debate was carried out also at the institutional level. The EU stressed the need of making labour market more flexible and more responsive to changing demand and supply conditions since 1997 with the adoption of the European Employment Strategy (EES)[64]. The EES has been an important step towards a co-ordinated strategy for employment focused on the promotion of a skilled, trained and adaptable workforce and on flexible labour markets. The principles of EES were reinforced with the adoption, in 2000, of the Lisbon Strategy that, among the main goals, aimed at securing more flexibility and adaptability in the labour market by rising educational and skill level and pursuing active labour market policies. As stressed by the High Level Group charged of the mid-term review of the achievements of the Lisbon strategy, flexibility should be considered as agility, adaptability and employability. The key for flexibility is the combination of the ability for workers to acquire and renew skills, the provision of active labour market policies and training and social support to make moving from job to job as easy as possible[65] (Kok, 2004).

At the national level, the governments of most of the EU countries implemented a wide set of reforms aiming at increasing flexibility. This process is witnessed by the evolution of the Employment Protection Legislation (EPL) index (Table 4). This index, built by the OECD by weighting three main components (the legislation concerning regular employment[66], temporary employment and collective dismissal), represents a measure of the strictness of labour market legislation[67]. The EPL index decreases in most of the EU countries, meaning that reforms increased both hiring and firing flexibility in the EU labour markets. As far as the countries of our analysis are concerned, data show a significant decrease in the EPL index in Germany and Italy and a slight increase in Poland (data for Slovenia are not available). More specifically, the overall index decreased in Germany from 3.2 in the late '80s to 2.2 in 2003 and in Italy from 3.6 to 1.9. A stronger reduction characterized the temporary employment legislation index that, during the same period declined from 3.8 to 1.8 in Germany and from 5.4 to 2.1 in Italy.

These big changes in labour market policies stimulated a strong effort to evaluate their effects on labour market outcomes. The focus was, in particular, on the effect of more flexible contractual arrangements, such as fixed-term or temporary contracts. According to this literature, even though temporary contracts may provide an instrument to increase labour market flexibility, being a "stepping stone" into longer employment relationship (Booth et al. 2002a), they often imply important drawbacks. Firstly, temporary workers are subject to higher both turnover and probability of unemployment (Dolado *et al*. 2002; Farber, 1999) since fixed-term contract expire automatically at the end of the agreed period. Secondly, there is evidence of the existence of a wage gap between permanent and temporary workers with the latter earning less that the former (Jimeno and Toharia, 1993; Booth et al., 2002b; Blanchard and Landier, 2001; Brown and Sessions, 2003; Hagen, 2002; Picchio, 2006)[68]. Thirdly, investments in human capital and training are lower for temporary workers than for permanent (Booth et al., 2002a). Further, negative effects have been detected, also, with regard to workers' health with temporary workers being more likely to undergo work accident (Benavides et al., 2000, Guadalupe, 2003). In addition, even the role of temporary jobs as stepping stone into permanent jobs is not always confirmed. What should be considered, at this regard, is the negative effect of persistence in temporary contracts. Indeed, if the probability of moving from a temporary to a permanent job increases with the duration of contracts, it decreases with repeated temporary jobs and especially with interruptions (Gagliarducci, 2005).

Table 4. EPL index for some of the EU countries

	Temporary Employment legislation index			Overall Index (Version 1)		
	Late 1990s	Late 1990s	2003	Late 1980s	Late 1990s	2003
Austria	1.5	1.5	1.5	2.2	2.2	1.9
Belgium	4.6	2.6	2.6	3.2	2.2	2.2
Czech Republic	..	0.5	0.5	..	1.9	1.9
Denmark	3.1	1.4	1.4	2.3	1.4	1.4
France	3.1	3.6	3.6	2.7	3	3
Germany	3.8	2.3	1.8	3.2	2.5	2.2
Greece	4.8	4.8	3.3	3.6	3.5	2.8
Hungary	..	0.6	1.1	..	1.3	1.5
Ireland	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1
Italy	5.4	3.6	2.1	3.6	2.7	1.9
Netherlands	2.4	1.2	1.2	2.7	2.1	2.1
Poland	. .	0.8	1.3	. .	1.5	1.7
Portugal	3.4	3	2.8	4.1	3.7	3.5
Slovak Republic	. .	1.1	0.4	. .	2.4	1.9
Spain	3.8	3.3	3.5	3.8	2.9	3.1
Sweden	4.1	1.6	1.6	3.5	2.2	2.2
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7

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Besides the increasing flexibility, during the last decade labour markets witnessed a significant increase in the perceived job instability (OECD, 1997). Consequently, job instability became the emerging issues of the debate among academics and researchers with the basic question starting from whether jobs had become less stable. The evidence of these studies is mixed. Some studies, mainly referred to the experience in the US, confirm the increase in job instability (Gottschalk and Moffitt 1999; Rose, 1995; Marcotte, 1995; Boisjoly et al., 1998), whilst others conclude that trends in job changing were relatively flat and only some demographic subgroups have experienced rising instability[69].

Job instability became the new challenge also for policy makers. This was completed by a specific attention to the increase in perceived job insecurity and by a growing awareness of the need of dealing with these two arising issues[70]. In Europe, the focus shifted from flexibility to the right balance between flexibility and security. The EU stressed the relevance of jointly consider these two elements in the New Lisbon Strategy (COM 2005/24) where the role of adaptability was also highlighted. According to the EU, more flexibility combined with security requires a greater ability of workers and enterprises to anticipate, trigger and absorb changes. A further step was the introduction of the new concept of flexicurity. The notion of flexicurity comes from the observation that some European countries, notably the Netherlands and Denmark, were more successful than others in combining an optimal degree of flexibility and security and in assuring a good performance of the labour market. Flexicurity is a comprehensive approach to labour market policy that combines enough flexibility in contractual arrangements – to allow firms and employees to cope with shocks - with the provision of security for workers to stay in their job or be able to find a new one quickly with the assurance of an adequate income between jobs. In this framework, the EU supports policies like lifelong learning, active labour market policies and a adequate levels of social protection (EU, 2005).

Concerning the consequences of job instability and job insecurity, there is an emerging interest in the possible linkages between more flexible, or more unstable, labour markets and family choices. The effect of job insecurity on youth's decisions of emancipation has been recently detected (Becker *et al*. 2005). However, to our knowledge the analysis of the correlation between job instability, or job insecurity, and the decision of having a family is still not sufficiently developed and the empirical evidence collected so far is not yet enough to derive clear cut conclusions.

This section tries to fill this gap by offering a contribution to the analysis of this issue. More specifically, we present a comparative picture of unstable workers in the four countries of our analysis. Then we investi-

gate whether, and how, workers with unstable jobs differ from those holding stable jobs. Our interest is in identifying the individual characteristics of these workers, such as gender, age, educational level, and family background. We also look for common trends and main differences among different EU countries. We, finally, focus on the linkages between unstable jobs, job history and family status.

Before moving to the analysis, it is worth specifying what we consider as unstable jobs. Indeed, the growing attention that is paid to this topic within academic and institutional circles, as well as within the media, is often associated with a lack of a single, commonly accepted, definition and measure for job instability. In many cases, job instability is defined by moving from the definition of the opposite concept of job stability with which researchers usually refer to the duration of jobs, without considering the reasons for increasing or decreasing duration[71]. On the other side, job security refers to the extent to which job separations are involuntary or to the perception of insecurity[72].

Most of these measures are based on the basic hypothesis that job instability is mainly linked to a higher probability of loosing job. Consequently, in most of the cases, the "insiders" are their reference group. However, the reforms that have been recently implemented pertained also to the hiring policies entailing big changes across the margins. The higher flexibility in the hiring policies and the resulting proliferation of temporary contracts brought to the analysis a new aspect of job instability.

According to this setting, we define job instability as the complement for permanent job. More specifically, we define as unstable the sub-sample of jobs regulated by fixed-term contracts and by atypical contracts without making distinction between part-time and full-time arrangements within each of the categories[73]. Therefore, we compare the sub-sample of workers with these contracts with regular employees with permanent contracts. The variable is built on the basis of individual self-declaration about the kind of contracts they hold.

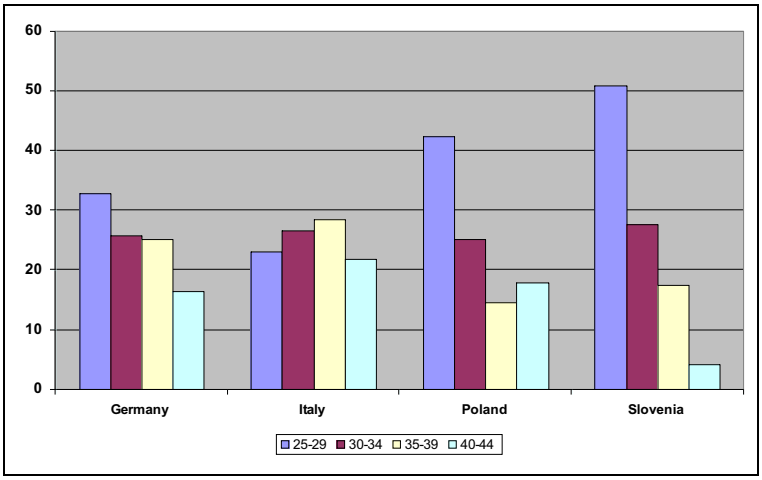
Table 5 shows the incidence of unstable jobs in the four countries of our analysis by gender. The highest occurrence of unstable workers is in Italy and Poland, where about one out of four workers has an unstable job; this percentage is 16% in Germany and Slovenia. In all the four countries unstable jobs involve mainly women. However, the extent of the gender differences varies widely. Slovenia is characterised by very small differences between men and women (the incidence of unstable workers for men is 15.6% and for women 17.0%), higher differences are present in Germany (14.2% and 18.3%) and Poland (20.1% and 26.4%) and the largest is in Italy, where unstable jobs involved 19.7% of total male workers and 30.3% of female workers.

Table 5 - Unstable job as a proportion of total employment by gender

	Male	Female	Total
Germany	14.2	18.3	**16.0**
Italy	19.7	30.3	**24.6**
Poland	20.1	26.4	**23.2**
Slovenia	15.6	17.0	**16.3**

Since unstable jobs have been supported as a tool for increasing individuals' entry into the labour market and, above all, young workers inclusion, we expected to find a strong prevalence of young people holding these kinds of contracts and a very little incidence of older workers. This trend is confirmed by the distribution of unstable jobs among age classes for all the countries of our analysis with the only exception of Italy (Figure 4). Indeed, if in Germany, Poland and Slovenia, respectively about 30%, 40% and 50% of unstable workers are aged 25 to 29, in Italy this percentage is only 20%.

Figure 4 –Distribution of unstable jobs among age classes



* *in this graph, we consider only the sub-sample of unstable. We, then, look at the distribution of this group by age classes.*

In addition, the distribution of unstable jobs among age classes, that in Germany, Poland, and Slovenia decreased with age, shows in Italy an increasing trend until workers are 39 years old. Still, 20% of unstable workers are within the 40-44 age class.

The situation of Italy is particular also when we consider the two sub-samples of people working with fixed-term contracts and people working with atypical contracts independently. As far as fixed term contracts are concerned, the differences among the four countries are quite small (Table 6). The incidence of fixed-term jobs ranges from 10.3% in Germany to 16.4% in Poland with a small prevalence of women in all the countries but Germany. On the contrary, concerning the percentage of workers with atypical jobs, Italy shows a peculiarity. Atypical jobs account in Italy for 11% of total workers, with an incidence that is almost double comparing to those in the other countries. They reach almost 16% for the sub-sample of women, compared with 8% of Germany and Poland and 3% of Slovenia.

Table 6 – Fixed-term and atypical contracts as a proportion of total employment

	Fixed-Term			Atypical		
	Male	**Female**	***Total***	**Male**	**Female**	***Total***
GERMANY	10.3	10.3	***10.3***	3.9	8.0	***5.7***
ITALY	12.5	14.6	***13.4***	7.2	15.7	***11.2***
POLAND	14.7	18.2	***16.4***	5.4	8.2	***6.8***
SLOVENIA	10.9	13.6	***12.2***	4.7	3.4	***4.1***

A possible explanation for this trend is related to the wide process of reform implemented during the last few years in the Italian labour market (see Part I, ch. 3, § 3.1.1). These reforms, adopted in 1997 and in 2003, introduced, among others, many flexible contractual arrangements (mostly temporary) and, in particular, several types of relationships termed as "dependent self-employment" or "dependent outsourcing"[74] (ILO, 2003). The relevance of changes in hiring policies in Italy and the focus on boosting flexibility across the board through the adoption of temporary and atypical contracts is confirmed also by the dramatic decline of the temporary employment legislation that we discussed before.

This peculiarity claims for further investigations. With this aim we compare the incidence of fixed-term

contracts and atypical contracts by age classes and educational level in all the countries in our sample (Table 7 and Table 8). For all of them, the incidence of unstable jobs in total jobs decreases monotonically with age. However, there is a big difference between the situation in Slovenia, from one side, and Italy, from the other side. In Slovenia the reduction in the incidence of unstable jobs on total jobs is particularly significant already between the first and the second age class. In this country unstable workers account for 12% of total workers aged 25-29 and only for 4% of those aged 30-34 (3% and no incidence in the following classes). On the other side, in Italy, despite a significant reduction, the incidence of unstable jobs remain high also among worker within the 30-34 and 35-39 age classes in which nearly 1 workers out of 4 work has unstable contracts. Within these two bounds there are Germany and Poland.

Concerning the role of the educational level, Italy and Germany show a similar path with unstable contracts increasing with educational level. Among workers with a low educational level, the percentage of people working with unstable contracts is 10% in Germany and 18% in Italy. This percentage increases to 15% in Germany and 29% in Italy among highly educated workers. In Poland and Slovenia the highest incidence is among workers with a medium educational level.

Table 7 - Incidence of unstable jobs by age classes

		25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44
Germany	*Fixed Term*	18.2	12.0	9.7	6.2
	Atypical	2.6	1.0	0.9	0.5
	Total	***20.8***	***13.0***	***10.6***	***6.7***
Italy	*Fixed Term*	20.1	15.0	15.2	7.5
	Atypical	32.6	11.7	8.7	3.2
	Total	***52.7***	***26.7***	***23.9***	***10.7***
Poland	*Fixed Term*	24.7	13.7	7.3	2.4
	Atypical	9.9	6.0	5.9	4.6
	Total	***34.6***	***19.7***	***13.2***	***7.0***
Slovenia	*Fixed Term*	31..6	13.7	7.3	2.4
	Atypical	12.1	3.7	3.0	0.0
	Total	***12.1***	***3.7***	***3.0***	***0.0***

Table 8 - Incidence of unstable jobs by educational level

		Low	Medium	High
Germany	*Fixed Term*	9.5	9.2	13.4
	Atypical	0.6	1.3	1.6
	Total	***10.1***	***10.5***	***15.0***
Italy	*Fixed Term*	8.5	12.3	16.2
	Atypical	9.4	10.4	12.6
	Total	***17.9***	***22.7***	***28.8***
Poland	*Fixed Term*	0.0	20.7	14.2
	Atypical	16.9	9.3	5.3
	Total	***16.9***	***30.0***	***19.5***
Slovenia	*Fixed Term*	0.0	11.9	13.1
	Atypical	0.0	7.2	2.4
	Total	***0.0***	***7.2***	***2.4***

Determinants of working with unstable contracts

We, then, estimate four probit models for the four countries. The estimation of these modes allows us to asses the impact of the different observable workers characteristics on the probability of working with unstable contracts by controlling for possible composition effects[75]. The aim of these models is to identify the characteristics that make workers more likely to hold unstable contracts. A particular attention has been paid to the effect of job history and the role of family status. More specifically, we estimate the determinants of being unstable versus having a permanent contract[76] controlling for the gender dimension, age, educational level, a proxy for workers' income (given by a categorical variable for the difficulty in saving), a variable for the risk propensity, the existence of unstable job history, and the socio-economic status of the family of origin. Of course, we control also for the relationship between being unstable and having children (Table 9).

The gender dimension does not affect the probability of being unstable. Comparing to men, women are slightly more likely to work with unstable contracts only in Poland (on average and *ceteris paribus* the probability is only 1% higher), whilst for the other three countries, the coefficient for gender is not significant. A significant and negative relationship is found out for age. In this case, the reported marginal effects are largely consistent with the hypothesis of the use of unstable contracts as a tool to support young workers access into the labour market. This trend is verified in all the countries of our analysis with the only exception of Poland, where age has no effect on the probability of being unstable.

Table 9 - Estimated probability of being employed with unstable contracts

	dF/dx			
	Germany	**Italy**	**Poland**	**Slovenia**
female	-0.003	-0.010	0.090**	0.123
30-34	-0.059*	-0.132***	-0.041	-0.070***
35-39	-0.064**	-0.091**	-0.047	-0.093***
40-44	-0.091**	-0.167***	-0.055	-0.144***
medium educational level	0.029	0.001	-0.085	0.991***
high educational level	0.099***	0.115**	-0.266***	0.829***
difficulty in saving	0.044**	0.047*	0.043**	0.030**
risk propensity	0.005	-0.024	-0.008	0.004
instable job history	0.037***	0.136***	0.150***	0.048***
family's socio-economic status	-0.012	-0.050	-0.102**	-0.014
children	0.008	-0.075*	-0.081*	-0.063*

weighted robust estimation

** dF/dx is the marginal effect of changes in control variables; for dummy variable dF/dx is the marginal effect of a discrete change from 0 to 1.*

The probability of being unstable is affected also by the educational level. In particular, coefficients for the highest educational level are statistically significant in all the estimations even tough the direction of their impact is different. In Germany, Italy and Slovenia, the higher the education attained, the higher the probability of working with fixed term or atypical contracts. Respectively, workers with high educational level (degree, advanced degree or PhD) are 10%, 11% and 83% more likely to work with unstable contracts than workers with primary educational level. The opposite trend is observed only in Poland where having attained a high educational level, on average and *ceteris paribus*, decreases the probability of being an unstable worker of 27%. The existence of a positive relationship between educational attainment and unstable job for three

out of four EU countries deserves a specific attention. According to the empirical literature based on the US or Canadian experience, we expected lower educated workers being more likely to work with unstable contracts. Usually, within educational groups, median tenure, that is considered as a proxy for stability, declines among men and women with less than a high school diploma, perhaps because of rising skill requirements for more stable jobs. The occurrence of an opposite trend in some of the EU countries asks for further investigations in order to better define the determinants of this odd labour market behaviour.

Difficulties in saving raise the probability of being unstable in all the countries. The impact ranges from 30% in Slovenia to 47% in Italy. Since we consider this variable as a proxy for the workers income level, we can say that having a low income level is linked to a high probability of working as unstable. This can be the effect of a lower opportunity for people with a lower income, or with a lower possibility of saving, of waiting for a better job.

Another variable highly significant in all the estimations is the existence of an unstable job history (or higher mobility as measured by the number of contract changes during the last three years). The effect of having experienced a higher instability in the past is positive. The highest influence is in Poland and Italy, where people with an unstable job history are, respectively 15% and 14% more likely to be unstable. This result is consistent with the findings of Gagliarducci (2005) that stressed the negative influence of the past experience of instability on the current working status. In the four countries, risk propensity exerts no influence on the probability of being employed with unstable contracts. This finding is particularly relevant, since it allows us to reject the hypothesis of a self-selection of individuals with a high level of risk propensity in unstable jobs. We can assert that, at least for this aspect, the status of unstable workers is not a choice due to the specific attitude of unstable workers.

Concerning the effect of the family status on the probability of being unstable, we focus on both the impact of socio-economic status of the family of origin and the effect the presence of children. The relationship between the family background and the probability of working with unstable contracts is significant and negative only in Poland. For the other three countries there is not impact. Once again the determinant seems not to be linked to the characteristics of workers but to be driven by the labour market characteristics.

Finally, the relationship between having children and working as unstable is negative and significant in Italy, Poland, and Slovenia with the effect ranging from -6% to -8%. Therefore, being an unstable worker is associated to a lower probability of having children. Unfortunately, we can not control for the direction of causality between the two variables since we don't have the possibility of using valuable instrumental variables or natural experiments. However, despite this limit, we can state that the existence of such as link between the working status and the family choices, or better, the fertility decisions, seems to be particularly relevant.

The results of the analysis have, then, been completed by considering a subjective variable for instability. With this aim, we refer to the question submitted to all workers about their self-perception of precariousness. As expected, the objective variable for instability and the variable for self-perception of precariousness are highly correlated. As table 10 shows, most of people perceiving themselves as a precarious worker are unstable. This percentage goes over 80% in Italy and is near to 70% in Poland. Even in Slovenia, where the incidence of unstable among people feeling themselves precarious in the labour market is low, 42% of precarious are unstable.

Table 10 –Distribution of workers with a self-perception of precariousness by "stable" and "unstable"

Germany		Italy		Poland		Slovenia	
Stable	***Unstable***	***Stable***	***Unstable***	***Stable***	***Unstable***	***Stable***	***Unstable***
na	na	16.2	83.8	31.5	68.5	57.6	42.4

The strong relationship between being unstable and perceiving a feeling of precariousness is confirmed also by the coefficients of the probit models where the dependent variable is the probability of having a self-perception of precariousness[77]. The dummy coefficient for holding an unstable contract, that we add at the regression, is significant and positive in all the three countries that we analysed (Table 11). Having unstable contracts increases the probability of precariousness by 13% in Poland, 26% in Slovenia, and 48% in Italy. In general, the variables that we identify are less able to explain the feeling of precariousness than job instability, especially for Poland and Slovenia.

Table 11 –Correlates of precariousness

	dF/dx		
	Italy	**Poland**	**Slovenia**
female	0.168***	0.149	-0.017
30-34	-0.058	-0.019	-0.038
35-39	-0.069	0.029	0.071
40-44	-0.171	0.074**	0.022
medium educational level	0.000	0.004	0.085
high educational level	0.016	-0.042	0.047
difficulty in saving	0.102***	0.008	0.024
risk propensity	-0.024	-0.012	-0.001
unstable job history	0.066***	0.001	0.016
having unstable contract	0.480***	0.127***	0.264***
family's socio-economic status	0.077**	-0.056***	-0.036
children	-0.140***	-0.052***	-0.005

** dF/dx is the marginal effect of changes in control variables; for dummy variable dF/dx is the marginal effect of a discrete change from 0 to 1.*

Concerning the impact of the different set of variables, the gender dimension is relevant only in Italy, where being woman raises precariousness by 17%. Age and educational level have no impact on the perception of precariousness with the only exception of a modest, positive higher probability (7%) to feel themselves as precarious workers for people aged 40 to 44 in Poland. In Italy, the feeling of precariousness is positively related to the difficulty in saving, meaning that the lack of an adequate income has a relevance as determinant of precariousness. A positive and significant impact is also associated at the existence of an unstable job history. The feeling of being an unstable workers is 7% higher for workers characterised by a high mobility during the past three years.

The socio-economic status of the family of origin is also positively associated with the feeling of precariousness. The higher is the socio-economic background of workers, the higher their feeling of precariousness. This result, which at a quick look can be puzzling, can be explained by the difficulty that workers can meet in reaching the same socio-economic status of their family of origin. An opposite link is found out in Poland, where coming from a family with a high socio-economic status decreases the probability of precariousness by 6%. Finally, both in Italy and in Poland the feeling of precariousness is negatively associated with having children.

Conclusions and recommandations

This chapter has investigated the linkages between labour market careers and family situation in four big cities across different EU countries, Hamburg (Germany), Rome (Italy), Warsaw (Poland) and Ljubljana (Slovenia) by looking, specifically, at the linkages between part-time employment and job instability, from one hand, and family choices, from the other hand.

Part time employment

Over the last decade, there has been a greater recognition of the role of part-time work as a tool for promoting labour market participation of under-represented groups. In particular, the use of part-time contracts, especially for women, has been considered as an answer to the need of reconciliation between work and family commitments. Consequently, we expected to detect a high women's share in part-time employment, a more widespread use of part-time among women with children and, more generally, an high correlation between part-time employment and family ties.

This hypothesis has been only partially confirmed. The gender dimension is significant in three out of four countries, namely, Germany, Italy, and Poland where women are more likely to work with part-time contracts than men are. However, the presence of children is positively related with part-time work only in Germany and Italy. This allows us to conclude that a clear link between family commitments and part-time employment is verified only in these two countries, where a negative correlation between part-time employment and family economic situation has been also found out. This suggests that the choice of working part-time can be considered as a possible option when childcare public services are not enough and the use of private childcare or other structures to support family commitments is difficult because of its costs. In addition, in Italy the existence of a strong a positive link between working part-time and being employed in the private sector deserve a specific mention.

On the contrary, the results of the analysis are less clear in the case of Poland and Slovenia. Indeed, the two New EU Member States are characterised not only by a slight prevalence of women in total part-timers but also by a lower part-time employment rate for women with children than for women without children. More specifically, in Slovenia part-time employment is strongly related to age and educational level. Young people are more likely to work part-time than older people are. In addition, the highest probability of working part-time is found out among individuals with medium educational level suggesting that part-time employment can be used by these sub-sample of individuals (young people with a medium educational level) to cope with the need of reconciling work and study in order to complete their tertiary educational attainment. A mixed picture emerges in Poland. In this country the gender dimension is confirmed and women are more likely to work part-time than men. However, the probability of working part-time is higher for women with a co-habiting partner and negatively related to the presence of children.

Finally, in Italy we detect a significant and negative correlation between age and the probability of working part-time. This suggest the need of more specific analysis aiming at verifying whether the use of part-time might be considered as a tool for promoting young individuals entry into the labour market.

The emerging picture can be summarized by saying that countries in the EU differ in term of the extent to which part-time is related to existence of family ties and reconciliation needs. This relationship is actually at work, even though with different degrees, for Northern and Southern EU countries and mixed for the New EU Member States. In this latter case, part-time employment seems to be related either with the need of young individuals of working and studying, as in Slovenia or with some structural characteristics of the labour market that influence mainly women participation.

Job instability

Nowadays job instability is one of the emerging issues within the current academic and institutional debate. The focus is, specifically, on the need to avoid that flexibility introduced into the EU labour market during the last decade can translate in higher job instability and in a consequent feeling of job insecurity. The attention to this issue is stronger when the outcomes of more unstable labour market situation affect individuals' decision about emancipating and having family. The risk is twofold. From one hand, unstable jobs instead of being essentially a tool for promoting young individuals entry into the labour market can become a "structural characteristic" of EU labour markets. From the other hand, more unstable labour markets can be related to the low fertility rate that characterised most of the EU countries.

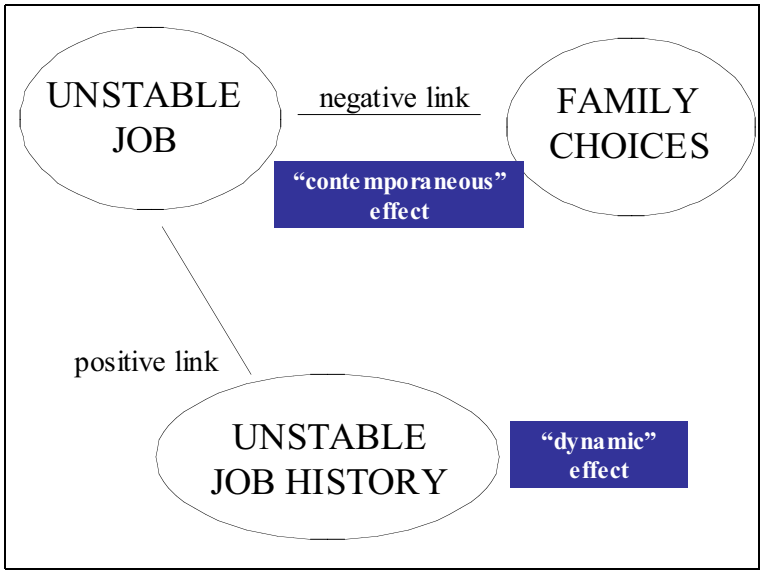
Concerning the first issue, if unstable jobs are essentially a tool for increasing individuals' entry into the labour market and, above all, young workers inclusion, we expected to find a strong prevalence of young people with unstable contracts and a very little incidence of older workers. This trend is confirmed in Germany, Poland, and Slovenia but not in Italy where, on the contrary, unstable workers are almost equally distributed among age classes, with a slight preponderance of people aged 35 to 39. The situation of Italy raises some concerns because it shows a high incidence of job instability even within the adults. In this country, the stabilization into the labour market occurs only at the adult age when family and fertility choices should have been already made.

Another worrying result of our analysis is related to the role of the educational level. Three out of four countries (Italy, Germany, and Poland) show a positive relationship between educational attainments and unstable jobs. These results are in contrast with the evidence emerging from the empirical literature on the experience of Canada and US where the higher probability of instability was among workers with lower educational level. The picture emerging from the analysis is puzzling. Indeed, from one side, the Lisbon strategy underlines the relevance of innovation and knowledge stressing the role of human capital as an important factor for boosting growth. From the other side, however, human capital seems to be penalized into the labour market, at least in term of higher job instability.

Our analysis suggests that the probability of working part-time is also affected by the individuals' economic situation and by the existence of an unstable job history, whilst workers' risk propensity and the socio-economic status of the family of origin are not significant. The absence of influence of these two variables leads us to exclude that the occurrence of unstable jobs is related to specific workers characteristics, such as their risk propensity or their family background, stressing the opposite hypothesis that their determinants are to be found among the specific labour market characteristics. This finding is also confirmed by the effects of job history that stresses the existence of the risk of persistency in instability: having experienced a higher instability in the past is linked to a higher probability of being currently unstable.

Finally, concerning the family status, the existence of possible linkages between labour market situation and family choices is confirmed. More specifically, the relationship between having children and working as unstable is negative and significant in Italy, Poland, and Slovenia.

The following scheme can be used to summarize the main results of our analysis. The existence of a negative relationship between unstable job and presence of children, from one side, and of a positive relationship between an unstable job history and the current job instability, from the other side, is at the basis of an indirect link between the labour situations experienced in the past and family choices made in the present. The consequence is that family choices are affected both by a contemporaneous effect from unstable jobs and by a dynamic effect related to the past job instability.



What policies should do

As far as part-time employment is concerned, the main issues to be addressed seem to be the following:

★ For countries in which part-time contracts have already been used as a tool for reconciling work with family commitments, such as Germany and Italy, a bigger effort should be made to guarantee that part-time employment is a real choice for workers, and above all for women. The evidence in some countries shows that part-time employment, despite being a voluntary choice, can be in fact the only possible answer to the lack of adequate institutional supports. The only possible answer to this risk is increasing the supply of childcare services, reducing at the same time their costs.

★ The situation of workers (especially women) employed in the private sector in Italy deserves a specific mention. The high occurrence of part-time contracts in the private sector might be explained by the sizeable difficulties faced by workers employed in this sector in reconciling work with family commitments. Difficulties in having control over their working time, for example regarding work-breaks or scheduling of days-off, could partially explain the higher incidence of part-time work through an higher request of this kind of contracts from women with family ties. The need to guarantee that part-time is a real choice for women in the labour market seems to be stronger in the private sector.

★ For countries in which part-time employment is not so widespread, for the purpose of our analysis we need to complete the picture with more information about women labour market participation and family choices. In the case of Slovenia, where women employment rate is high but fertility rate is low, a higher attention should be paid to the provision of adequate reconciliation policies. Within this framework, the experience of the oldest EU member states in boosting part-time employment could be replicated with the final aim of supporting family choices by offering more reconciliation tools.

★ In the specific situation of Poland, the reasons behind the use of part-time employment seem to be linked to a peculiar labour market situation rather than to the reconciliation needs. In this case, a better and deeper knowledge of the real difficulties faced by workers is needed.

Concerning unstable workers, the focus of policy interventions should be on the following main topics:

★ Given the high incidence of unstable jobs among highly educated workers, in the EU, unlike in other advanced countries such as Canada and US, it seems to be particularly relevant to target policy measures for enhancing job security of this sub-sample of individuals. Investments in human capital are considered as a tool for improving the economic performance of the EU countries and, therefore, strongly supported. Then, specific policies should be implemented in order to guarantee that these investments in human capital are adequately inserted into the labour market.

★ These interventions should be linked to measures specifically devoted at lowering the age of individuals' "stabilization" in the labour market. A quicker transition from unstable to stable jobs should be promoted through incentives or through the reduction of the social contribution gap between stable and unstable contracts. At this regard, one of the possible suggestions is the extension at this specific case of the propositions suggested by Feldestein (1976) and Topel (1983). They underline that firms strongly benefit from flexible contracts, lower social security contribution etc., when they have to adjust their labour force to macro and idiosyncratic economics shock. However, they also stressed that in this way firms produce higher social costs, due to unemployment benefits, public employment services, social assistance to unemployed and poor households, etc. Roughly speaking, firms benefit from more flexibility and governments pay for higher social costs. In this framework, they propose that social costs have to be partially shared between firms and governments; in particular, they suggest that firms that have used flexible contracts more intensively have also to contribute more to the induced social costs related to their hiring and firing policies. These kinds of policies are usually called 'experience rating' policies. Applied to our case, higher cost could be faced by firms that have experienced more accessions and separations of flexible workers in the last year, in order to internalise the social costs linked to job instability that are faced by the community as whole .

★ Finally, a particular attention should be paid to the need of breaking off the link between experience of instability, current job instability and family choices. Once again, if unstable jobs have been supported as a stepping stone to promote individual's entry into the labour market, they should be peculiar of young workers. Specific interventions aiming at reducing the duration of these contracts and avoiding the occurrence of an "instability trap" should be implemented.

Notes

59 At this regard it is relevant to stress that data collected within the project are limited to individuals aged 25-44, whilst data at the national level refers to workers between 15 and 64. It should be also considered that we built the variable for part-time job on the basis of the self-definition (consistent with the definition of part-time jobs as jobs requiring, on average, less working hours than full time job in the same sector of activity) instead of considering the OECD definition of part-time work (jobs characterized by a weekly working commitment of less than 30 hours). The reason behind this choice is that self-definition offers the advantage of allowing the country-specific concept of part-time and, within each country, the specificity of different sectors.

60 Female employment rate in our data is higher comparing to those reported by the official statistics (they are also higher than the target set out by the Lisbon strategy). This trend is not surprising considering our choice of restricting the sample at individuals aged 25 to 44 and living in big cities. By limiting the analysis at these persons, we excluded people less attached to the labour market.

61 This trend confirms the existence of a positive effect of part-time employment in promoting female labour market participation in Italy already stressed in previous studies (among others, Bratti *et al.* 2004).

62 See appendix 1 for a better specification of variables.

63 The growing consensus on the need of more flexible labour markets emerged in the late '80s after an opposite trend towards more protection and rigidity that characterised the late '60s and '70s (OECD, 1986).

64 Another important step was the provision of a new Title on Employment within the Amsterdam Treaty.

65 For a broader review of the origin and developments of the European Employment Strategy see COM (2002).

66 More in detail, concerning regular employment the focus is on governmental authorization to fire, notices

of dismissal, severance payments, unfair dismissals.

67 It ranges from 0 (lowest strictness of EPL) to 6 (maximum strictness of EPL).

68 This is in contrast with the economic theory. Indeed, according to the theoretical provisions, temporary workers should earn more than permanent workers in order to be repaid for the higher risk of being unemployed linked to their status.

69 See Fitzgerald (1999) for a more comprehensive review of these contributions.

70 Job instability is also often replaced by job insecurity or job precariousness without making clear whether these expressions are used as synonymous.

71 Examples of job stability measures used in the literature include retention rates (among others, Diebold et al. 1997; Neumark et al. 1998), job tenure (Farber, 1999), the fraction of workers in new jobs (Jaeger and Stevens, 1999), and turnover (Rose 1995; Monks and Pizer, 1998).

72 The primary measure of job security is the rate of job loss (Farber 1997; Boisjoly et al. 1998;) and the employment-to-unemployment transition rate (Stewart, 2000). It is proxied also by measure of self-perception like the perceived probability of unemployment (Mansky, 2004; Becker et al. 2005).

73 Atypical workers include casual worker (who have an explicit or implicit contract of employment which is not expected to continue for more than a short period), short-term workers (who have an explicit or implicit contract of employment which is expected to last longer than the period used to define 'casual workers'), research contract, specialization training, and workers without a formal contract.

74 For a detailed description of the several Italian contractual arrangements, see Istat (2004).

75 Unfortunately, because of the smallness of our sample, we can not control for endogeneity neither for causality.

76 We excluded from the analysis the sub-sample of self-employed. This choice can lead us to underestimate the incidence of "unstable jobs" because within self-employed there can also be the so-called "dependent self-employed" (ILO, 2003; EIRO, 2002; Supiot, 2001). This category refers to work relationships where subcontractors are formally self-employed, but their conditions of work are similar to those of employees. They are however economically dependent on their contractor and face subordination (to some extent) (Muehlberger and Pasqua, 2006).

77 We do not extend the analysis also at the case of Germany because of problems with the dataset**.**

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APPENDIX 1

Name of the variables	Description
INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS	
female	dummy for gender : 1 for women; 0 otherwise
25-29	dummy for age: 1 if individuals are within aged 25 to 29; 0 otherwise
30-34	dummy for age: 1 if individuals are within aged 30 to 34; 0 otherwise
35-39	dummy for age: 1 if individuals are within aged 35 to 39; 0 otherwise
40-44	dummy for age: 1 if individuals are within aged 40 to 44; 0 otherwise
low educational level	dummy for the edu level: 1 primary educational level; 0 otherwise
medium educational level	dummy for the edu level: 1 secondary educational level; 0 otherwise
high educational level	dummy for the edu level: 1 advanced educational level (degree or adv. degree); 0 otherwise
risk propensity	dummy for the edu level: 1 advanced educational level (degree or adv. degree); 0 otherwise
FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS	
living with partner	dummy: 1 if individuals have a co-habiting partner; 0 otherwise
difficulty in saving	1 some saving; 2 budget balance; 3 income not enough
conciliation capacity	dummy: 1 if individuals can manage in reconciling; 0 otherwise
children	dummy: 1 if individuals have children; 0 otherwise
family socio-ec status	1 if socio-economic status of the family of origin is low; 2 if medium; 3 if high
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	
part-time	1 if workers have a part-time contract; 0 otherwise
unstable workers	1 if workers have a fixed-term or atypical contract; 0 otherwise
private	1for workers employed in private sector; 0 otherwise
unstable job history	0 job stability during last 3 years; 1 if # of contracts= 1; 2 if # of contracts = 2-3; 3 if # of contracts > 3
preca	1 if the self-representation is to be a precarious workers; 0 otherwise

Reconciling work and family – Germany, Italy, Poland and Slovenia

Introduction

Steadily increasing involvement of women in the labour market, necessary for many reasons on the one hand, and low fertility in Europe, which also needs to be responded on the other hand, make reconciliation of work and family one of the fundamental challenges to be faced in the contemporary societies.

Analyses of family and employment show different impacts of family on the labour attachment of males and females (see e.g. Bielenski, Bosch, Wagner, 2002; Franco, Jouhette, 2002; Franco, Winqvist, 2002, Kotowska et al., 2003; Jaumotte, 2003; Hantrais, 2005; Aliaga, 2005). In general, both living in a family and having children positively affect employment of males, however, effects differ slightly across countries. The full-time employment rates for men are the highest among those living in a couple, higher for males living in a couple with children than for those in a couple without children. Female employment is subjected to stronger and negative impacts of the family in terms of both employment incidence and hours worked (full- and part-time), however, the picture is more complicated. But what really seems to matter is the presence of children, especially small children (under 6 years) – mothers reduce their labour market involvement.

Differences in labour market participation between women with and without children across countries reflect differences in job opportunities and possibilities to combine work and family, access to childcare services and gender roles. In general, they may be discussed in terms of the actual societal opportunities and constraints that are placed on the roles of women as economic providers and home-carers. Institutional settings (mainly work organisation, institutional child care and leave regulations) are more or less supportive for women's employment. They determine the **structural incompatibility between work and family** (Liefbroer, Corijn, 1999). A structural lag in the adjustment of welfare state institutions to new conditions under which families live, imposed by women's labour market involvement, is usually accompanied by too-slow changes in the perception of women's social roles. Despite their increasing participation in the labour market women's roles are traditionally perceived as predominant care-givers not economic providers. This is called **the cultural incompatibility between work and family** (Liefbroer, Corijn, 1999).

It has been shown that in Poland and Italy the strong cultural incompatibility between work and family coexist with the strong structural incompatibility (Muszyńska, 2004, 2007; Kotowska, 2005). In Slovenia, institutional settings are supportive for reconciling employment and family while a traditional perception of gender roles is still shared by a remarkable part of population similarly to other post-socialist countries (Philipov, 2005). Work organisation, availability of institutional child care and leave regulations in Germany support parents to combine paid work and child-rearing, presuming that mothers' labour market participation is subordinated to family responsibilities (i.e. she ceases or reduces her economic activity in order to raise young children). Such conceptualisation of women's work is not approved by some population groups, especially by young women. Therefore, both types of work-family incompatibilities exist, however, at the lower level as compared to Italy and Poland.

Data from the JIFT survey are used in this chapter for the following purposes:
- to illustrate how family affects labour force participation of females and males; differences in relevant indicators reflect country specific difficulties in combining work and family;
- to show different perceptions of gender roles by taking into account household time budget;
- to analyse strategies used by couples to combine both activities;
- to know people's expectations about measures supportive for reconciling family and work.

The first section presents findings related to impacts a family has on labour market participation of males and females. Here also people's opinions on job features supportive for long-term family choices are studies. The subsequent section focuses on changes in household time budget by household composition to illustrate how forming a union and having a child affect time distribution between employment, house-keeping, care for family and leisure. Next, care arrangements used by families are discussed. Finally, opinions about difficulties to reconcile employment and family are analysed. A summary of main findings and remarks about policy implications conclude the chapter. Tables and regression output are enclosed in the chapter Appendix.

Findings related to labour market behaviour by family status, household time budget by household composition, and declarations about sharing child care responsibilities are brought together to conclude about strategies used by couples in reconciling family and employment. They are conceptualised in terms of the male breadwinner model, the modernised male breadwinner model, the dual earner-double burden of women model and the dual earner-dual carer model (Leira, 2002).[78]

Descriptive and multivariate analyses are based on data about labour force participation by family related variables (marital status, presence of children), household time budget and use of institutional care for children as well as data on people's opinions with respect to reconciliation issues. We refer to both standard tables and additional tables, prepared separately. Appendix contains these additional tables as well as the results of multivariate analyses and illustrative figures.

In our study we use weighted data for the descriptive analysis and unweighted data for the multivariate analysis.

Labour force participation by family status (marital status, presence of children) and demands for family supportive job arrangements

Possible effects family related values have on the labour market involvement of parents can be analysed by use of employment status and type of activity indicators disaggregated by marital status and presence of children. However, due to formal limitations (small numbers of relevant cases) such analyses can be performed for the employment status variable while other labour market indicators are referred to characterise the labour market from the perspective of part-time use and atypical work incidence.

To find out how family affects labour market involvement of males and females two analytical approaches are used. Firstly, we look at labour market indicators taking into account marital status, presence of children and presence of small children (the youngest child up to 5 years). Secondly, for each country we estimate binominal logistic models for the labour market status variable (to be in employment, to be out of employment), separately for males and females, with the following explanatory variables: marital status, presence of children and education.

Next, findings on interrelationships between family and employment are related to expectations about paid work which could support long-term family choices.

Employment by family status

Employment rates of men aged 25-44 years differ by country – the percentage of employed men ranges from 91.1 in Rome to 82.9 in Warsaw. What seems, however, to differentiate markedly male labour market participation is a proportion of those who are inactive and unemployed. The highest incidence of inactivity among males was observed in Italy (10,3%), remarkably higher than in other countries (around 6%), while the percentage of unemployed was the highest in Warsaw (11.1%) in comparison to 2.9% in Hamburg.

Higher cross-country differences are noticed for females. Labour market indicators of Slovenian women aged 25-44 years are close to those of men (employment rate of 84.9%). Polish women have employment rate nearly the same like German women (around 77%) while that of Italian women remains remarkably lower (70%). The country specific pattern of inactivity reflects the pattern of employment – the highest percentage of inactive women was in Rome, next in Hamburg and Warsaw, and the lowest in Ljubljana. Warsaw is again distinctive due to the highest percentage of unemployed women.

As part-time work is considered as a possible reconciliation measure, patterns of its use need to be analysed as well to show opportunities to reduce labour market participation when taking care responsibilities. In general, part-time use indicators confirm what is known from other studies in the field. Part-time jobs are more in use in developed economies than in the post-socialist countries. In Ljubljana the percentage of working part-time is exceptionally low for both men an women (4-5%). In other countries part-time jobs are typical for women and relatively frequently used in Hamburg (44% of women) and Rome (32%) as compared to Warsaw (16%). Part-time use indicators for males do not differ remarkably between countries (13% of employed men are working part-time in Hamburg, 11% in Warsaw and 7% in Rome).

In general, part-timers in Germany, Italy, and Poland are mostly less educated people and those working on atypical contracts. In Hamburg part-time jobs are more used by older workers and those working in the public sector contrary to Rome where the higher incidence of part-timers is among younger persons and working in the private sector. Part-time jobs in Warsaw are slightly more frequent among older persons. In Ljubljana persons working part-time are mostly regular employees, persons working in the public sector, more often women than men.

There are some indications that part-time jobs are not only demand-driven, as above findings suggest, but they are also used as a reconciliation measure by females in Hamburg and Rome. Females on regular employment contracts have relatively frequently part-time jobs. And contrary to women in Warsaw, women with children are more often part-timers than those without children.

As far as family related variables are concerned, one can expect that males living in family reveal higher labour market participation than never married males contrary to married females who reduce their labour force involvement. Consistently, in all countries employment rates are higher among married than never married males (Tables 1-4, fig.1-2)).[79] A similar interrelation is observed for women in Slovenia only. In other countries the situation is opposite: never married women are more often employed than married ones who increasingly move to inactivity. The highest percentage of inactive married women is observed in Italy (26.8%), followed by Germany (25.2%) and Poland (17.6%).

Presence of children affects positively men's employment in all countries and mother's employment in Slovenia (fig.3-4). On the contrary, mothers in Hamburg, Rome and Warsaw reduce visibly their participation in the labour market. Employment rates are declining visibly (from 89% to 74% in Hamburg, from 73% to 67% in Rome, and from 86% to 71% in Warsaw) while the percentages of inactive females are increasing (from about 6% to 22% in Hamburg, from 20% to 29% in Rome, and from 6% to 18% in Warsaw).

Labour force participation of mothers is reduced even stronger when they are caring for small children - the employment rates for mothers with children up to 5 years are 63% for mothers in Rome and Warsaw and 65% for mothers in Hamburg while the proportion of inactive mothers increases to 33% in Rome, 24% in Warsaw and 32% in Hamburg (fig.5-6).

To evaluate precisely an impact family has on labour market participation of males and females binomial logistic regressions have been performed for each country separately. The dependent variable is defined as being in employment (Y=1) vs. being out of employment (Y=0 for inactive and unemployed persons) while the explanatory variables are: marital status, presence of children, and education (coded as dummy variables)[80]. Additionally for females the logistic model with presence of small children (up to 5 years of age) has been estimated.

Estimates of the logistic regressions models, given in Table 5, can be summarized as follows:

- ***the marital status effect***: married males, except for German males, have significantly higher probability to be employed as compared to never married males. On the contrary, that effect is insignificant for females, except Polish women in the model with presence of children and Slovenian mothers with small children. Married females in Poland are less probably in employment than never married women. In opposite, married mothers of small children in Slovenia are more likely in employment as compared to never married women;
- ***the presence of children effect***, including age of the youngest child: the significant positive effect was found for males in Poland and Slovenia. Women with children have considerably lower probabilities of employment as compared to women without children in all countries except Slovenia. Slovenian mothers, like fathers, are more likely to be in employment than women without children. The child effect disappears for Slovenian mothers when presence of small children is taken into account. It is replaced by the positive influence of the marital status variable. In Italy and Poland presence of small children strengthens a negative effect for a probability to be in employment;
- ***the education effect***: estimates show a consistent patterns across countries for both females and males. High educated persons have significantly higher probability to be employed. These effects are more visible for females than males in Germany and Italy contrary to females in Poland and Slovenia. Including presence of small children make education effects stronger for Polish and Slovenian mothers.

Demands for family supportive job arrangements

Difficulties people experience in reconciling employment and family responsibilities might influence their family related decisions. Opinions about work aspects which would support long-term family choices reflect country-specific evaluation of relevance of different job characteristics (table 6 in Appendix). Respondents could select between favourable financial aspects, flexible working arrangements, protection measures for women and family, and management aspects to reconcile work and family. It was possible to make multiple choices.

Favourable financial aspects of job are the most frequently indicated by persons residing in Rome, Warsaw and Ljubljana, irrespectively of sex. The highest percentage of people who have selected that job characteristic is noticed in Warsaw. Flexible working arrangements are the most often chosen by Germans only, more frequently by females than males.

When ranking relevance of the defined aspects of job according to respondents' choices, one can find country-specific ordering. In Italy, Poland, and Slovenia these choices are similar for females and males. Financial aspects are important for nearly 65% of Rome residents, other characteristics seem to be remark-

ably less important and indicated by no more than 20% of people. They are: flexible working arrangements, protection measures for women and family, and management aspects to reconcile work and family, respectively. Around 87% of people living in Warsaw indicate favourable financial aspects as a main job characteristic, however, flexible working arrangements are also important for around 66% while protections measures and managements aspects are selected by 50% and 39% of the population, respectively. Favourable financial aspects are chosen by 54% of the Ljubljana population, next important characteristic is management aspects and flexible working arrangements. Protection measures are markedly less valued. In general, despite the similar prioritizing by sex each of job characteristic considered is slightly more valued by women than men.

Choices made by residents of Hamburg seem to reveal different structures of priorities by men and women. Both indicate flexible working arrangements at most, however, that choice is made by 81% of women and 68% of men. Nearly the same proportion of men indicate favourable financial aspects while protection measures for women and family receive the second rank in women's choices (62%). Management aspects to reconcile work and family are ranked by women similarly to favourable financial aspects of job (around 59%). Men's choices situate management aspects and protection measures as the third and fourth position (55% and 42%, respectively). In addition, financial aspects are more important for men while remaining job features are more valued by women.

Preferences about job characteristics important for family choices might be influenced by age, education, type of activity, sector of activity, and presence of children. In general, according to the standard table data (Table 31) the main structure of preferences by these variables remains the same as described above for each country. What changes is the proportion of respondents who select a relevant job characteristic. These shifts reveal some common patterns with respect to education, age and presence of children. In all countries financial aspects are becoming less important with increasing education levels. On the contrary, flexible working arrangements are increasingly important (except for Poland). Young persons in Italy, Poland and Slovenia attribute more relevance to favourable financial measures than the older ones. In Poland there are also more respondents in favour of protection measures for women and family. Persons living with children value more management aspects to reconcile work and family (Germany, Poland, Slovenia) and protection measures (Germany, Slovenia) than those without children.

Impacts of employment related variables (type of activity and sector of activity) on opinions about job related characteristics are strongly diversified across countries. For instance, employees with irregular job contracts seem to pay more attention to flexible work arrangements and protection measures than others workers in Poland only. Financial aspects of job are more valued by persons working in the private sector than those in the public sector in Slovenia and Germany. In Poland and Germany protection measures are indicated slightly more often by workers of the public sector as compared to workers in the private sector contrary to Italy where the opposite relationship holds. In general, choices made by Italians seem not to be influenced by most of the variables considered.

Summing up, preferences about job characteristics supportive for family choices revealed by Germans differ from patterns found in other countries not only in terms of gender differences and ranking. The high indications given to each item seem to illustrate comprehensive expectations about work, voiced strongly by more than 50% of respondents (only protection measures are indicated by 42% of males). Demands of Poles are comparable to those formulated by Germans, however, relevant indications are lower (except for favourable financial aspects, which are the most indicated among countries under study). Protection measures receive the lowest value in Italy and Slovenia, countries with different institutional settings with respect to mothers' employment. Slovenians prioritize more flexible working arrangements and managements aspects with respect to reconciliation as compared to Italians who concentrate on favourable financial aspects.

Household time budget

General trends in household budget structure

The division of time budget of an individual separates between activities on the labour market, household activities and leisure. On a very general level of the analysis, the amount of time devoted to these fields of activity seems to be predetermined by two factors: age and sex. It is obvious that age locates an individual along various stages of the lifespan such as education, labour market activity and finally retirement. Therefore, individuals devote constrained time budget accordingly to their position along the lifespan. On the other hand, sex of an individual or more precisely, gender, attributes various social roles and expectations which might influence time distribution between household and labour market activities. In the standard new home economics approach a gain from marriage is maximised when there is a strict specialisation within a union (Becker, 1993; Liefbroer, Corijn, 1999). From this point of view an individual with higher opportunity costs should devote his/her time solely to the labour market and the other should specialise in household activities. Traditionally, a person with higher opportunity costs used to be a male. Taking into account changes in the social roles, social expectations and labour market opportunities this traditional view does not hold anymore. Gender of the individuals should not, at least in theory, determine a strict division of household activities. However this might not be so optimistic with respect to combining childcare and labour market activities.

Using these preliminary assumptions we will try to look at the effect of age (stage across the lifespan) and gender (combined with the household composition) on the division of time between various activities. Such comparison will help to highlight the effect of family situation (household composition) on the reconciliation of competing activities.

In order to present comparison between countries with respect to management of household time budget, we have used an average time spent on various household activities by gender, age and household composition. These descriptive results presented in Tables 9 to 12, have been supplemented with the OLS regression with declared time devoted to various activities as dependent variables (Tables 7 and 8).

Since we are primarily interested in the problem of reconciliation of work and family life, we are going to focus on three types of households: one-person households, couples living without children and couples with children.

In order to analyse general trends we have calculated a simple OLS regression model with time in hours spent by employed person on activities such as: paid work, care for family, house-keeping and leisure (Table 7). The explanatory variables (coded as dummy variables) included in the models represent: country, gender, household composition and age.

Country effects: the country specific effects seem to reveal quite consistent pattern across all analysed components of a household time budget. With respect to declared time spent on paid work individuals in Poland and Slovenia seem to devote more time to these activities as compared to Germany and Italy. The amount of time spent on paid work in Germany and Italy does not differ significantly. Such an effect might be due to the fact that economies of Poland and Slovenia as new members of European Union are still developing and thus individuals spend more time on paid work than in countries with stable economic situation. Similar grouping (Poland and Slovenia vs. Italy and Germany) could be noticed in the case of time spent on house-keeping. Once again families in Poland and Slovenia, on average, spend more time on household activities than Italy and Germany.

Contrasting pattern could be noticed with respect to two other activities; care for family and leisure. Respondents in Poland seem to devote significantly less time to care for family than individuals in Germany whereas individuals in Italy devote significantly more time. There are no significant differences between individuals in Germany and Slovenia.

The effect of geographic proximity could be noticed in the case of declared time spent on leisure. Here, there are no significant differences in the country effect between Poland and Germany, whereas individuals in Italy and Slovenia spent significantly less time on leisure. We have to be aware that we analyse here declarations with respect to time spent on leisure, hence the differences might be associated with different understanding of "time spent on leisure".

Gender effect: the effect of gender across all analysed activities reveal a quite standard pattern (Table 7). Males devote significantly more time to paid work and significantly less time to house-keeping and care for family. On the other hand they devote significantly more time to leisure than females. Since gender is a main variable which determines the distribution of household time budged we will analyse it in more details in the next section;

Household composition effect: the composition of household along with gender seems to be one of the major explanatory variables. This is of course associated with changes of functions of household as it develops from living with the family of origin, single-person household, couple and finally to the couple with children.

As compared to the "other" types of households, individuals living with the family of origin devote significantly less time to paid work, house-keeping and care for family, and significantly more time to leisure. This situation is of course caused by the age effect, since individuals still living with their parents are usually younger and they rely mostly on the service provided by their parents with respect to various household activities. They also spend less time on paid work since they frequently share their time between work and studying.

At the next stage of the household formation process, namely living alone, individuals devote significantly more time to paid work and leisure and significantly less time to house-keeping and care for family. The "positive" effect on time spent on paid work, result from the fact that those individuals cannot rely on financial support form the parents as well as direct services provided by them. Moreover they have to maintain their own household. More time spent on leisure might result from the possibility of buying house-keeping services on the market.

The pattern of time budget of the couples does not differ in a significant way from the time budget of those living alone. Being in couple has a positive effect on time spent on paid work and leisure and negative on house-keeping and care for family. This pattern might be explained in a similar way as in the case of individuals living alone: although the couple constitute a "household" there is no need to take care of "family" yet and there is much more space for individualistic behaviour.

The situation changes dramatically after arrival of a child. Couples with children spend less time on paid work and leisure and more time on house-keeping and care for family. Therefore, it might be concluded that with respect to distribution of the activities in the time budget the composition of a household plays a crucial role. The evolution of the path from "living with family of origin" to "living in couple with children" changes the focus of the individuals from individualistic perspective (more time on work and leisure) to altruistic perspective (more time on house-keeping and care for family).

Since this is a very general model, it assumes that change of the household composition acts irrespectively of gender. However, the social roles attached to gender might alter the individual time budget. Therefore in the next sections we will present a model with interactions between gender and household composition which might reveal much more interesting patterns.

Age effect: the last variable, included in the model controls for the effect of age on the household budget composition. Here we distinguish between younger (aged 25-34) and older respondents (aged 35-44). Younger respondents do not differ from older with respect to amount of time devoted to paid work, however significant differences could be noticed for the other activities. Young individuals devote less time to house-keeping and more to care for family and leisure. Such a contradictory effect might be explained by high level of heterogeneity within the group of young individuals. On the one hand, this group is composed from individuals living alone or in a couple (double income no kids) and on the other hand from the individuals with young children. The first group might devote more time to leisure and the latter on care for family (taking care of young kids). The older group is presumably more homogenous since the main factor that alters the structure of time budget (children) is no longer so time consuming. Such heterogeneity within the group of young respondents might also partially explain no age specific effect on time spent on paid work.

Gender and household composition effects on time budget structure

In order to account for different effects of gender with respect to household composition we have calculated regression models with interactions (Table 8). In those models we have included interactions between country of residence, gender and household composition. As mentioned previously we have focused on three distinctive types of households namely: single person households (living alone), couples without children (living in couple: double income no kids) and couples with children (living in couple with children) compared to remaining household types Introduction of the interaction terms into the regression, allows for the analysis of changes in the household time budget with respect to different household type and with respect to differential effect of gender.

Single person household

The effect of gender and country on household time budget components of single persons brings similar results to the general model presented in Table 7. Irrespectively of gender and country single persons spend more time on paid work (except for Italian females) and leisure and less time on house-keeping or care for family as compared to persons living in other types of living arrangements. In this case the above presented reasoning holds that such individuals are more self-oriented and focus mostly on work and leisure than on house-keeping which could be purchased as a service on market. Since those individuals live alone they spent significantly less time on care for family which is here presumably the family of origin. These findings seem to be confirmed by descriptive results presented in the Tables 9 to 12.

Couples without children

The results for individuals living in couples without children do not give such unambiguous results as for the single person households. From the perspective of the time budget of household, being in couple without children might be perceived as an intermediate stage between "living alone" and "living in couple with children". At this stage, couples are struggling to achieve balance between self-fulfilment and altruistic behaviour towards partner or household. They are also establishing the division of duties and role models in the household associated with gender.

With respect to the amount of time devoted to paid work household of couples behave the same way as households of single person. Generally living in couple irrespectively to gender or country increases time spent on the labour market as compared to other type of living arrangements (although with some similarities to "living alone") However, slight change could be noticed with respect to household duties. Males from Germany, Italy and Slovenia seem to dedicate less time to house-keeping and this burden seems to be shift onto females. The exception from this traditional division of time budget in the household could be noticed in case of German and Italian females. In both cases females, who remain in "couple without children" do not alter their behaviour in a significant way. More traditional role model could be noticed in case of Polish and Slovenian women, where being in a couple significantly increases house-keeping burden.

With respect to "care for family" there are no dramatic changes between living alone and living in couple. This might be due to the fact that the phrase "taking care for family" might be understood primarily as taking care for children which is not the case yet. The only exception here might be Italian males and females who seem to increase time spent on care for family when becoming a couple without children. Living as a couple, in general, does not change the amount of time spent on leisure. The only significant limitation of time for leisure could be noticed in the case of Italian females.

Couples with children

As already concluded from the general model, the dramatic change in the structure of household time budget is noticed when children are present. So far there were only slight or no differences between time budget of single person household and a couple. Firstly, presence of a child (children) significantly reduces time spent on paid work by females. This effect is strongest in case of Germany and Italy. Also in Poland being a mother reduces time devoted to paid work. Interestingly, there is no such effect in the case of Slovenian mothers. The transition from "living in couple" to "living in couple with children" reduces time spent on paid work by females by 1.5 hour (on average) (Tables 9 to 12). For males, presence of children universally increases time spent on paid work although the marginal effect is not substantial (half an hour on average). Such pattern is quite easy to explain: women engage more in the household work and males in the labour market which is natural taking into account higher expenses due to children.

However, responsibilities associated with becoming a parent are not completely shifted from males to females. Looking at the effect on "care for family", we can see that "being in couple with children" increases time spent on that activity equally for males and females. Although the magnitude of this effect is not equal for both sexes. According to Tables 9 to 12 (for all countries) women declare 4,5 hours on average spent on "care for family" while males 2,5 hours. It is interesting that time devoted by males is significantly higher in case of young males (25-34). This might be explained by the fact that those young families bear younger children which is associated with far more load and require more time to be spent on this duty.

Also time devoted to house-keeping rises both for males and females, with exception for German and Italian males (the negative effect). On average, women living in "couple with children" devote one hour more to house-keeping than those "living in couple". Similar figures for males reveal only a slight increase in time spent by males on house-keeping.

Costs associated with reduction of time for leisure seems to be equally distributed by country and gender. This is due to the shift of time towards employment (males) and care for family (females). However, this shift is much clearer for females. Individuals "living in couple", irrespectively of gender, spend on leisure on average 3 hours. "Living in couple with children" reduces woman's leisure time by 2 hours (from 3 to 1) and man's leisure time by one hour only (from 3 to 2; Tables 9-12).

In general, the analysis of the household time budget with respect to the effects of country, gender and household composition brings quite standard and predictable patterns and their differences between countries do not seem very significant. The distribution of time devoted to house-keeping, paid work, care for family and leisure do not differ meaningfully for households of single persons and couples. They spend much of their time on paid work and leisure and less time on household and family activities. This situation is dramatically changed when children are present. Becoming a couple with a child shifts time spent on work and leisure to house-keeping and care for child. That shift applies to females, who carry most of responsibilities associated with childbearing. Becoming a parent increases time spent on household activities and care for the family also by men although this increase is markedly weaker than in case of women. Such a change might serve as an indirect evidence that despite still existing asymmetric patterns of sharing family responsibilities, especially when children are present, the shift from the traditional division of labour within households towards the distribution of duties based on partnership is on the way. Both partners living with children spend more

time on house-keeping and care for family and reduce of leisure time. However, it has to be noticed that this reduction is remarkably stronger for females in all countries under study. Therefore, taking into account reduction of working time by females one can conclude that changes in the redistribution of household responsibilities between parents towards a more symmetric pattern are rather slight.

Child care arrangements

As we stated in the previous section, presence of children is the most important factor influencing distribution of time between main activities (employment, house-keeping, care for family, leisure) and a way of sharing responsibilities within the household between women and men. This section supplements analyses based on household time budget by taking into account declarations of respondents about child care arrangements.

There appear clearly visible differences between country-specific patterns of involvement in taking care of children care, differentiated also by gender and age. In Germany almost 80% of women declared that they are mostly responsible for taking care of children whereas in Slovenia this proportion equaled to less than 42%. In Italy and Poland nearly the same percentage of female respondents declare that they are mostly responsible for taking care of children (65% and 63%, respectively). Similar country differences can be noticed in declarations on equal sharing care responsibilities between the respondent and the partner (Figure (7) Only about 18% of women and about 26% of men in Germany claim that they equally share care duties while in Slovenia almost 57% of women and 76 % of men informed about equal sharing responsibility for the children. Italy and Poland are situated between these two patterns: around 45% and 39% of men in Italy and Poland respectively and about 32% and 28% of Italian and Polish women claim they equally share with partners responsibilities in taking care of their children). It seems that in Germany a traditional model of sharing childcare duties prevails, these care arrangements are also practiced by a majority of Italian and Polish women while in Slovenia the equal sharing model is more often adopted than the traditional one. Usually men claim more often than women their involvement in child care on an equal basis, the highest differences by sex are noticed in Slovenia while the lowest ones in Germany.

When taking into account dual earner couples (Fig.8) similar patterns of sharing child care appear since a great majority of women is in employment (see 2.1.), however traditional childcare arrangements are becoming less practiced while the equal sharing pattern is more in use, especially when referring to women's declarations. These declarations depend strongly on sex of the respondent (Fig. 9-10). The main differences between countries indicated for all couples are preserved although some changes can be noticed. First, being in a dual earner couple decreases taking mostly the responsibility for children by a women in all countries, mainly in Germany and Italy while according to their declarations it does not affect men's involvement on an equal basis, except for Italy where that percentage declines. In Italy and Poland traditional child care arrangements are declared by 58-59% of women while equal sharing is practiced by 37% of women in Italy and 31% in Poland. In Slovenia 58% of women in employment declare that they equally share with the partner their responsibilities in taking care of children and 40% claimed traditional arrangements. In Germany the situation is quite opposite: 73% of women indicate themselves as persons mostly taking care of children and 22% practice equal sharing of care duties.

It is interesting that in all countries under study involvement in taking care of children either by the respondent only or by both the respondent and the partner is age-dependent (Fig.11-12): in the older age-group equal sharing of duties is more often practiced than among younger respondents (though in Poland the difference seems to be insignificant) which might be attributed to age and a number of children. Fathers are more likely to be involved in care when children are growing. Also one can suppose that they contribute more to care responsibilities when there are more children in the family.

Besides, one can conclude from the figures that in Germany, Italy and Poland in roughly 70% of cases this is the respondent himself/herself or together with the partner to take care of children; in remaining 30% there are other persons. In Slovenia parents do not make use of a help from other people since caring of children is taken either by the respondent or the respondent together with his/her partner in roughly 90% of cases.

Patterns of sharing duties related to bringing up children are influenced by cultural, socio-economic and institutional factors. Both employment status and living arrangements play a crucial role in sharing duties among partners. Also, availability of institutional care services is of importance in this respect.

Unfortunately, due to too small numbers of responds in the survey as well as country differences in interpretation of some questions in the questionnaire[81] we are not able to analyze comprehensively in a comparative perspective how institutional child care is used. We confine our analysis to three countries: Italy, Poland and Slovenia and to very general indicators only.

As far as the scale of using institutional care services is concerned, the highest proportion of couples with children using these services is observed in Ljubljana (around 72%), next in Warsaw (68%) and the lowest proportion occurs in Rome (62%). Also the structure of services used by sector (public – private) is significantly different for the countries (Figure 13). In Rome and Warsaw this structure is almost identical – one-third of the services comes from the private sector – whereas in Slovenia the proportion of services by private institutions equals to 10% only.

Obviously, these differences result from the availability of a specific type services: in Slovenia the public sector of the institutional care for children is much better developed than in Poland and Italy and, at the same time, expenses for the private services in Slovenia are much higher (in relative and absolute terms) than in the two remaining countries (Table 13,14).

When taking into account dual earner couples we can observe a slightly higher proportion of couples using services for children: by 1, 2, and 3% in Ljubljana, Rome and Warsaw, respectively. Also the change in the structure of services by sector seems to be insignificant as compared to all couples with children (Fig.14).

To end with, let us notice that only in Rome a scale of using one of the services is significantly different among employed and regular employees (Fig.15). It means that only in Italy the employment status differentiates the institutional care for children used.[82]

To sum up, as far as sharing child care responsibilities within the dual earner family is concerned, we can distinguish three country-specific patterns. The first is represented by Italy and Poland where the use of traditional and partner's care arrangements is more balanced i.e. the former is used by 30-33% of respondents while the latter by 36-42% of respondents. In the German pattern traditional child care arrangements prevail (45%) and the relatively low percentage of respondents share their duties with the partner (24%). On the opposite, a majority of Slovenian couples practice equal sharing of child care responsibilities (66%) and low proportion of respondents declares traditional care arrangements (22%).

Opinions about difficulties to reconcile employment and family

Difficulties in reconciling work engagements with family duties are often identified as one of the important factor influencing the family formation process. Responses to the question how respondents manage to reconcile family and work indicate that the percentage of respondents who can hardly reconcile family commitments with work engagements is rather high in the four cities under study. There are, however, visible differences between sexes and countries (Fig.16-17).

First of all, German and Polish males declare more frequently that they are able to reconcile well these duties contrary to males in Rome who more often than females complain about difficulties in reconciling work and family. In Ljubljana such gender differences do not exist. The highest share of respondents who manage well both employment and family is found for Slovenians, followed by Germans. There is no significant difference between Italian and Polish women in terms of the percentage who have/do not have serious problems in reconciling family responsibilities with work.

Interestingly, when we analyse reconciliation problems among respondents with the biggest load of duties (at least theoretically), i.e. persons with children, a proportion of persons who are able to reconcile well family commitments with work engagements increases, especially among men. The highest increase is observed for Italian and German men (Figure 18-19). That change may be associated with better organization of everyday life in case of a bigger load of duties. It may reflect also rationality of choices made by the respondents who deliberately made decisions to realize professional and family careers simultaneously.

In Figure 20 and 21 we can find an evidence for the above comments. The figures show that having more children not necessarily increases difficulties in reconciling family and work. In Germany and Slovenia proportions of respondents who are able to handle both job and family duties is higher among those who have more children. However, one should remember that strategies adopted to manage both activities are different: German women reduce markedly their working time (the lowest average working time) while Slovenians mothers rely on both partners' contribution to child care and care services.

Among number of possible reasons for difficulties to combine work and family respondents were asked to select three perceived as the most important. The most frequently perceived reasons are aggregated in two groups: "shift-work/work on weekends/too much burden" and "inflexibility of working hours" in all investigated populations. There are, however, some gender and country differences in opinions on main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family (Fig.22-23).

In Germany and Italy, both women and men indicate "shift-work/work on week-end/too much burden" as the first main obstacle and men do it more often than women. That reason is also the first main difficulty in Poland and Slovenia, however, women indicate it more frequently than men . In Germany and Italy inflexibility of working hours seems to be a more important problem for women than for men, contrary to Slovenia where it is more important for males than females. Inflexibility of working hours is equally important for women and men in Poland.

Generally, "shift-work/work on week-end/too much burden" is the main difficulty encountered in reconciling work and family by German and Italian men and Polish and Slovenian women. At the same time, Italians and Slovenians (both women and men) indicate inflexibility of working hours as one of the main difficulties in reconciling work and family much often than Germans and Poles.

The overall pattern of main difficulties to reconcile work engagement and family duties is generally preserved among couples with children – with a slight increase of importance of the "shift-work/work on week-end/too much burden" in Italy and a slight decrease of its importance in Poland (Fig.24).

This overall pattern is valid also for regular employees; again with a slight increase of importance of "inflexibility of working hours" in Italy and Poland (at the cost of the other considered obstacle – Fig.25).

Too small number of cases do not allow for analyses of other difficulties indicated by respondents as encountered in reconciling work and family in the four cities under study. Only for Warsaw we can find that the financial reason, i.e. "too high cost of paid care/lack of tax benefit" is indicated as the third main difficulty, especially among couples with children.

On the base of this analysis, we can conclude that in all countries – regardless some clear differences – flexibility of working hours might have a positive effect on relaxing tension between work and family duties and should be seriously considered as a policy measure supporting reconciliation of family responsibilities and work engagements.

Concluding remarks

Results of the survey confirmed impacts family has on labour market involvement of males of females, known from many studies in the field. Married males and fathers increase their labour market participation in terms of employment rates and working time, opposite to married females and mothers, except for Slovenia. Having children, especially small children, is a decisive factor for women's labour market participation – many of them either move to inactivity or reduce their working time. The percentage of inactive mothers with children up to 5 years of age ranges from 24% in Warsaw to 32-33% in Hamburg and Rome while these indicators for married women are 18% in Warsaw, 25% in Hamburg and 27% in Rome. The remarkable number of those who remain in employment reduce their working time, especially in Hamburg and Rome.

Incidence of part-time work and its patterns of use across countries allow to conclude that part-time jobs are not only demand-driven. They are also used for reconciliation purposes in Hamburg and Rome. And household time budget data confirm that conclusion: mothers aged 25-34 reduce their average time spent daily on employment by 1.5 hour in Rome and by 2.7 hour in Hamburg as compared to females of that age living in couple without children. Also German mothers aged 35-44 spend on average 2.3 hours less on paid work than women in couple without children while Italian mothers at that age reduce their daily working time by 0.8 hour on average.

Results of household time budget analysis reveals quite standard and predictable patterns by gender and household composition, which do not differ significantly between countries. Time allocated to house-keeping, paid work, care for family and leisure is similar for single person households and couples without children. They spend much of their time on paid work and leisure and less time on household and family activities. This situation is dramatically changed when children are present. Becoming a couple with children shifts time allocated to work and leisure to house-keeping and care for child. That shift applies to females, who carry most of responsibilities associated with childbearing. Our results confirm that a dual earner-double burden model practised by a great number of families. Employed mothers aged 25-34 spend daily 8 hours on average on household-keeping and caring for family in Rome, Warsaw, and Hamburg and 6.5 hours in Ljubljana. Their working time is reduced to 7 hours in Warsaw, 6 hours in Rome and 5 hours in Hamburg. Only Slovenian mothers spend on average 8 hours daily on paid work similar to fathers. Mothers aged 25-34 reduce their spare time to one hour daily except for German mothers who spend daily two hours on leisure.

Becoming a parent increases time spent on household activities and care for the family by men also, markedly less than in case of women. In Poland and Slovenia fathers aged 25-34 contribute around 4.6-4.7 hours daily to household responsibilities, one hour more than fathers in Italy and Germany. Except for Italy, that time is slightly higher than that of men aged 35-44. Such a change might serve as an indirect evidence that despite still existing mothers' overloading by family responsibilities, especially when children are present, the shift from the traditional division of labour within dual earner households towards less asymmetric distribution of duties is ongoing.

Declarations about sharing child care responsibilities by men and women reveal three country-specific patterns. Among German couples traditional child care arrangements prevail i.e. in the majority of couples there are women who mostly take care for children. In Italy and Poland the use of traditional and partner's care

arrangements is more balanced, however, women's claims show that dual earner couples practice more frequently traditional care arrangements than equal sharing care responsibilities. A great majority of Slovenian couples practices equal sharing of child care, accompanied by the highest usage of institutional child-care services as comparing to Italy and Poland.

Taking into account labour market indicators, household time budget and care arrangements brings us to conclusions that in Hamburg the modernized male breadwinner model is mostly practiced, followed by the male breadwinner model, especially when children are small. The dual earner model seems to be practiced predominantly in its double-burden of women form.

On the opposite, the dual earner–dual carer family model prevails in Ljubljana. Family-work arrangements used by Italian and Polish families seem to be situated between patterns revealed in Hamburg and Ljubljana. Undoubtedly, equal sharing of care duties is less practised among dual earner couples in Rome and Warsaw than in Ljubljana while the dual earner-double burden of women family is more in use. The modernised breadwinner model seems to be more practised in Rome than in Warsaw.

These conclusions seem to be confirmed also by findings about respondents' opinions on reconciliation of work and family. The highest share of respondents who manage well both employment and family is found among Slovenian respondents (both males and females), followed by Germans (more males than females). However, these findings result from different strategies adopted by families to combine family and employment: German women either reduce markedly their working time (the lowest average working time) or withdraw from the labour market (the strong decline in employment rate of women when children are present) while Slovenians mothers do not diminish their participation in employment and their working time and rely on both partners' contribution to child care and institutional care services. Similarities of family-work arrangements in Warsaw and Rome are illustrated by opinions about reconciliation - there is no marked difference between Italian and Polish women who claim either no difficulties or serious problems in reconciling family responsibilities with work. However, when children are present the share of women who declare troubles in reconciling work and family is slightly higher in Warsaw while declarations of Italian and Polish fathers are identical. Also the same percentage of mothers claim no problems in reconciling family responsibilities with work.

Opinions about work aspects which are supportive for work-family arrangements can be discussed in terms of people's demands on some job characteristics and difficulties people experience in combining both activities. Among several job characteristics under consideration (favourable financial aspects, flexible working arrangements, protection measures for women and family, and management aspects to reconcile work and family) favourable financial aspects are the most frequently selected by residents of Rome (64% of respondents' indications), Warsaw (87%) and Ljubljana (54%), irrespectively of sex, while flexible working arrangements are the most often chosen by Germans (74%), more frequently by females than males (81% vs. 68%). Flexible working arrangements are also important for Poles (66%) and Slovenians (26%) and slightly less relevant for Italians (15%). And consistently, inflexibility in working hours is indicated along with "shiftwork/work on week-end/too much burden" are indicated as the most important reasons for difficulties in reconciling work and family by both men and women in all cities under study.

It is worth to notice that Germans' preferences about job characteristics supportive for family choices differ from patterns found in other countries not only in terms of gender differences and ranking. The high indications given to each characteristics of job seem to illustrate comprehensive expectations about work, voiced strongly by more than 50% of respondents. Demands of Poles are also comprehensive, however, relevant indications are visibly lower (except for favourable financial aspects). It should be pointed out that protection measures for women and family are demanded by nearly 50% of Poles and Germans while Italian and Slovenian respondents do not prioritise them (less than 10%). In Ljubljana flexible working arrangements and

managements aspects with respect to reconciliation are more important compared to Italians who concentrate predominantly on favourable financial aspects.

A quite consistent picture of obstacles in reconciling family duties with work engagements (too much burden associated with work and inflexibility of working hours) revealed in four cities has remarkable policy implications. A prevailing share of respondents with children complains about too much work burden in all cities - from 61% (Poland) to 70% (Italy) and 74% (Germany, Slovenia). The percentage of respondents claiming inflexible working hours ranges from 35% (Germany, Poland) to 47% (Italy). This opinions should be seriously taken into account by both employers and policy makers; different measures aimed at decreasing this burden and increasing flexibility of work could bring about a significant lowering of tensions between professional and family careers of young and middle-age generations.

Sharing responsibilities between partners in taking care of children is a very important indicator of perception of gender roles in reconciling work and family and adaptation strategies by families. Results of the survey show clearly that the dual earner – dual carer model prevails in Ljubjana, accompanied by developed child care services. Couples in Hamburg represent more traditional approach to combining duties within families than one can presuppose referring to other findings at the national level (e.g. Kotowska et al., 2003, Muszyńska, 2004, 2007). In fact, in parallel to mothers' adaptation strategies (either leaving the labour market or reducing working time) traditional sharing of child care duties remains in a great majority of couples and is declared more often than in Rome and Warsaw. Presuming that mothers' labour market participation is subordinated to family responsibilities, as institutional settings support, seem to preserve the traditional pattern of family responsibilities. Reconciling strategies used by couples in Rome and Warsaw show less frequent traditional child care arrangements within family. At the same time, Germans are more satisfied with managing work and family than Italians and Poles.

These results, obtained for the most modernized segment of the labour market, confirm fully the opinion about relatively low structural and cultural incompatibilities between work and family in Slovenia presented in the first section. According to family models practiced by couples the cultural incompatibility seems to be stronger in Germany than in Poland and Italy, opposite to our supposition based on findings at the national level.

An evaluation of the institutional incompatibility levels across countries requires a detailed comparative analysis of policy measures described in national reports as well as an overview of country-wide indicators (labour market figures, coverage of policy measures, accessibility of institutional care etc.) It goes beyond a scope of our chapter. We limit our evaluation to perceived work related aspects supportive for reconciliation issue, which are components of the institutional setting, and to experienced difficulties in reconciling work and family, which refer to components needed to be improved. Summing up findings related to these domains one can state that there are clear indications for more flexible work arrangements as well as reducing work overload related to work organization (shift-work/work on weekend/too much burden). Such changes are demanded more or less in all countries. Development of child care at lower costs is indicated by Poles.

It is important to notice that employment of women brings about a slight shift of sharing child care duties by gender towards a less asymmetric pattern. However, keeping in mind that our analyses refer to the most modernized segment of the labour market, one can conclude that changes in family-work arrangements towards equal sharing both income provider's and carer's duties are progressing rather slowly. Undoubtedly, along with reducing the structural incompatibility by implementing flexible work arrangements as well as diminishing work burden measures supporting changes in gender roles and relations towards gender equality are also needed.

On the base of our results the following policy recommendations can be formulated:

- policies should focus on supporting equal sharing duties performed by men and women within and outside the family;
- measures aimed at relaxing tensions between the two competing careers: family and occupational, especially at the early stage of both of them, seem to play a crucial role in reconciling work and family. In particular, flexibility of working hours and reducing workload might help handling responsibilities related to employment and family;
- development of institutional care of adequate quality, accessibility of the institutions at reasonable costs are expected to have double effect: supporting labour market participation of mothers and a shift from the (modernized) male breadwinner model and dual earner - double burden of women model towards the dual earner - dual carer model;
- since both types of measures aimed at relaxing tensions between employment and family require adjustments in work organization the role of employers is becoming central also because that they can be taken into account as possible providers/supporters of institutional care services.

Notes

78 In the male breadwinner model, the husband is responsible for financially supporting the family, while the wife is responsible for taking care of the home and the children. in the modernised breadwinner model the father is still the main supporter of the family and where the mother's professional work stems from a need to supplement the household's income, yet is subordinate to her family duties. In the dual earner-double burden of women model both the husband and the wife bear responsibility for supporting the family, but the woman continues to be responsible for handling household duties. The dual earner-dual carer model involves two equally working parents who are jointly responsible for family duties.

79 Number of cases by marital status and employment status are above threshold levels for married persons only.

80 Due to small numbers of cases it was impossible to perform a descriptive analyses for employment status, education and family related variables taken jointly.

81 For instance, data on institutional child care for children under 6 were not collected in Germany.

82 Let us repeat that due to formal limitations these results have to be considered with some reservation.

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APPPENDIX

Table 1 – Respondents by employment status, sex and family characteristics, Germany

Family characteristics	Employment Status							
	Males				Females			
	employed	inactive	not employed	Total	employed	inactive	not employed	Total
By marital status								
Never married								
freq	161654	11966	6978	180598	111773	18700	7465	137938
(%)	*89,5*	*6,6*	*3,9*	*100,0*	*81,0*	*13,6*	*5,4*	*100,0*
Married								
freq	87104	3904	1817	92825	75932	27489	5584	109005
(%)	*93,8*	*4,2*	*2,0*	*100,0*	*69,7*	*25,2*	*5,1*	*100,0*
Other								
freq	23739	1956	-	25695	28546	2785	587	31918
(%)	*92,4*	*7,6*	-	*100,0*	*89,4*	*8,7*	*1,8*	*100,0*
By presence of children								
Without children								
freq	113354	8096	6385	127835	63976	3984	4020	71980
(%)	*88,7*	*6,3*	*5,0*	*100,0*	*88,9*	*5,5*	*5,6*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	158584	9730	2410	170724	152275	44991	9616	206882
(%)	*92,9*	*5,7*	*1,4*	*100,0*	*73,6*	*21,7*	*4,6*	*100,0*
By presence of children aged up to 5 years								
Without children								
freq	223679	15000	8236	246915	172017	26904	11893	210814
(%)	*90,6*	*6,1*	*3,3*	*100,0*	*81,6*	*12,8*	*5,6*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	48818	2826	559	52203	44234	22071	1743	68048
(%)	*93,5*	*5,4*	*1,1*	*100,0*	*65,0*	*32,4*	*2,6*	*100,0*
total								
freq	272497	17826	8795	299118	216251	48974	13636	278861
(%)	*91,1*	*6,0*	*2,9*	*100,0*	*77,5*	*17,6*	*4,9*	*100,0*

Table 2 – Respondents by employment status, sex and family characteristics, Italy

Family characteristics	Employment Status							
	males				Females			
	employed	inactive	not employed	Total	employed	inactive	not employed	Total
By marital status								
Never married								
freq	178018	40402	19245	237665	142263	43813	15051	201127
(%)	*74,9*	*17,0*	*8,1*	*100,0*	*70,7*	*21,8*	*7,5*	*100,0*
Married								
freq	164200	2931	3227	170358	143941	56518	10117	210576
(%)	*96,4*	*1,7*	*1,9*	*100,0*	*68,4*	*26,8*	*4,8*	*100,0*
Other								
freq	12960	-	-	12960	22174	5509	1118	28801
(%)	*100,0*	-	-	*100,0*	*77,0*	*19,1*	*3,9*	*100,0*
By presence of children								
Without children								
freq	220121	38866	19245	278232	177362	49527	16510	243399
(%)	*79,1*	*14,0*	*6,9*	*100,0*	*72,9*	*20,3*	*6,8*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	135056	4466	3227	142749	131017	56312	9776	197105
(%)	*94,6*	*3,1*	*2,3*	*100,0*	*66,5*	*28,6*	*5,0*	*100,0*
By presence of children aged up to 5 years								
Without children								
freq	286920	41838	22472	351230	248354	74858	22464	345676
(%)	*81,7*	*11,9*	*6,4*	*100,0*	*71,8*	*21,7*	*6,5*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	68257	1494	-	69751	60024	30982	3822	94828
(%)	*97,9*	*2,1*	-	*100,0*	*63,3*	*32,7*	*4,0*	*100,0*
total								
freq	355178	43333	22472	420983	308378	105840	26286	440504
(%)	*84,4*	*10,3*	*5,3*	*100,0*	*70,0*	*24,0*	*6,0*	*100,0*

Table 3 – Respondents by employment status, sex and family characteristics, Poland

Family characteristics	Employment Status							
	males				Females			
	employed	inactive	not employed	Total	employed	inactive	not employed	Total
By marital status								
Never married								
freq	50344	8062	14975	73381	51470	4631	7690	63791
(%)	*68,6*	*11,0*	*20,4*	*100,0*	*80,7*	*7,3*	*12,1*	*100,0*
Married								
freq	140243	6110	7623	153976	122062	28195	9989	160246
(%)	*91,1*	*4,0*	*5,0*	*100,0*	*76,2*	*17,6*	*6,2*	*100,0*
Other								
freq	6565		3811	10376	18284	1910	6296	26490
(%)	*63,3*		*36,7*	*100,0*	*69,0*	*7,2*	*23,8*	*100,0*
By presence of children								
Without children								
freq	88836	12074	19725	120635	77060	5618	6909	89587
(%)	*73,6*	*10,0*	*16,4*	*100,0*	*86,0*	*6,3*	*7,7*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	108317	2098	6684	117099	114755	29118	17066	160939
(%)	*92,5*	*1,8*	*5,7*	*100,0*	*71,3*	*18,1*	*10,6*	*100,0*
By presence of children aged up to 5 years								
Without children								
freq	140661	14172	23537	178370	145662	17377	14805	177844
(%)	*78,9*	*7,9*	*13,2*	*100,0*	*81,9*	*9,8*	*8,3*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	56492		2872	59364	46154	17359	9170	72683
(%)	*95,2*		*4,8*	*100,0*	*63,5*	*23,9*	*12,6*	*100,0*
total								
freq	197152	14172	26409	237733	191816	34736	23975	250527
(%)	*82,9*	*6,0*	*11,1*	*100,0*	*76,6*	*13,9*	*9,6*	*100,0*

Table 4 – Respondents by employment status, sex and family characteristics, Slovenia

Family characteristics	Employment Status							
	males				Females			
	employed	inactive	not employed	Total	employed	inactive	not employed	Total
By marital status								
Never married								
freq	15324	2154	2649	20127	12175	1879	1772	15826
(%)	*76,1*	*10,7*	*13,2*	*100,0*	*76,9*	*11,9*	*11,2*	*100,0*
Married								
freq	17342	441	350	18133	18952	742	1115	20809
(%)	*95,6*	*2,4*	*1,9*	*100,0*	*91,1*	*3,6*	*5,4*	*100,0*
Other								
freq	2011		349	2360	2577	339	147	3063
(%)	*85,2*		*14,8*	*100,0*	*84,1*	*11,1*	*4,8*	*100,0*
By presence of children								
Without children								
freq	16429	2253	2649	21331	12566	2015	2055	16636
(%)	*77,0*	*10,6*	*12,4*	*100,0*	*75,5*	*12,1*	*12,4*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	18079	342	699	19120	21089	945	979	23013
(%)	*94,6*	*1,8*	*3,7*	*100,0*	*91,6*	*4,1*	*4,3*	*100,0*
By presence of children aged up to 5 years								
Without children								
freq	26298	2483	3348	32129	26396	2506	2203	31105
(%)	*81,9*	*7,7*	*10,4*	*100,0*	*84,9*	*8,1*	*7,1*	*100,0*
With children								
freq	8378	112		8490	7308	454	831	8593
(%)	*98,7*	*1,3*		*100,0*	*85,0*	*5,3*	*9,7*	*100,0*
total								
freq	34677	2595	3348	40620	33704	2960	3034	39698
(%)	*85,4*	*6,4*	*8,2*	*100,0*	*84,9*	*7,5*	*7,6*	*100,0*

Table 5 . Estimates of logistic regression for employment status (Y = 1- employed, 0- inactive and unemployed)

	Germany		Italy		Poland		Slovenia	
	B	**Std Err.**	**B**	**Std Err.**	**B**	**Std Err.**	**B**	**Std Err.**
	males							
MARITAL STATUS								
Never married	Dropped							
Married	0.400	0.458	2.735***	0.606	0.841**	0.343	1.213**	0.472
other	0.466	0.598	7.302	13.776	-0.133	0.514	0.253	0.576
PRESENCE OF CHILDREN								
Without children	Dropped							
With children	0.337	0.380	0.590	0.579	1.093***	0.370	0.837**	0.427
EDUCATION								
University	Dropped							
other	-1.116***	0.399	0.585**	0.249	-1.487***	0.283	-0.920***	0.286
constant	2.816***	0.388	1.468***	0.204	1.564***	0.258	1.638***	0.248
N	509		482		374		345	
LOG-LIKELIHOOD	300.291		462.511		365.780		352.634	
R^2 (NAGELKERKE)	0.055		0.189		0.243		0.183	
females								
Marital status								
Never married	Dropped							
Married	-0.254	0.259	0.350	0.263	-0.648*	0.359	0.321	0.371
other	1.020**	0.478	0.838*	0.439	0.423	0.453	-0.369	0.551
Presence of children								
Without children	Dropped							
With children	-0.937***	0.347	-0.468*	0.259	-1.081***	0.341	1.278***	0.369
Education								
University	Dropped							
other	-0.438*	0.242	-0.717***	0.191	-0.857***	0.223	-1.513***	0.287
constant	2.294***	0.328	1.307***	0.172	1.841***	0.248	1.802***	0.250
N	497		785		617		618	
LOG-LIKELIHOOD	492.210		766.705		521.358		348.675	
R^2 (NAGELKERKE)	0.078		0.045		0.096		0.194	

females								
MARITAL STATUS								
Never married	Dropped							
Married	-0.386	0.250	0.185	0.201	0.297	0.287	1.249***	0.305
other	0.737	0.469	0.594	0.397	-0.204	0.396	0.453	0.502
PRESENCE OF SMALL CHILDREN (AGED UP TO 5)								
Without children	Dropped							
With children	-0.695***	0.262	-0.481**	0.226	-1.169***	0.244	-0.474	0.348
EDUCATION								
University	Dropped							
other	-0.543**	0.245	-0.772***	0.192	-1.083***	0.228	-1.397***	0.279
constant	1.902***	0.247	1.330***	0.174	1.880***	0.249	1.974***	0.252
N	497		785		617		619	
LOG-LIKELIHOOD	493.122		765.563		509.153		359.418	
R^2 (NAGELKERKE)	0.075		0.047		0.129		0.159	

* - p<0.1; ** - p<0.05; *** - p<0.01

Table 6. Main characteristics a job should have to support long-term family choices

Country	Favourable financial aspects	Flexible working arrangements	Protection measures for women and family	Management aspects to reconcile work and family
	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)	(% on cases)
Germany				
Male	67 .0	**68 .2**	41 .6	54 .9
Female	59 .4	**80 .7**	61 .8	58 .6
Total	63 .3	**74 .3**	51 .4	56 .7
Italy				
Male	**64 .6**	13 .5	6 .5	8 .8
Female	**64 .4**	17 .0	12 .0	11 .2
Total	**64 .5**	15 .3	9 .3	10 .0
Poland				
Male	**87 .7**	63 .0	45 .8	33 .7
Female	**85 .9**	69 .1	54 .6	43 .2
Total	**86 .8**	66 .1	50 .3	38 .6
Slovenia				
Male	**56 .3**	23 .2	7 .2	32 .7
Female	**51 .8**	28 .7	11 .9	36 .2
Total	**54 .0**	26 .0	9 .5	34 .5

Table 7. OLS regression models with time in hours spent by employed persons on various activities as dependent variables. Independent variables included as dummies: country, gender, household composition, age (10 year age groups)

PAID WORK	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|
Poland	0,66	0,11	5,87	0,00
Germany	(dropped)			
Italy	0,01	0,11	0,07	0,94
Slovenia	0,80	0,11	7,48	0,00
male	0,78	0,08	10,05	0,00
female	(dropped)			
living with family of origin	-0,18	0,18	-0,97	0,33
living alone	0,45	0,16	2,82	0,01
living in couple	0,41	0,17	2,34	0,02
living in couple with children	-0,25	0,16	-1,56	0,12
other	(dropped)			
age 25-34	-0,05	0,08	-0,62	0,53
age 35-44	(dropped)			
constans	6,76	0,16	41,86	0,00

HOUSE-KEEPING	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|
Poland	0,19	0,06	3,49	0,00
Germany	(dropped)			
Italy	-0,07	0,05	-1,40	0,16
Slovenia	0,19	0,05	3,55	0,00
male	-0,58	0,04	-15,17	0,00
female	(dropped)			
living with family of origin	-0,47	0,09	-5,31	0,00
living alone	-0,46	0,08	-5,88	0,00
living in couple	-0,16	0,08	-1,94	0,05
living in couple with children	0,24	0,08	3,11	0,00
other	(dropped)			
age 25-34	-0,12	0,04	-2,84	0,01
age 35-44	(dropped)			
constans	1,81	0,08	22,89	0,00

CARE FOR FAMILY	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|
Poland	-0,20	0,11	-1,87	0,06
Germany	(dropped)			
Italy	0,86	0,10	8,50	0,00
Slovenia	0,09	0,10	0,85	0,40
male	-0,69	0,07	-9,32	0,00
female	(dropped)			

LEISURE	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|
Poland	0,12	0,12	1,00	0,32
Germany	(dropped)			
Italy	-1,18	0,11	-10,77	0,00
Slovenia	-0,90	0,11	-8,16	0,00
male	0,53	0,08	6,63	0,00
female	(dropped)			

Table 8. OLS regression models with time in hours spent by employed persons on various activities as dependent variables. Interaction effects between country and gender

	PAID WORK				HOUSE-KEEPING				CARE FOR FAMILY				LEISRUE			
	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|	Coef.	Std.Err.	t	P>|t|
Living alone					**Living alone**				**Living alone**				**Living alone**			
females Poland	0,61	0,13	4,60	0,00	-0,44	0,07	-6,47	0,00	-2,60	0,14	-18,85	0,00	2,49	0,14	17,68	0,00
females Germany	0,25	0,19	1,28	0,20	-0,58	0,10	-5,82	0,00	-2,52	0,20	-12,43	0,00	1,73	0,21	8,34	0,00
females Italy	-0,43	0,21	-2,02	0,04	-0,17	0,11	-1,57	0,12	-1,42	0,22	-6,40	0,00	0,20	0,23	0,87	0,39
females Slovenia	0,84	0,21	3,91	0,00	-0,14	0,11	-1,24	0,22	-2,12	0,22	-9,44	0,00	0,70	0,23	3,06	0,00
males Poland	0,84	0,36	2,30	0,02	-0,58	0,19	-3,08	0,00	-2,25	0,38	-5,93	0,00	1,59	0,39	4,11	0,00
males Germany	0,62	0,16	3,97	0,00	-0,48	0,08	-5,98	0,00	-2,44	0,16	-14,87	0,00	2,20	0,17	13,09	0,00
males Italy	0,56	0,23	2,41	0,02	-0,66	0,12	-5,46	0,00	-2,06	0,24	-8,43	0,00	0,57	0,25	2,27	0,02
males Slovenia	0,54	0,28	1,92	0,06	-0,44	0,14	-3,07	0,00	-1,94	0,29	-6,62	0,00	0,96	0,30	3,19	0,00
Const.	7,34	0,05	161,86	0,00	1,56	0,02	66,93	0,00	2,75	0,05	58,06	0,00	2,47	0,05	51,01	0,00
Living in couple					**Living in couple**				**Living in couple**				**Living in couple**			
females Poland	0,01	0,32	0,04	0,97	0,40	0,17	2,41	0,02	-1,34	0,37	-3,65	0,00	0,94	0,36	2,58	0,01
females Germany	0,46	0,27	1,74	0,08	-0,24	0,14	-1,71	0,09	-1,63	0,30	-5,37	0,00	0,50	0,30	1,66	0,10
females Italy	-0,27	0,24	-1,14	0,26	0,03	0,12	0,23	0,82	0,65	0,27	2,40	0,02	-1,02	0,27	-3,76	0,00
females Slovenia	0,42	0,25	1,72	0,09	0,34	0,13	2,65	0,01	-0,03	0,28	-0,11	0,91	-0,18	0,28	-0,66	0,51
males Poland	1,03	0,41	2,49	0,01	0,01	0,21	0,03	0,98	-0,49	0,47	-1,04	0,30	0,87	0,47	1,87	0,06
males Germany	0,43	0,20	2,13	0,03	-0,38	0,11	-3,61	0,00	-1,68	0,23	-7,26	0,00	1,14	0,23	4,94	0,00
males Italy	0,71	0,33	2,14	0,03	-0,30	0,17	-1,75	0,08	0,81	0,38	2,15	0,03	-0,27	0,38	-0,72	0,47
males Slovenia	0,57	0,33	1,70	0,09	-0,32	0,17	-1,86	0,06	-0,13	0,38	-0,35	0,73	0,04	0,38	0,10	0,92
Const.	7,43	0,04	180,99	0,00	1,44	0,02	67,49	0,00	2,12	0,05	45,44	0,00	2,94	0,05	63,34	0,00
Living in couple with children					**Living in couple with children**				**Living in couple with children**				**Living in couple with children**			
females Poland	-0,75	0,20	-3,77	0,00	1,45	0,10	14,78	0,00	3,12	0,20	15,53	0,00	-1,81	0,22	-8,29	0,00
females Germany	-2,22	0,18	-12,14	0,00	1,04	0,09	11,57	0,00	3,84	0,18	20,83	0,00	-1,52	0,20	-7,57	0,00
females Italy	-1,52	0,16	-9,22	0,00	0,94	0,08	11,59	0,00	3,80	0,17	22,86	0,00	-2,42	0,18	-13,42	0,00
females Slovenia	0,00	0,14	0,03	0,98	1,06	0,07	14,86	0,00	2,36	0,15	16,20	0,00	-2,32	0,16	-14,69	0,00
males Poland	0,33	0,27	1,25	0,21	0,28	0,13	2,12	0,03	1,67	0,27	6,23	0,00	-1,00	0,29	-3,41	0,00
males Germany	0,48	0,19	2,48	0,01	-0,23	0,10	-2,42	0,02	1,14	0,20	5,82	0,00	-0,89	0,21	-4,17	0,00
males Italy	0,36	0,22	1,65	0,10	-0,34	0,11	-3,09	0,00	2,10	0,22	9,45	0,00	-1,91	0,24	-7,90	0,00
males Slovenia	0,48	0,20	2,44	0,02	0,14	0,10	1,44	0,15	1,62	0,20	8,13	0,00	-1,69	0,22	-7,78	0,00
Const.	7,63	0,04	172,59	0,00	1,21	0,02	55,62	0,00	1,20	0,04	26,77	0,00	3,56	0,05	73,44	0,00

Table 9. Average time spent by employed persons on housekeeping, care for the family, leisure and paid work, Poland

Table 10. Average time spent by employed persons on housekeeping, care for the family, leisure and paid work, Germany

		Males				Females			
Age	Household composition	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work
25-34	Living with family of origin	1,03	0,29	5,35	7,57	1,87	1,04	3,29	7,81
	Living alone	0,89	0,63	4,32	7,84	1,07	0,09	5,06	7,89
	Living in couple	1,42	1,68	3,69	9,38	1,98	0,94	3,54	6,87
	Living in couple with children	1,03	3,61	3,07	8,66	2,93	5,35	1,16	6,81
	Other	1,53	1,37	3,79	8,83	2,30	4,83	1,55	6,88
35-44	Living with family of origin	2,00	2,00	5,00	8,00	2,26	2,88	3,73	8,37
	Living alone	1,09	0,17	4,29	9,60	2,30	2,41	2,87	8,13
	Living in couple	1,76	1,00	4,00	5,02	1,83	0,08*	4,03	9,03
	Living in couple with children	1,69	2,36	2,40	7,61	2,55	3,41	2,32	6,77

* that 'strange' result may be attributed to the small number of cases (10 women)

		Males				Females			
Age	Household composition	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work
25-34	Living with family of origin	1,37	0,48	3,61	5,22	1,00	0,00	5,00	7,52
	Living alone	1,06	0,20	4,56	7,94	0,99	0,13	4,13	7,29
	Living in couple	1,01	0,27	4,22	7,88	1,08	0,19	3,80	7,74
	Living in couple with children	1,08	2,71	2,49	7,94	1,96	6,06	2,13	5,00
	Other	0,83	0,76	3,95	8,50	1,72	3,65	1,43	5,73
35-44	Living with family of origin								
	Living alone	1,07	0,41	4,95	7,71	0,93	0,29	4,28	7,93
	Living in couple	1,12	0,63	4,12	7,83	1,29	0,81	2,86	7,81
	Living in couple with children	0,91	2,08	2,75	8,09	2,39	4,64	1,99	5,54
	Other	1,31	0,62	3,50	9,69	1,84	3,91	2,76	5,56

Table 11. Average time spent by employed persons on housekeeping, care for the family, leisure and paid work, Italy

		Males				Females			
Age	Household composition	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work
25-34	Living with family of origin	0,54	1,63	3,66	7,57	1,07	2,12	2,91	6,77
	Living alone	0,92	0,64	3,29	7,91	1,44	1,19	2,65	6,80
	Living in couple	1,19	2,86	3,01	8,11	1,44	2,89	1,79	7,36
	Living in couple with children	0,52	3,00	1,36	8,14	2,32	5,59	0,92	6,04
	Other	0,65	2,57	3,75	7,72	1,05	2,11	2,02	6,92
35-44	Living with family of origin	0,76	2,2	3,5	7,19	0,75	1,65	2,09	6,83
	Living alone	0,94	0,8	2,7	7,97	1,37	1,43	2,60	6,97
	Living in couple	1,09	3,0	2,2	8,37	1,47	2,72	2,05	6,93
	Living in couple with children	0,91	3,3	1,7	7,98	2,11	4,84	1,23	6,13
	Other	1,05	2,1	1,8	7,07	1,87	4,41	1,27	6,68

Table 12 . Average time spent by employed persons on housekeeping, care for the family, leisure and paid work, Slovenia

		Males				Females			
Age	Household composition	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work	House-keeping	Care for the family	Spare time	Paid work
25-34	Living with family of origin	0,93	1,25	4,15	7,43	1,35	1,34	3,16	7,55
	Living alone	1,07	0,98	3,79	7,67	1,41	0,77	3,15	8,30
	Living in couple	0,94	1,87	3,13	7,88	1,76	2,47	2,74	7,95
	Living in couple with children	1,50	3,27	1,18	8,04	2,24	4,10	0,94	7,92
	Other	1,56	4,35	1,00	9,39	2,06	4,23	1,77	8,06
35-44	Living with family of origin	0,83	2,2	2,9	6,30	1,87	2,37	2,03	7,88
	Living alone	1,18	0,4	2,6	8,50	1,59	0,51	3,13	8,04
	Living in couple	1,55	2,0	2,3	8,77	1,89	1,32	2,41	7,28
	Living in couple with children	1,30	2,6	2,1	8,13	2,31	3,27	1,34	7,51
	Other	1,13	1,3	3,0	8,00	2,00	2,30	1,56	8,38

Table 13 - 95% confidence interval for mean of monthly amount spent for services for children, among respondents using public services (in euro)

Poland	93,60 - 130,99
Italy	98,60 - 100,47
Slovenia	174,85 - 218,21

Table 14 - 95% confidence interval for mean of monthly amount spent for services for children, among using private services (in euro)

Poland	99,37 – 205,87
Italy	276,15 – 282,39
Slovenia	245,07 – 342,12

Figura 1 - Employment status by marital status, males

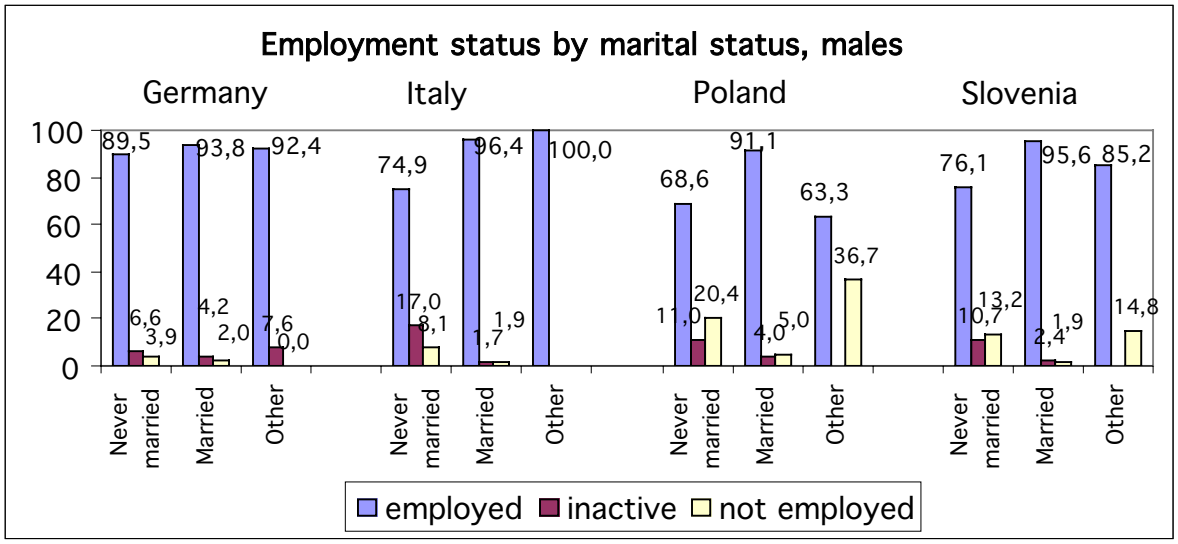


Figura 2 - Employment status by marital status, females

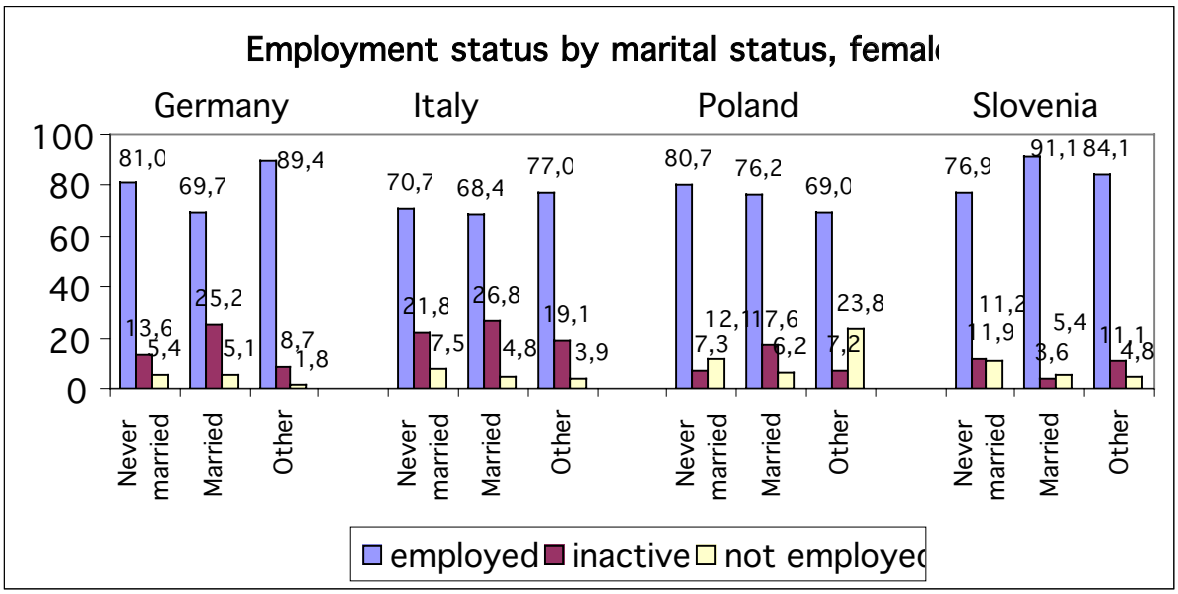


Figure 3 - Employment status by presence of children, males

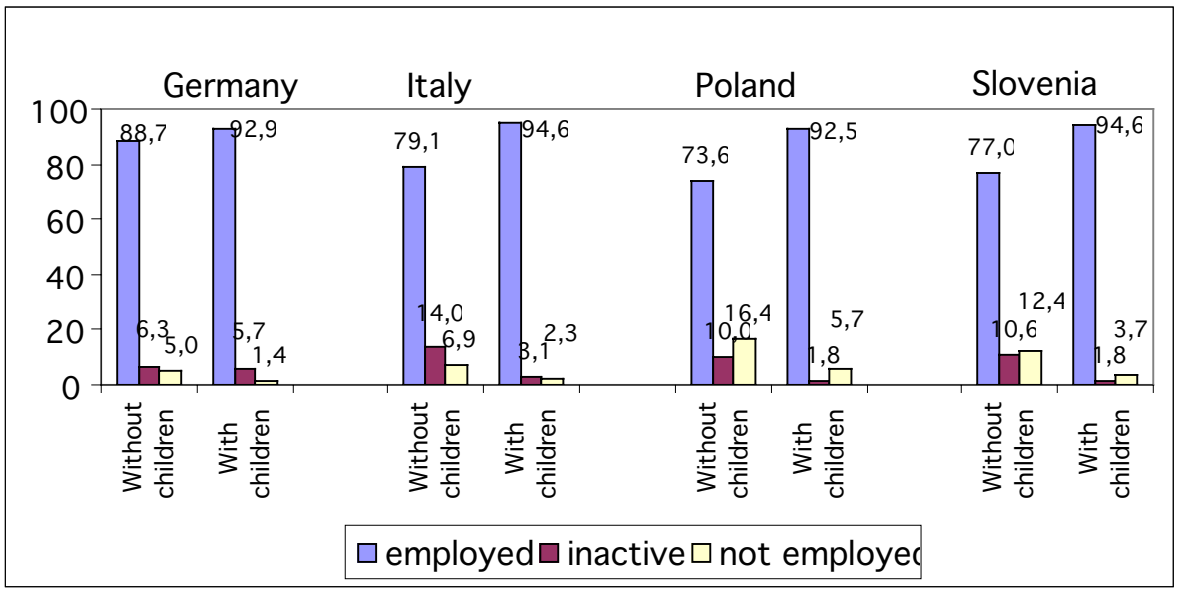


Figure 4 - Employment status by presence of children, females

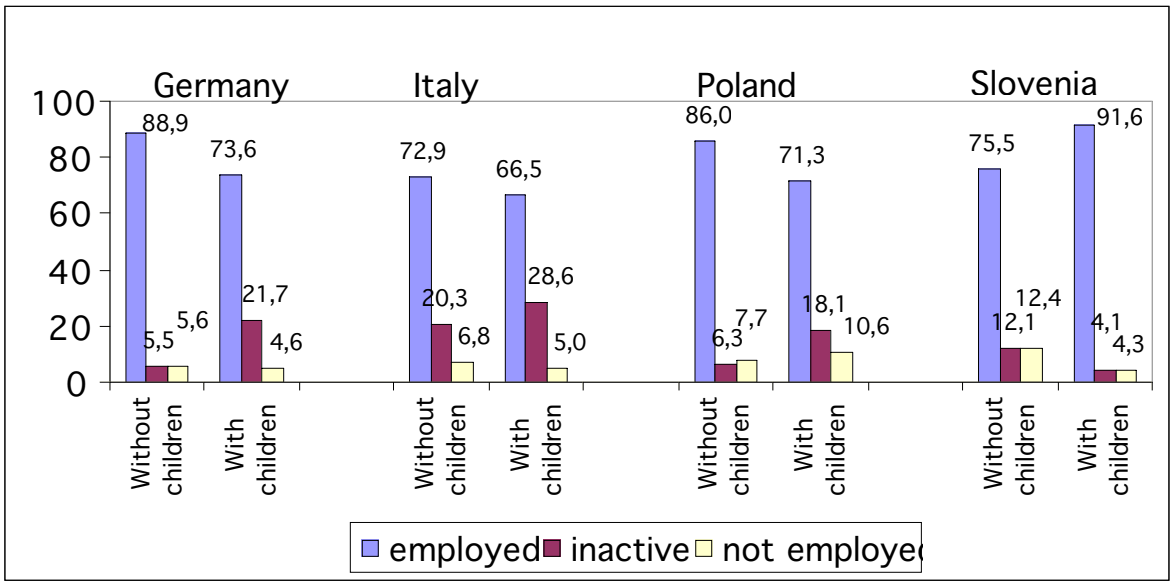


Figure 5

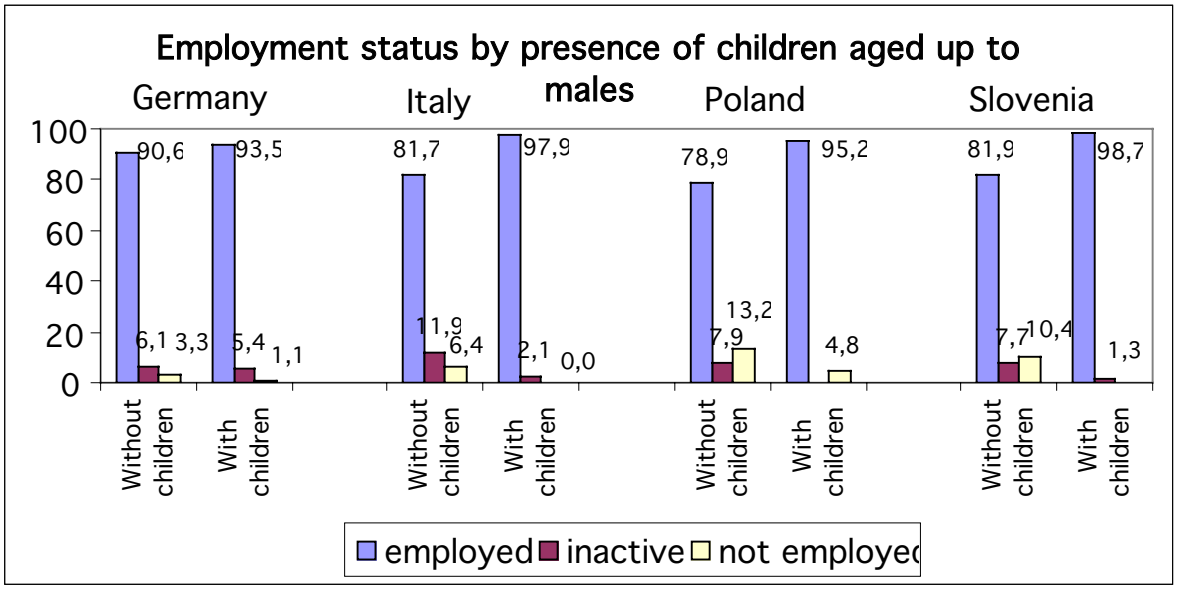


Figure 6

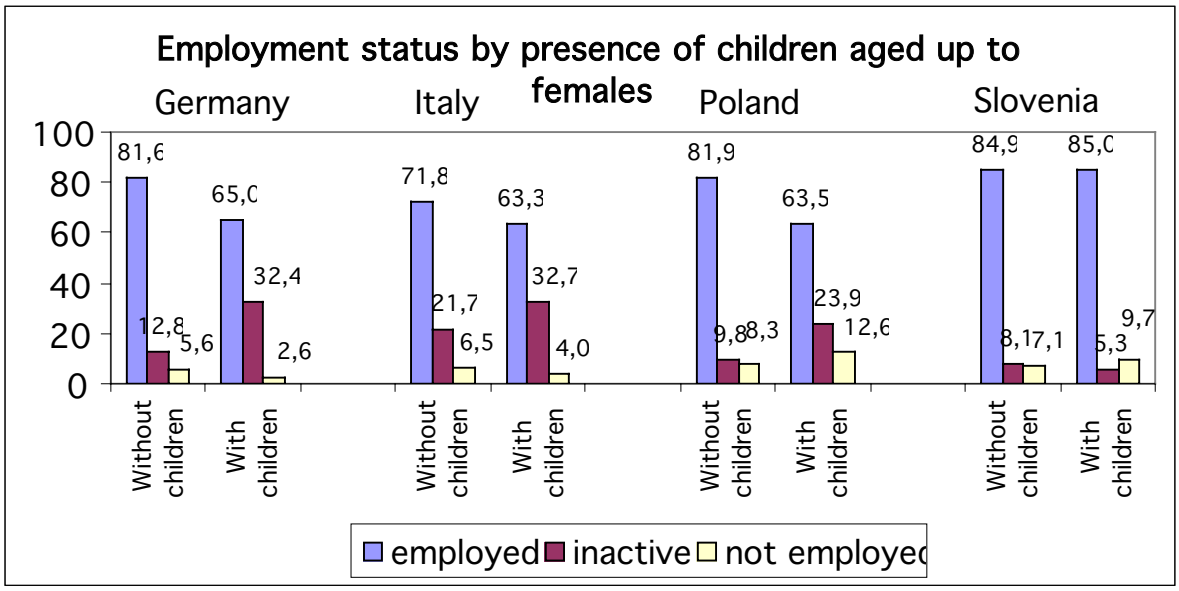


Figure 7

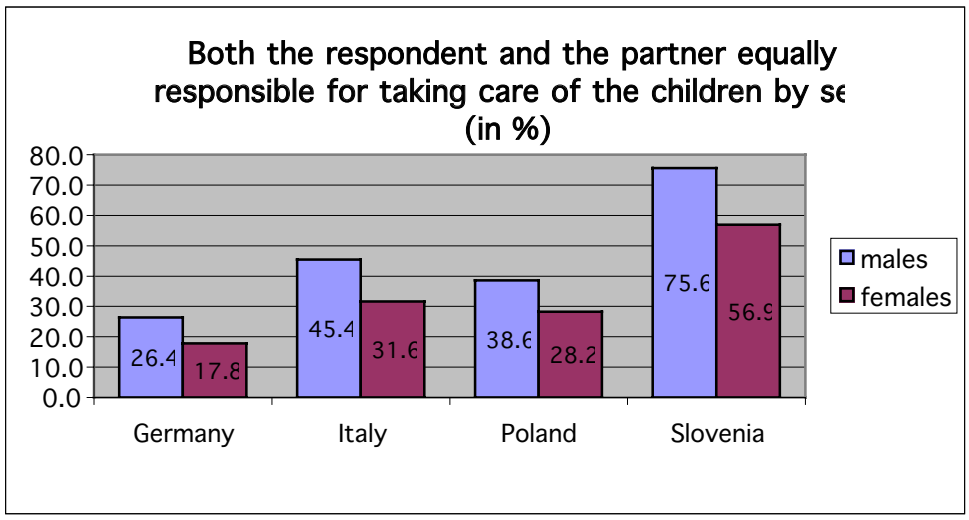
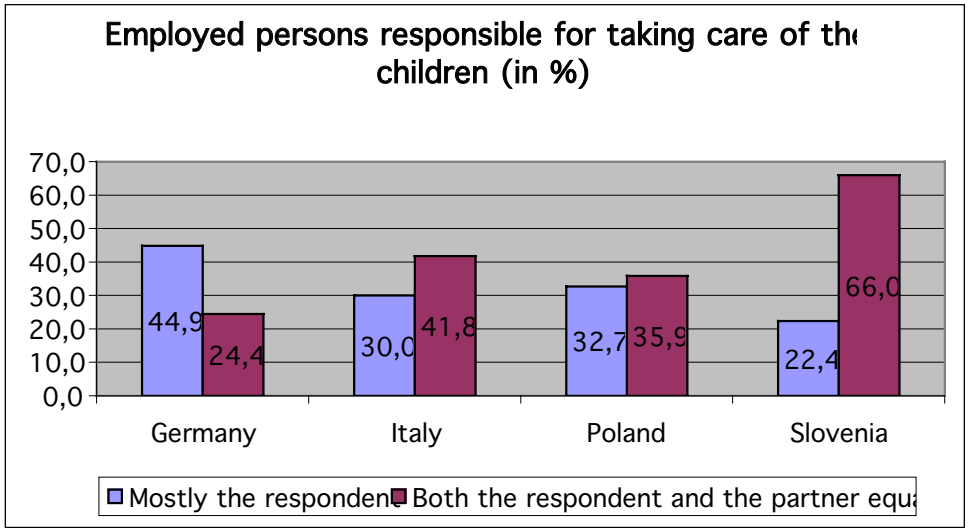
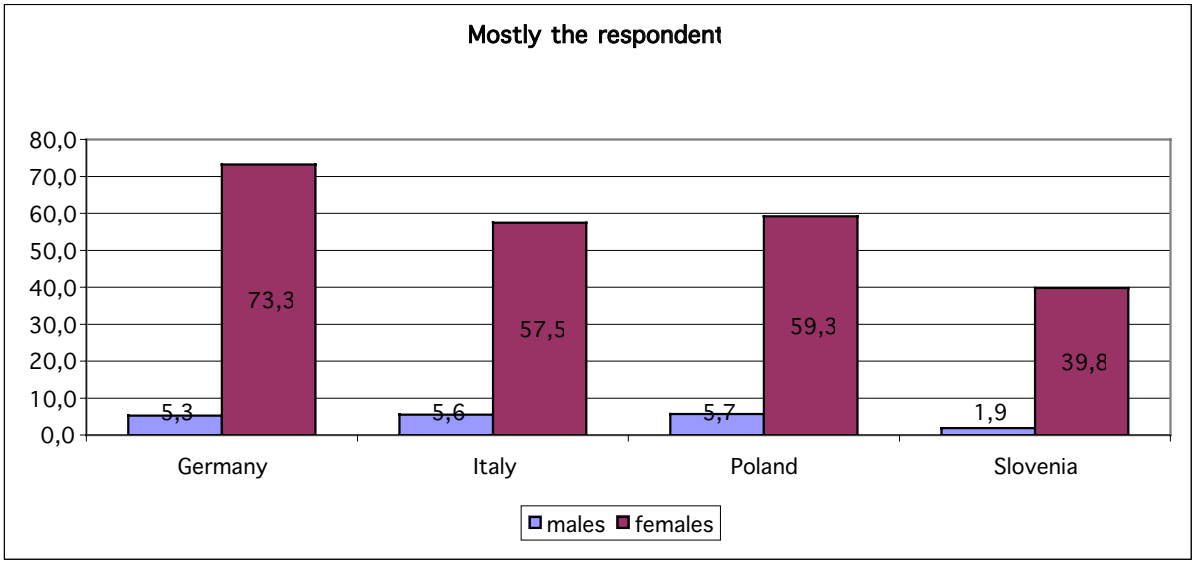
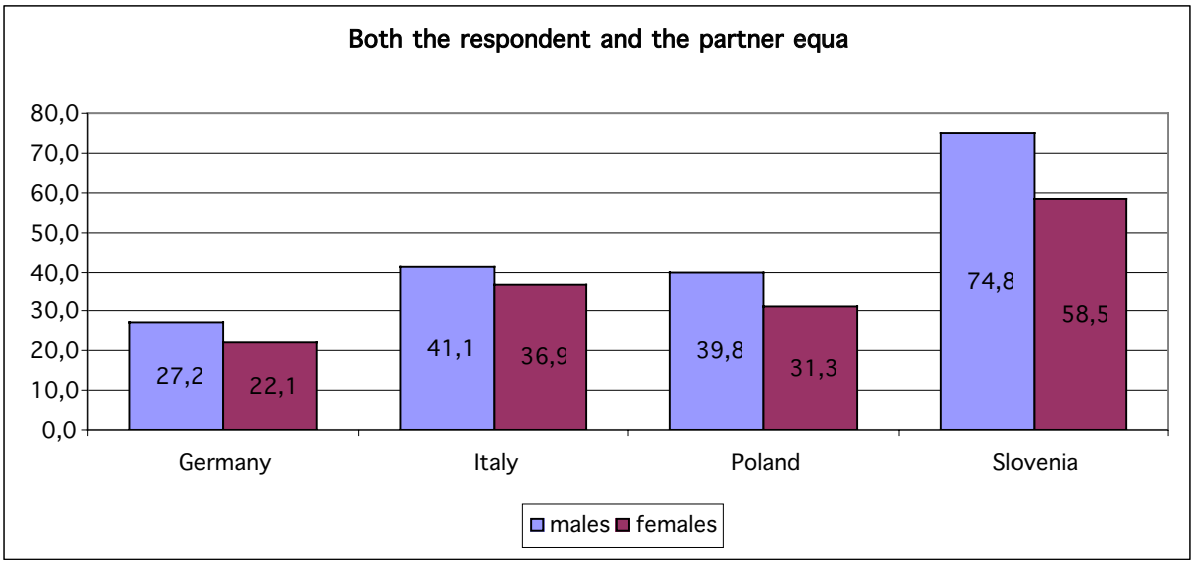


Figure 8

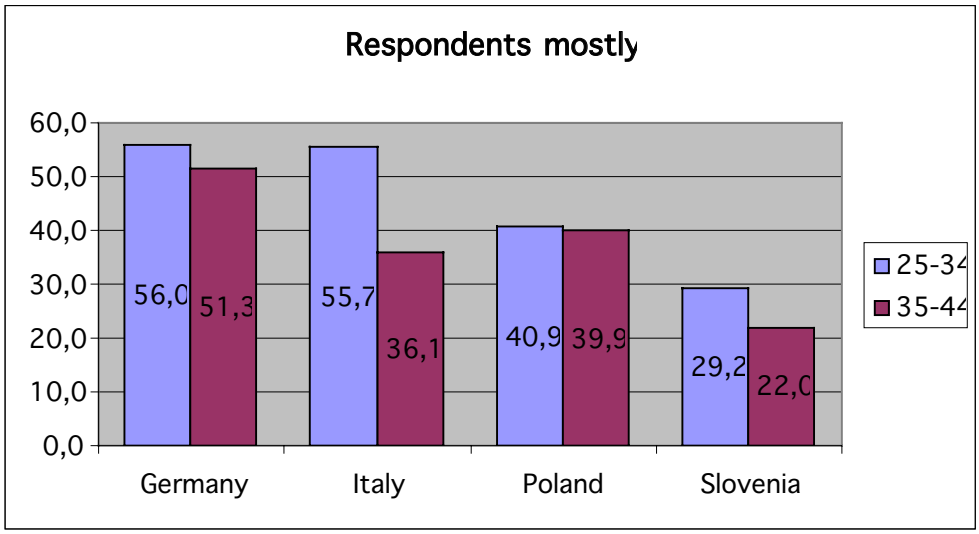


Figures 9-10 - Responsibility for taking care of the children by sex, employed persons (%)





Figures 11-12 - Responsibility for taking care of the children by age (in %)



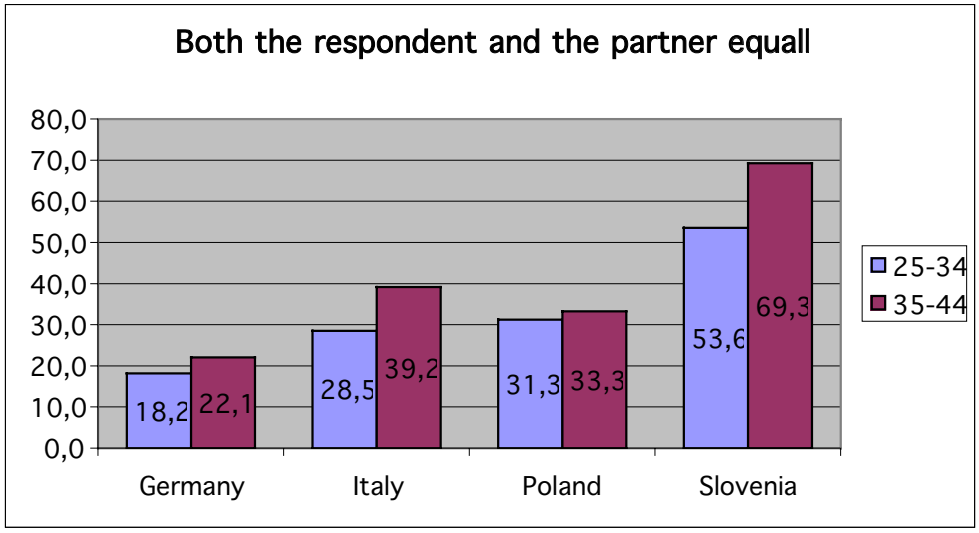


Figure 13 - Sector of services currently used by couples with children aged to 5 years (In %)

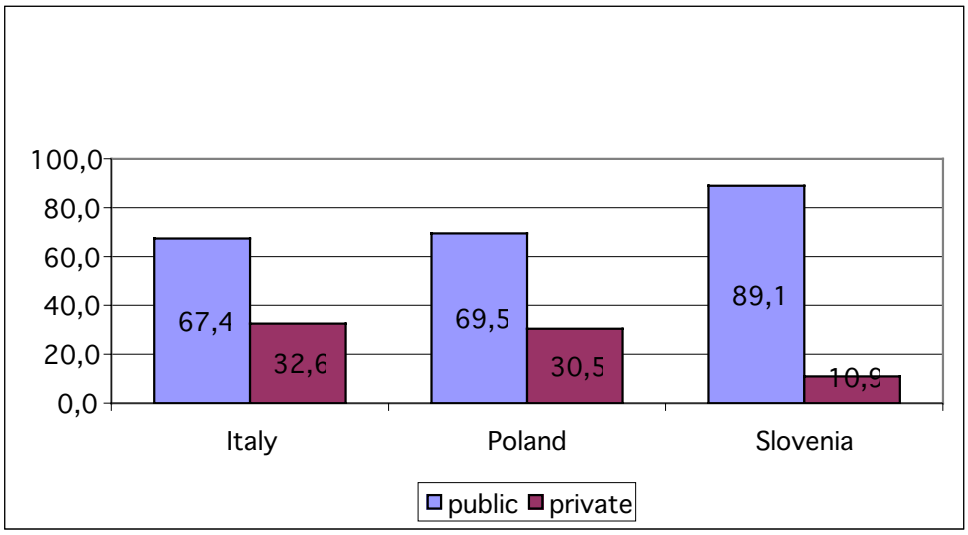


Figure 14 - Sector of services currently used among employed women with children aged to 5 years (In %)

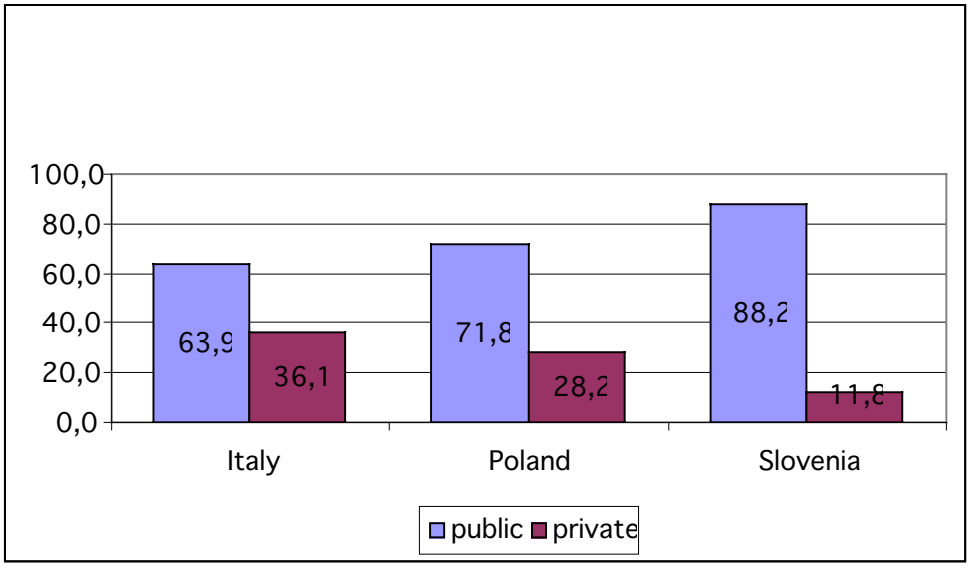
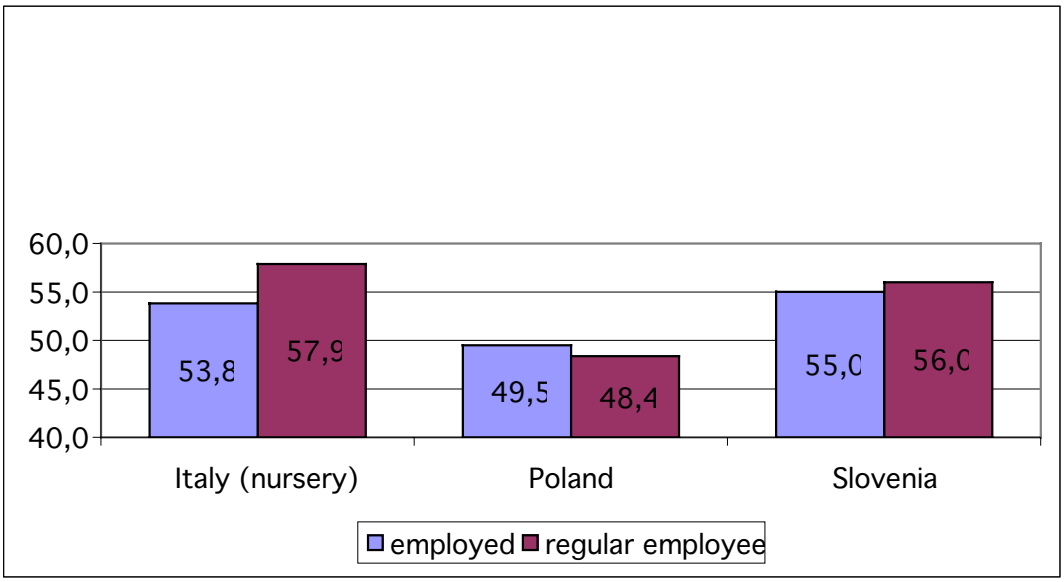
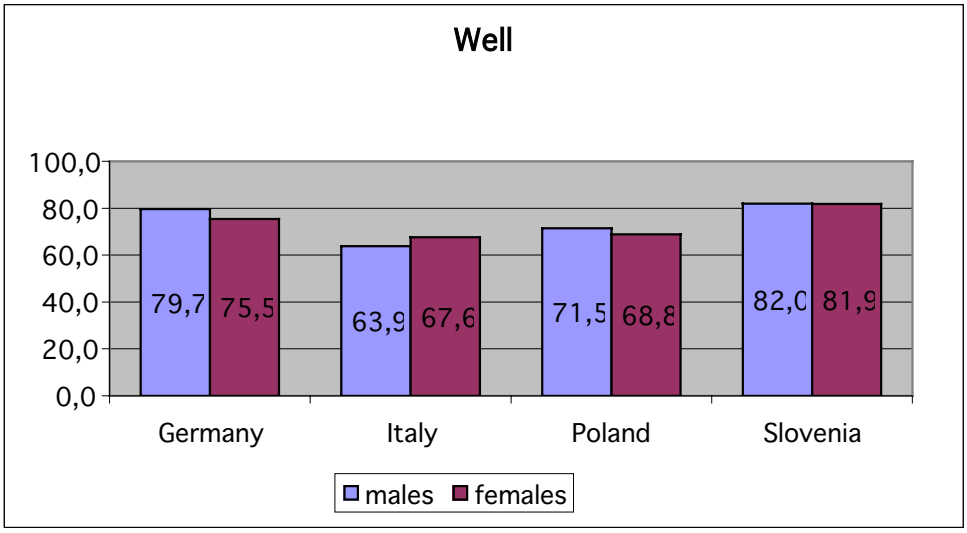
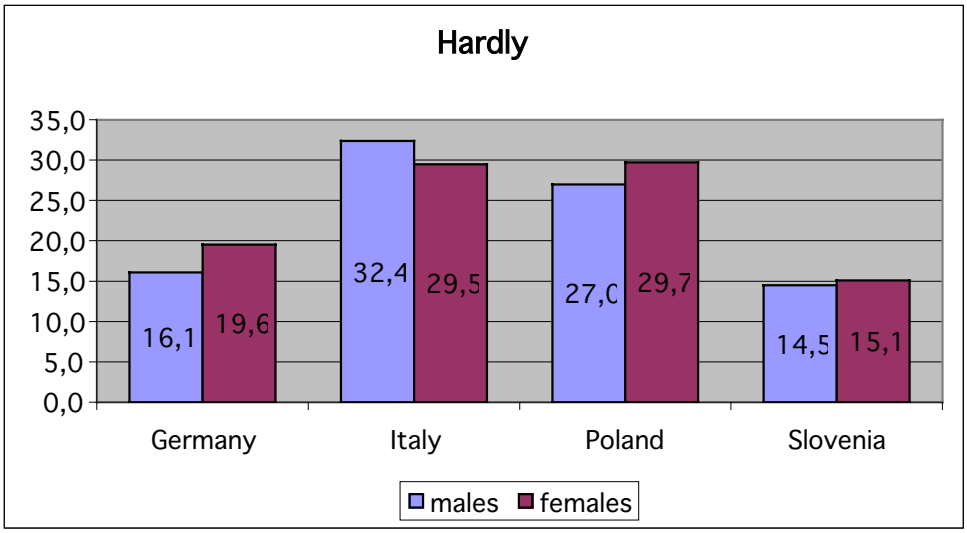


Figure 15 - Kindergarten currently used among women with children vged to 5 years, employed and regular employee (in %)

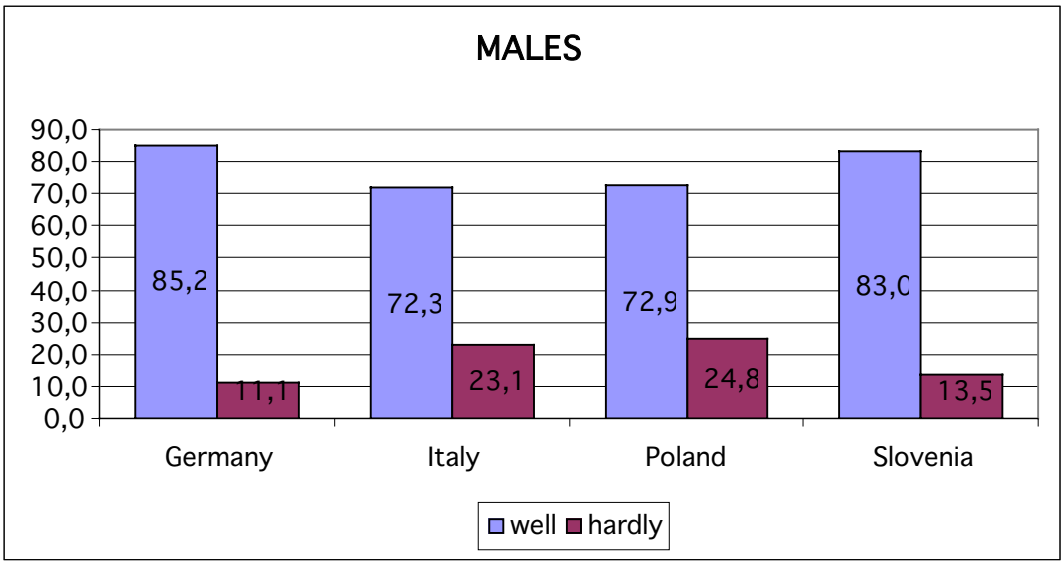


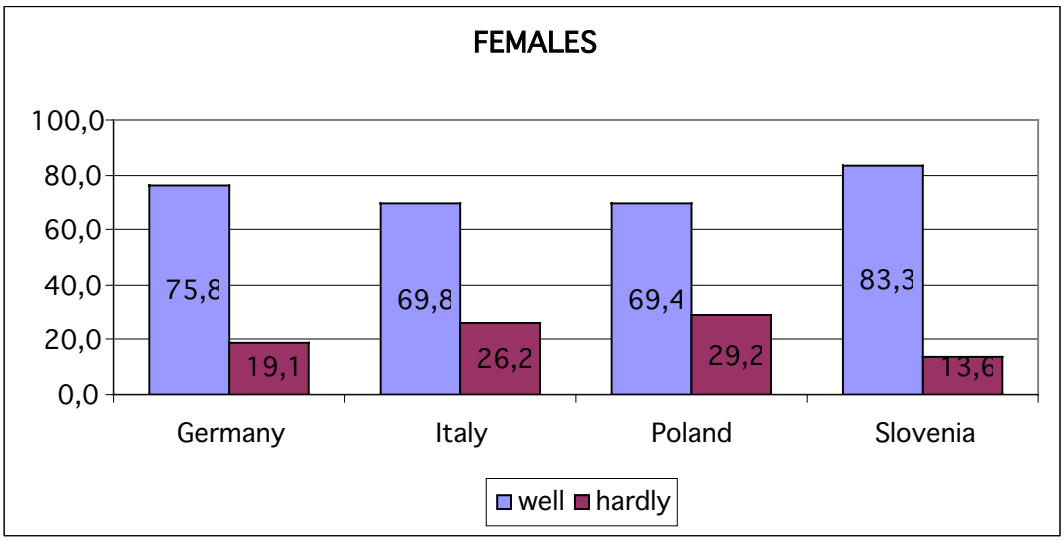
Figures 16-17 Reconciliation of family commitments with work engagemnts by sex (in %)



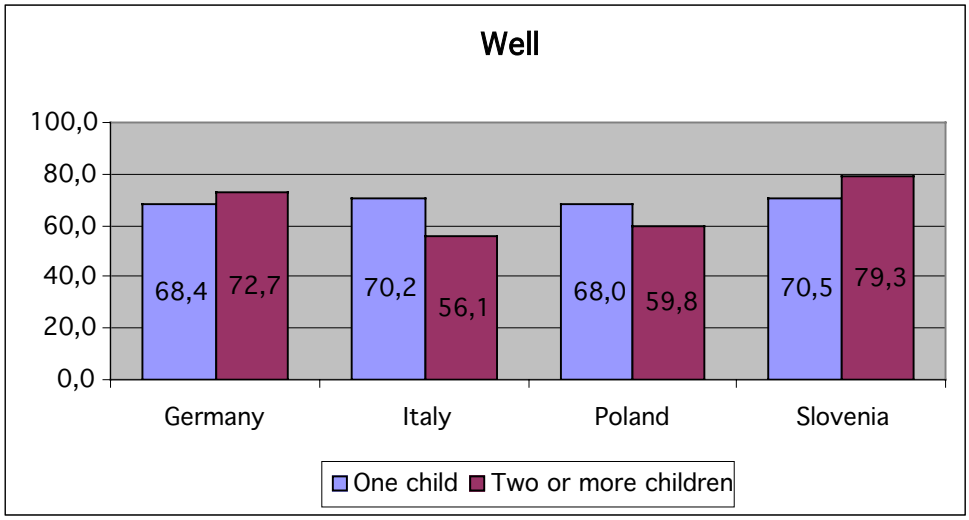


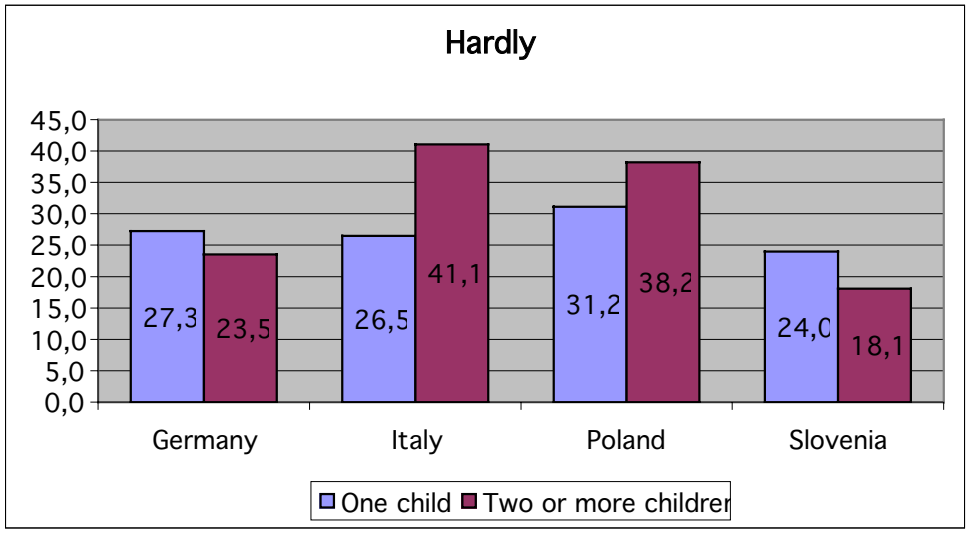
Figures 18-19 - Reconcilation of family commitments with work engagements of employed persons in couple with children by sex (in %)



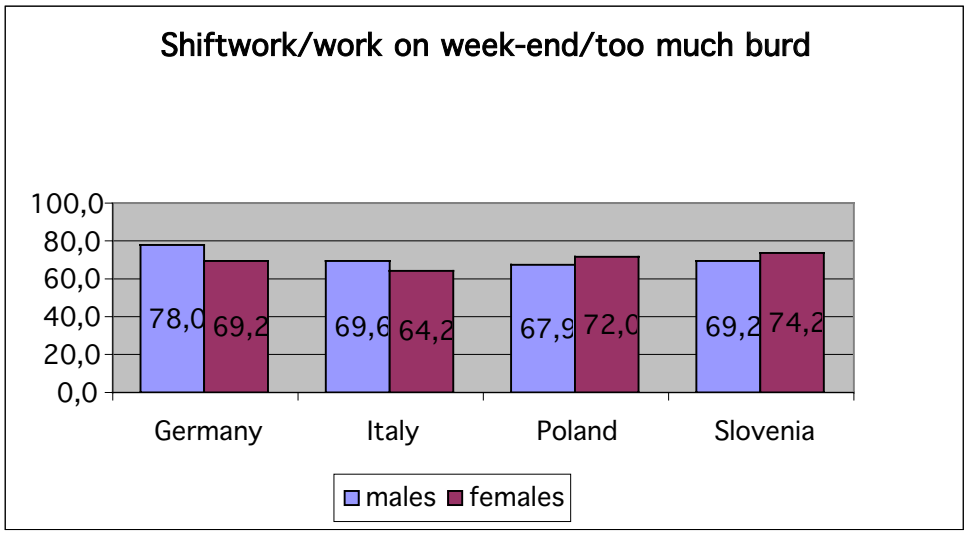


Figures 20-21 - Reconciling family commitments with work engagements by number of children (in %)





Figures 22-23 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family by sex (% of indications)



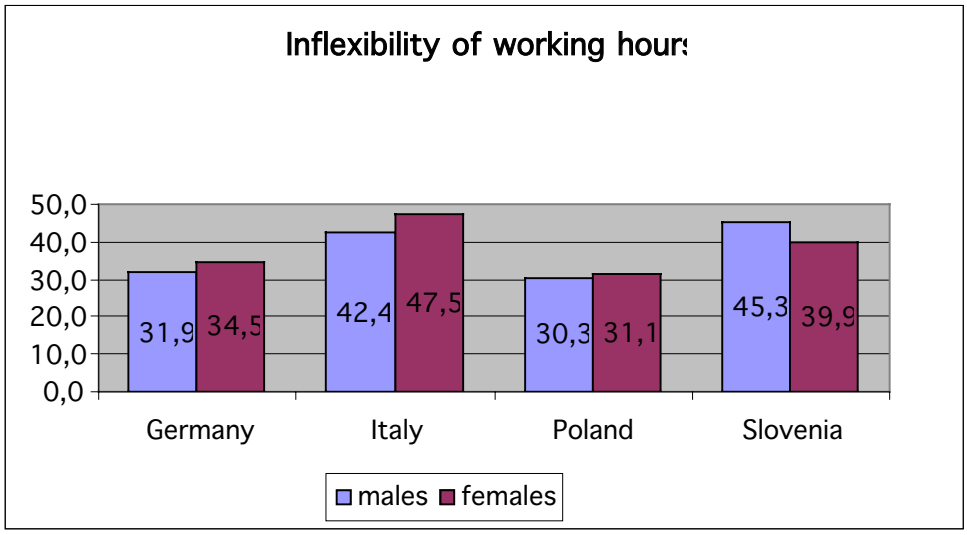


Figure 24 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family among couples with children (In %)

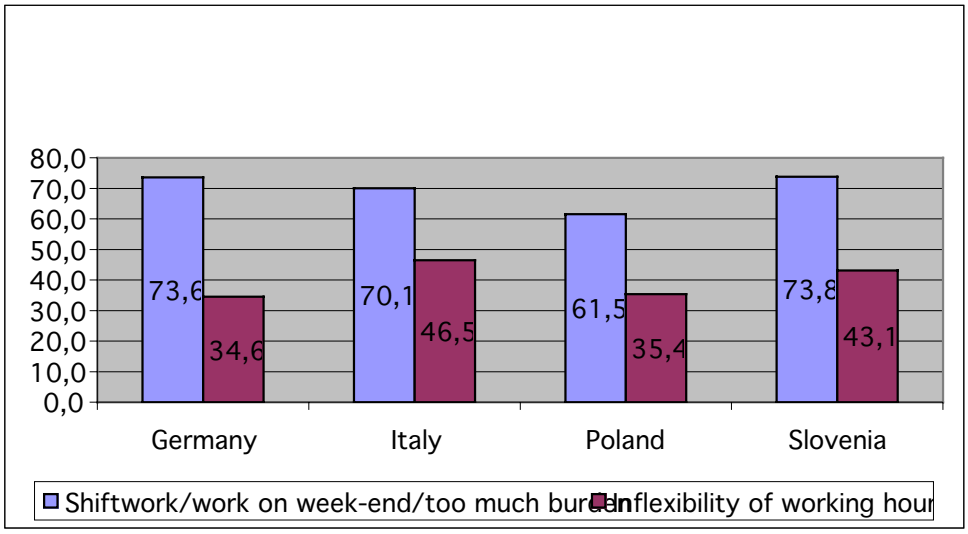
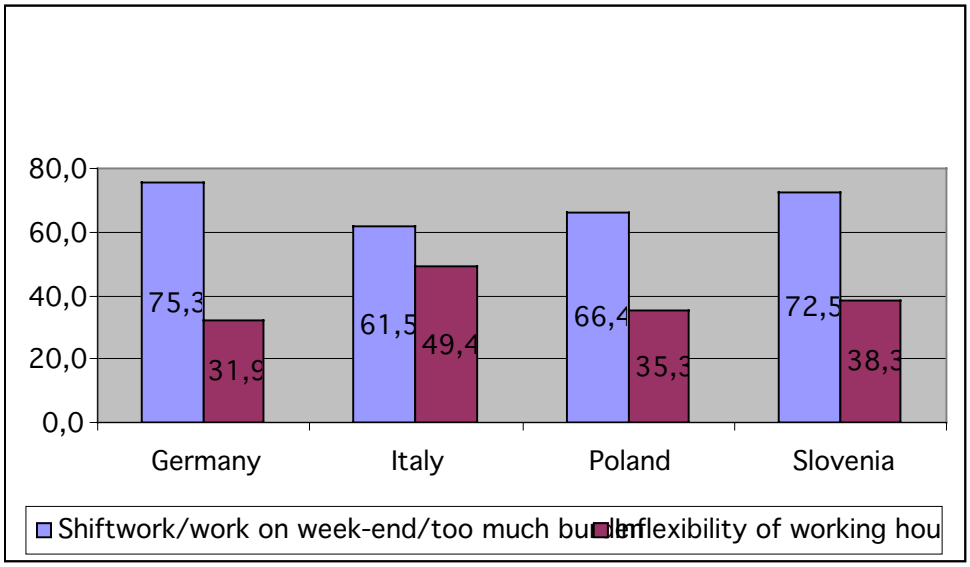


Figure 25 - Main difficulties encountered in reconciling work and family among regular employees (In %)



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