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OSMO KONTULA
ANNELI MIETTINEN

Synthesis Report on Demographic Behaviour,
Existing Population Related Policies
and Expectations Men and Women Have
Concerning the State

Work Package 4, Report D 15

The Population Research Institute

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VÄESTÖLIITTO
The Family Federation of Finland

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Prepared by Work Package leader 4, The Population Research
Institute, Family Federation of Finland, January 2005

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Preface

The Population Policy Acceptance Study (later DIALOG) is a joint research project of 15 countries. The project was started in 2002 and is funded by EU. The co-ordinator of the project is Prof. Dr. Charlotte Höhn, Federal Institute for Population Research (Bundesinstitut für Bevölkerungsforschung, BiB).

The DIALOG-project will set up the infrastructure to improve methodologies for comparative research in view of data harmonisation, setting up of an international database based on the national Population Policy Acceptance Surveys of the participating countries, and comparative analyses.

Analysis of the micro-level data from the European comparative study of attitudes, experiences, preferences and evaluation of policies is implemented through topical work packages which include five broad areas: general family related policies and attitudes; gender roles in partnership, family life and work and opinions about government policies with respect to gender related rights; reconciliation of work and family life as it relates to the combination between employment, housework, child care, and care of elderly; attitudes and experiences about having children and child-friendly policies; attitudes, experiences and expectations regarding intergenerational solidarity, elderly, one's own old age and population ageing.

The study is a comprehensive analysis of population related policies which builds on but also extends beyond the area of publicly funded family policies and addresses also within-family strategies. It addresses practices and aspirations of men and women regarding family life in ageing societies and perceptions of life chances regarding paid work in an increasingly more competitive and demanding labour market. It takes into account both the viewpoint of citizens and policy actors regarding the management of population related changes, caring functions of families and mediating role of the welfare state.

The Workpackage 4 (later: WP4) 'Population Related Policies and General Attitudes' was carried out at The Population Research Institute (Helsinki, Finland). The objective of the WP4 was the identification of between-country similarities and differences in terms of demographic dynamics, recent social policy reforms and attitudes of men and women regarding general social policies and demographic developments on European level.

This D15 report is the final report of the WP4 and the results are mainly based on the national country reports produced in each DIALOG country.

As a workpackage leader I want to thank Dr. Osmo Kontula and Anneli Miettinen (M.Soc.Sc) for their contributions. Osmo Kontula is the main author of the report. Anneli Miettinen has provided statistical demographic data and wrote the sections concerning the PPA2 survey data. Elina Laitalainen collected the statistical data on population, family and ageing policy measures in DIALOG countries from the national country reports. The language has been checked by Liisa Kosonen. Our German colleagues at BiB have presented valuable comments on the content. I wish to thank all persons involved most warmly for their cooperation. I also wish to thank our colleagues in DIALOG countries for the national reports and valuable comments.

Helsinki, March 23rd, 2005

Ismo Söderling

Director

The Population Research Institute (of Family Federation of Finland)

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1. Introduction

This report, deliverable D15 of the DIALOG project/study, aims at the identification of between-country similarities and differences in terms of demographic dynamics, recent social policy reforms and attitudes of men and women regarding general social policies and demographic developments. In the comparative analysis the interaction between the general attitudes, population related policies and demographic processes are presented.

The report is an outcome of work on the Work Package 4 that has been co-ordinated by the Population Research Institute (PRI), Family Federation of Finland. Work Package 4 is a part of the DIALOG research project. DIALOG is the 'Population Policy Acceptance Study – The Viewpoint of Citizens and Policy Actors Regarding the Management of Population Related Change' funded by the European Commission under the 5th Framework Programme. The Federal Institute for Population Research at the Federal Statistical Office (BIB) co-ordinates the DIALOG project in Wiesbaden, Germany. The participating 15 countries of the DIALOG project are Belgium (Flanders), the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, and Switzerland.

The overarching objective of the DIALOG - Population Policy Acceptance Study is the analysis based on cross-sectional survey data on European's practices, attitudes and opinions concerning demographic changes, fertility behaviour, intergenerational exchange of resources and services, and population related policies. The study aims to analyse values and attitudes affecting fertility decisions, perception of advantages and disadvantages of having children, meaning of family and parenthood, aspirations in life, opinions and attitudes towards population policy issues and measures, the role of government in providing support to families and preferences and aspirations regarding gender roles, paid labour, and family life. In addition to survey data, the project collects contextual data on socio-demographic and social and family policy development in the participating countries.

The project promotes dialog, capacity building and networking in the area of public policies towards families (in view of changing patterns of family formation and dissolution) and public provisions and family care towards the aged (in view of population ageing).

The study is a comprehensive analysis of population related policies, which builds on but also extends beyond the area of publicly funded family policies and addresses also within-family strategies. It addresses practices and aspirations of men and women regarding family life in ageing societies and the perception of life chances regarding paid work in an increasingly more competitive and demanding labour market. It takes into account both the viewpoint of citizens and policy actors regarding the management of population related changes, the caring functions of families, and the mediating role of the welfare state.

Work Package 4 aims to collect and analyse contextual data on social and demographic situation in the participating countries as well as the recent development of respective policy fields, especially focusing on the development of policies related to family and ageing, and to relate this to the survey data.

This report provides, firstly, information on overall demographic development, existing population policies and of opinions of the population on population policies and general population issues in DIALOG countries. Secondly, it gives an overview of changes related to family structure, and of the social policies in DIALOG countries with special emphasis on family policies. The results of the opinion of the population on family policies are combined with actual policies and family trends. Thirdly, the report considers

ageing and related policy development in DIALOG countries. Ageing is a major challenge for policy making in current and future Europe. The policies and trends related to the ageing of the population are combined with attitudes concerning these policies.

2. The research material

The bases of the information presented in this report are in the country reports that experts from 15 DIALOG countries have written in 2004 under the guidance of the instructions provided by the Population Research Institute (PRI) in Finland. The national reports describe socio-demographic and socio-political situation in the DIALOG countries during the period 1990-2002. The final versions of the reports were sent in summer 2004 to PRI. They were called '15 parsimonious National Studies Based on Contextual Data and Analysis of General Attitudes'. Together they constituted delivery D13 of the DIALOG project that was edited by Ismo Söderling and Elina Laitalainen, the Population Research Institute.

The authors of these national study reports were:

Belgium (Flanders)	C. Van Peer, B. Desmet
The Czech Republic	J. Kocourkova
Germany	K. Ruckdeschel
Estonia	A. Põldma
Italy	A. Menniti, M. Prosperi
Cyprus	G. Loizia
Lithuania	V. Stankuniene, A. Jasilioniene, S. Mikulioniene, A. Sipaviciene, A. Maslauskaitė, M. Baublyte, A. A. Mitrikas, A. Ramaneckiene
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Poland	I. E. Kotowska, A. Abramowska, I. Kowalska, A. Matysiak, M. Muszyńska
Romania	B. Manea
Switzerland	B. Fux
Slovenia	N. Stropnik
Finland	T. Turunen, A. Miettinen, I. Söderling

The country reports were divided into three parts:

1. Demographic trends in 1990-2002 in each country

Population
Household and family structure
Family formation
Migration
Employment
Social equality and gender roles
Socio-economic data

2. Social and population policy systems in participating countries in 1990-2002

Population policy
Family related social policy system in 1990-2002
Social policy system related to gender roles in 1990-2002
Social policy system related to ageing in 1990-2002
Migration-related social policy system in 1990-2002
Interplay between demographic trends and society in 1990-2002
Mass media publicity in each country around 2002

3. Survey results based on Population Policy Acceptance Studies (PPAS) that have been conducted in 14 DIALOG countries. Results of questions CI 1, CI2, CI6, CI7, CI8, A1, M4 of the PPA questionnaire were included to the national reports.

There is already available delivery D14 ‘Summary of demographic trends and policy implications presented in the national reports’ of the DIALOG project that covers country summaries of the national reports and some comparative information on demographic trends and social policies based on these country reports (Söderling & Laitalainen, 2004). PPA survey results were not included to this report. Due to the same source of information (D13 - National Reports) some issues already dealt briefly within D14 will be presented also in this report.

The main focus of this report is to provide information from the DIALOG countries from the year when the PPA surveys were conducted in the project, and on the socio-demographic/socio-political development that took place during a few years before the survey. The PPA years are presented in Table 1. If it is not possible to obtain information about the PPA year, the information will be presented for the closest calendar year. The statistical information from Belgium represents data only from Flanders.

The Population Policy Acceptance Study (PPA2) has been conducted with nationally representative samples in 14 DIALOG countries, not including Switzerland (Table 1). DIALOG countries are listed in alphabetical order of the official acronyms provided for information in Table 1. The overarching objective of PPA Study was to provide cross-sectional survey data on European’s practices, attitudes and opinions concerning demographic trends, fertility behaviour, intergenerational exchange of resources and services, and population related policies. In the majority of the participant countries, the survey was done either by face-to-face or telephone interviews. In Belgium (Flanders), Estonia, Finland, the Netherlands and Poland, the questionnaire was sent by mail or left for self-completion.

Table 1. Geonomenclature (country name and EU acronym), PPA2 survey collection time and sample size for the DIALOG countries.

Country	PPA survey collection time	Sample size
1. Belgium (Flan.) (BE2)	Sep 2003	3766
2. Switzerland (CH)	Not collected	-
3. Czech Republic (CZ)	Oct – Nov 2001	1073
4. Germany (DE)	May 2003	4110
5. Estonia (EE)	Sep 2003	1681
6. Italy (IT)	Jan – Mar 2002	3500
7. Cyprus (CY)	Oct -Nov 2001	1163
8. Lithuania (LT)	Sep 2001	1400
9. Hungary (HU)	Nov 2000 – Jan 2001	3057
10. The Netherlands (NL)	May – Jun 2000	1989
11. Austria (AT)	Jun – Sep 2001	1995
12. Poland (PL)	Oct – Nov 2001	4497
13. Romania (RO)	Apr 2001	1556
14. Slovenia (SL)	Jun 2000	1550
15. Finland (FI)	Feb – Apr 2002	3821
Total sample		35158

Results from the PPA-survey are limited to the age group below 70 years (in Italy below 50), due to differences in sample age groups in the national surveys. The PPA Standard Questionnaire was not implemented in every country in its complete form, and data from some countries concerning certain questions is lacking. Therefore, in some PPA Survey results presented in this report, not all the countries are included.

In the Family Policy chapter (4.11.), the DIALOG countries will be clustered into four groups/models for comparative purposes according to their general approach to family policies and development of policies during 1990s. In each model the implications on the population issues and general well-being will be discussed in conjunction with some perspectives for future policies.

The former socialist countries in Central/Eastern Europe are occasionally referred to as ‘transition countries’ in this report. Transition, in this context, specifically means the major economic and social change that took place in these countries in the early 1990s after the Soviet Union collapsed.

3. Population Issues

A number of publications and sources of information are available on the demographic trends in Europe. Here, we focus on major trends concerning population development. These include the population growth rate and its basic components, fertility, timing of first marriages and first births, proportion of families with more than two children, divorce rate, female labour force participation, part time employment rate, unemployment rate, proportion of elderly population, employment rate among the elderly, and the proportion of single-person households among the elderly.

The demographic indicators of family structures will be reported in the 'Family Policy' chapter (4.2.) and the demographic indicators related to ageing are reported in chapter 5.1, 'Ageing as a Demographic Challenge'. In this chapter we limit our approach to the issues of population growth and fertility.

Demographic indicators have been selected in conjunction with the policy measures in the national reports and the general public opinion items in the PPA survey. The aim is to combine the selected demographic indicators with the two other main components of the national reports.

3.1. Population growth

Population growth is diminishing in almost all European countries due to decreasing fertility and restrictive immigration policies adopted in Western European countries. In the Central/Eastern European countries massive out-migration during the 1990s has also contributed to negative growth of the population.

In DIALOG countries the growth rate has been very moderate and in some cases also negative (Table 2). The population was increasing (= positive growth rate) in ten of the 15 countries during the period 1996-2002. In six out of these ten countries the growth, or the majority of the growth was based on positive net migration. The highest population growth was found in Cyprus, Switzerland, and the Netherlands. These countries have also the highest rates of net migration. On the other hand, negative natural increase, or the number of deaths exceeding the number of births, has been characteristic of many Central/Eastern European countries. In Estonia, Lithuania, and Romania, negative natural increase has also been combined with negative net migration, leading to a relatively large population decrease especially in Estonia and Lithuania.

DIALOG countries can be divided into three groups based on population growth rate, rate of natural increase and rate of net migration during the period of 1996-2002:

1. Population growth with marked natural increase: Belgium, Cyprus, Netherlands, Switzerland, and Finland.
2. Population growth based mainly on positive net migration: Austria, Germany, and Italy.
3. No population growth or population decreases: Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia.

These three clusters of countries will be used for the basis of analysis in studying interrelations with the actual population growth and public opinions on population issues in the PPA2 surveys.

Table 2. Average population growth rate (per 1000) during 1990-1995 and 1996-2002 in DIALOG countries.

	Average growth rate 1990-1995	Rate of natural increase 1990-95	Rate of net migration 1990-95	Average growth rate 1996-2002	Rate of natural increase 1996-02	Rate of net migration 1996-02
Belgium	3.2	1.6	1.6	3.0	1.0	2.0
Switzerland	9.4	3.3	6.3	5.1	2.2	2.9
Czech R.	0.3	-0.4	0.7	-0.9	-1.9	0.9
Germany	5.6	-1.0	6.6	1.3	-1.0	2.2
Estonia	-16.2	-2.4	-13.8	-7.1	-4.3	-2.8
Italy	1.9	-0.0	1.9	2.0	-0.5	2.4
Cyprus	16.8	9.1	7.8	10.3	5.2	5.1
Lithuania	-3.6	1.7	-5.3	-6.2	-1.6	-4.6
Hungary	-0.9	-2.6	1.8	-2.5	-3.9	1.4
Netherlands	6.6	4.2	2.4	6.3	3.8	2.5
Austria	6.6	1.3	5.3	2.0	0.4	1.7
Poland	2.5	2.9	-0.4	0.1	0.5	-0.4
Romania	-4.0	0.1	-4.2	-2.1	-1.8	-0.3
Slovenia	-0.5	0.6	-1.1	0.3	-0.4	0.8
Finland	4.7	3.1	1.6	2.5	1.6	0.8

3.2. Fertility

Fertility is a crucial component to population growth. A relatively steep decline and stabilisation of total fertility to an exceptionally low level in a number of European countries has contributed to negative natural growth in these countries. The total fertility rate (TFR) had already reached a below-replacement level in all DIALOG countries except Cyprus in the beginning of the observation period. However, during the first half of the 1990s, the decline of the TFR was extremely steep in Central/Eastern European countries, and in Cyprus. With the exception of Finland, the TFR declined also in the Western European DIALOG countries in the beginning of the 1990s, but the decrease was gradually levelling off, and fertility stabilised or even increased during the late 1990s. In the east and in Cyprus, the decline has continued, but at a slower pace. Only in the Czech Republic and Estonia, could a slight increase in the TFR be observed by the turn of the decade.

Table 3. Total fertility rate, 1990, 1995 and 2002 in DIALOG countries.

	1990	1995	2002
Belgium	1.62	1.56	1.62
Switzerland	1.59	1.48	1.40
Czech R.	1.89	1.28	1.37
Germany	1.45	1.25	1.31
Estonia	2.05	1.32	1.37
Italy	1.36	1.17	1.26
Cyprus	2.42	2.13	1.49
Lithuania	2.00	1.49	1.24
Hungary	1.84	1.58	1.30
Netherlands	1.62	1.53	1.73
Austria	1.45	1.40	1.40
Poland	2.04	1.61	1.24
Romania	1.83	1.34	1.26
Slovenia	1.48	1.29	1.21
Finland	1.78	1.81	1.72

A large part of the current development of the total fertility rate is caused by a growing tendency to delay child bearing, accompanied with a subsequent decrease in higher birth rates (having three or more children), while first and second orders are becoming more common (Höhn, 2002, 9). The mean age at first birth has been rising continuously since the 1970s in most European countries, and is now at 27-28 years, or above, in many Western and Northern European countries. In Eastern and Central European countries, the age at first birth is still lower, at about 24-25 years, but the increase during the late half of the 1990s has been rapid. Among DIALOG countries, the “oldest” first time mothers can be found in the Netherlands and Italy, and the youngest in Romania.

While education appears to be related with increasing postponement of childbearing, there are a number of reasons why family formation patterns are changing and women and men have lost their motivation or chance to have children the way their parents still did. These issues will be discussed in the chapter ‘Concluding Remarks’ (7.).

Table 4. Mean age at first birth, 1990, 1995 and 2002.

	1990	1995	2002	Change 1990-2002 (years)
Belgium	26.4	27.3	27.6 (1997)	..
Switzerland	27.6	28.1	28.9	1.3
Czech R.	22.5	23.3	25.6	3.1
Germany	26.6	27.5	28.4 (2001)	1.8
Estonia	22.9	23.0	24.6	1.7
Italy	26.9	28.0	28.7 (1997)	..
Cyprus	24.7	25.5	26.7	2.0
Lithuania	22.9	22.8	24.3	1.4
Hungary	22.5	23.8	25.6	3.1
Netherlands	27.6	28.6	28.7	1.1
Austria	25.0	25.6	26.7	1.7
Poland	23.0	23.5	25.0	2.0
Romania	22.4	22.7	24.1	1.7
Slovenia	23.9	24.9	27.2	3.3
Finland	26.8	27.6	27.6	0.8

NOTE: In Belgium, Germany and Switzerland, within current marriage

3.3. Population policy

Population policy has not been a widely used governmental approach to population issues, nor has it been a popular concept among policy makers. In their country reports national experts did not find much evidence of active population policies in their countries. In some transition countries there had been pro-natal policies in the era of communist rule – this had disappeared in the 1990s along with the new political rule. The governments were found to be quite passive in their population policies.

Although explicit population policy formulations did not exist in DIALOG countries, the governments had been active in implementing some family policy measures with pro-natal features. These measures included, for example, birth grants in the Czech Republic, and a revision of the tax credits and the family allowance for 3+ families in Italy. In Austria there had been an increase in family cash benefits, in Hungary in child care fee and family tax credit and in Poland more emphasis was laid on the tax-related measures.

These and other reforms in family and also in the ageing policies will be presented in more detail in the chapter ‘Reforms in policies concerning family and ageing during the 1990s’ (Chapter 6).

3.4. Opinions on the population issues

The PPA2 surveys included questions that measured opinions of the population on certain population issues. These were:

1. (CI6) Do you expect that twenty years from now the population of your country will be larger, almost the same or smaller than it is now?
2. (CI7) Would you prefer the population of your country to increase, to remain more or less the same or to decrease in the future?
3. (CI8) The proportion of young people (below the age of 20) will drop sharply in the future. How do you rate this development? Excellent, good, neither good nor bad, bad, or very bad?
4. (M4) How do you feel about the number of foreigners living in our country? Too many, too few, or neither too many nor too few?

In six DIALOG countries (Czech R., Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia) out of nine, the majority of the population expected the population to decrease in the next twenty years. In the Netherlands, the majority expected the population to grow also in the future, and in Belgium, almost a half, and in Cyprus a third of the population expected the population to grow in the future (Table 5).

Expectations in Central/Eastern European PPA2-countries were in line with recent population development, e.g. decreasing or zero-growth population in these countries. In these countries, the youngest respondents (persons below 35 years of age) tended to be more optimistic about the future population growth. Differences between age groups in their expectations were marked especially in Central/Eastern European countries (except for Poland), and in Belgium. Men and women held relatively similar expectations towards population growth in all DIALOG countries (See Appendix 1, Table 1).

Expectations of population decrease were associated with preferences for the future growth of the population. In most of the DIALOG countries where the population has been decreasing, the majority preferred the population to increase in the future, while a stable population was preferred in countries where the growth has been close to zero or positive. In two countries with a relatively high population increase, Belgium and the Netherlands, a relatively large proportion (16 and 29 percent, respectively) preferred population decrease (Table 6).

Table 5. Expectations towards population growth in the future around 2000 (%), DIALOG countries

	Larger	The same	Smaller
Belgium (FI)	46	23	31
Czech R.	19	28	53
Cyprus	31	39	31
Lithuania	7	14	80
Hungary	13	15	73
Netherlands	66	28	6
Poland	9	23	68
Romania	19	18	63
Slovenia	17	26	57

Data missing in Germany, Estonia, Italy, Austria, Finland.

Table 6. Preferences towards population growth in the future around 2000 (%), DIALOG countries.

	Increase	The same	Decrease
Belgium (FI)	35	49	16
Czech R.	55	40	5
Estonia	77	22	1
Italy	42	51	7
Cyprus	74	23	2
Lithuania	73	26	2
Hungary	76	22	2
Netherlands	9	62	29
Poland	39	51	10
Romania	73	22	5
Slovenia	62	35	3
Finland	40	58	2

Data missing in Germany, Austria.

The youngest were less favourable to population increase than the oldest in most DIALOG countries. Differences between preferences were visible especially in Central/Eastern European countries, and in Belgium and Finland. In the Netherlands, Italy, Cyprus, and Estonia, differences between age groups were relatively small. Men and women tended to have similar preferences towards population increase (See Appendix 1, Table 2).

People in the European countries seem to be responding to the declining fertility and increasing importance of the positive net migration in population growth by expressing clearly negative opinions towards the ageing of the population and decreasing number of the young. The majority of the population in all DIALOG countries considered the declining proportion of the young in the future to be bad or very bad. The opinions were most negative (appr. 80-90 percent of respondents disapproving) in Hungary, Lithuania, Italy, Slovenia, Lithuania, Cyprus, and Germany, all, except Cyprus, countries with a negative natural growth. Compared to this, in the Czech Republic where the natural growth has also been negative, opinions were not as negative, and a fourth of the Czech population had either positive or in-between feelings concerning the declining proportion of the young. On the contrary, in Finland, with a positive natural increase, the attitudes towards a decreasing proportion of the young were markedly negative (Table 7).

In two Western European countries with positive population growth and positive natural increase, Belgium and the Netherlands, the population had less negative opinions on the declining proportion of the young. About 45 percent of the population had either positive or in-between feelings concerning the trend. Also in Poland, with a zero population growth based on positive natural increase and negative net-migration, a rough third did not consider the declining proportion of the young to be negative. In all Western European countries the youngest respondents presented the most negative opinions, in Finland the middle-aged respondents. Age had no clear impact on opinions concerning the decreasing proportion of the young across countries: only in the Czech Republic and Lithuania were the oldest respondents markedly more negative, and in Belgium, the youngest. Again, men and women had similar attitudes (see Appendix 1, Table 3).

Table 7. Opinion on the declining proportion of the young in the future around 2000 (%), DIALOG countries.

	Good	Neither	Bad
Belgium (Fl)	10	35	55
Czech R.	4	21	75
Germany	2	14	84
Italy	2	9	89
Cyprus	4	10	87
Lithuania	1	9	90
Hungary	1	8	91
Netherlands	7	39	54
Poland	7	28	65
Slovenia	2	10	88
Finland	4	20	77

Data missing in Estonia, Austria, Romania.

In the majority of the DIALOG countries, positive net migration forms an essential part of population growth, or diminishes markedly the impact of negative natural increase. Only in Cyprus, the Netherlands, and Finland, is a larger part of the population growth based on natural increase, with an extra input of positive net migration. However, the attitudes are, in general, more negative than positive towards immigration. In most DIALOG countries, the majority of the population felt that the number of the foreigners living in the country was too large. Attitudes were most negative in the Czech Republic and Hungary, where positive net migration is diminishing the impact of negative natural growth, and slightly less negative in Estonia, Poland and Slovenia, where the net migration has been negative or close to zero.

Table 8. Opinion on the number of foreigners in the country around 2000 (%), DIALOG countries.

	Too many	Neither	Too few
Czech R.	68	29	3
Germany	63	36	2
Estonia	62	37	1
Hungary	67	33	1
Netherlands	63	37	0
Austria	63	36	2
Poland	63	36	2
Slovenia	62	36	2
Finland	28	62	10

Data missing in Belgium (Fl), Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Romania.

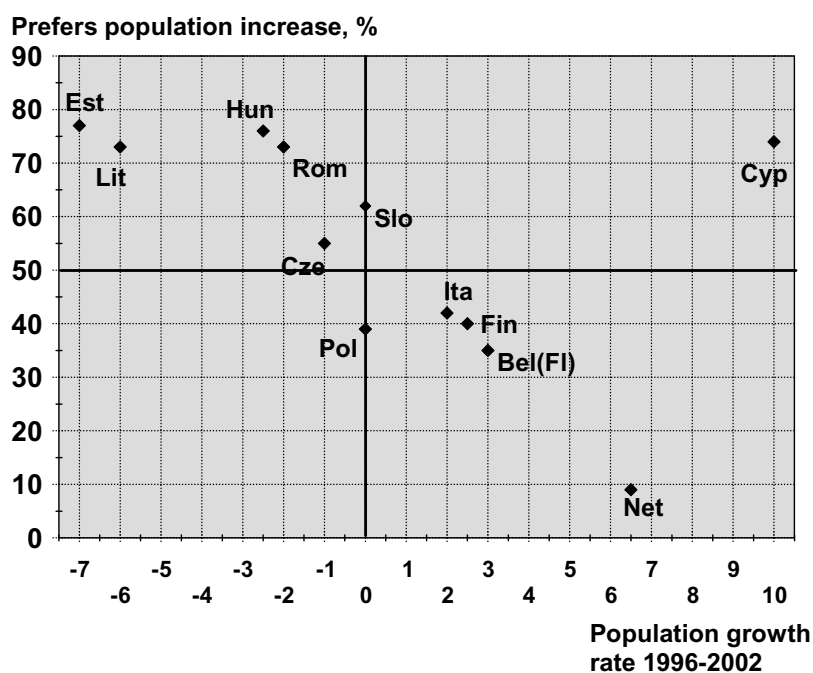
In Western European countries with a relatively large foreign population (Austria, Germany, and the Netherlands), the majority of the population (over 60 percent) felt that there were too many foreigners in the country. The attitudes towards foreign population were most positive in Finland, where the majority of the respondents considered there to be neither too many nor too few foreigners in the country. In Finland,

the proportion of the respondents considering the number to be too few was also the highest, 10 percent (Table 8). In general, the strongest opposition towards foreigners came from the older respondents, and the most favourable attitudes from the youngest. Men tended to be a little more reserved towards foreign population than women did, except in Hungary and Austria, where women held more negative attitudes (see Appendix 1, Table 4).

3.4. Interlink of opinions of the population to population growth and its components

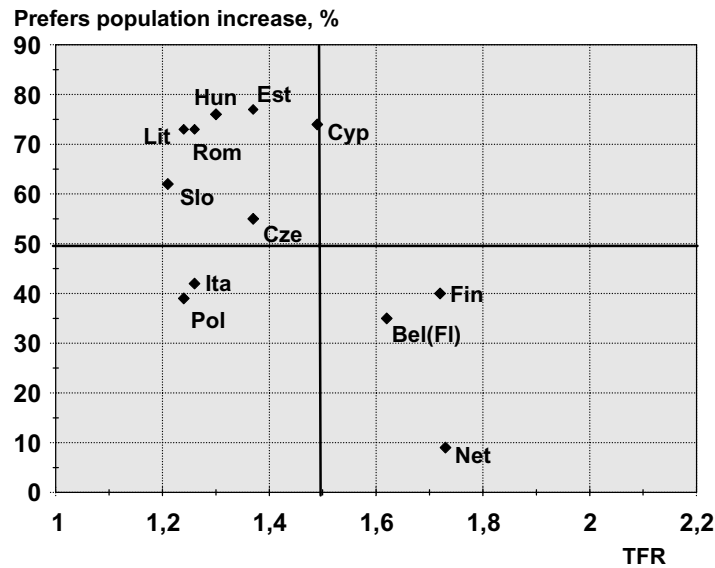
Preferences related to population growth appear to be related with the actual population development in DIALOG countries. In countries where the population has continuously been growing, and the growth is based both on positive natural increase and positive net migration (the Netherlands, Belgium, and Finland), there is much more tolerance towards stable population development than in the countries with negative population development. The opinion of the population in the Czech Republic and Poland is, however, much less in favour of future population increase than what could be expected on the basis of recent population development, or public expectations of the future growth (see Table 5) in these countries. On the contrary, in Cyprus the attitudes support and favour future growth, in line with the relatively high growth rate of the country (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Average growth rate and preferences regarding population growth around 2000, DIALOG countries.



Preferences related to population growth appear to be related to fertility level to some extent. In Central/Eastern European countries, low fertility is associated with marked preference for population growth. In Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, and Romania, where a negative natural increase of the population has contributed markedly to population decrease, preference for population increase is highest. In countries with a “higher” fertility level, Belgium, Finland and especially the Netherlands, a more stable population growth is preferred (Figure 2).

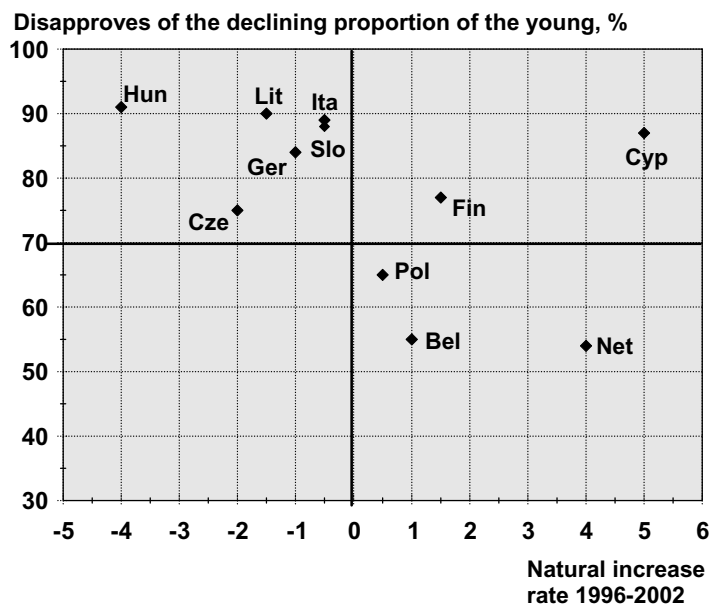
Figure 2. Preferences regarding population increase and the TFR around 2000, DIALOG countries.



In Italy and Poland, and to some extent also in the Czech Republic, decreasing fertility seems not to be related to population growth preferences. A diminishing number of births may be more acceptable in these countries, if the majority prefers a stable population development.

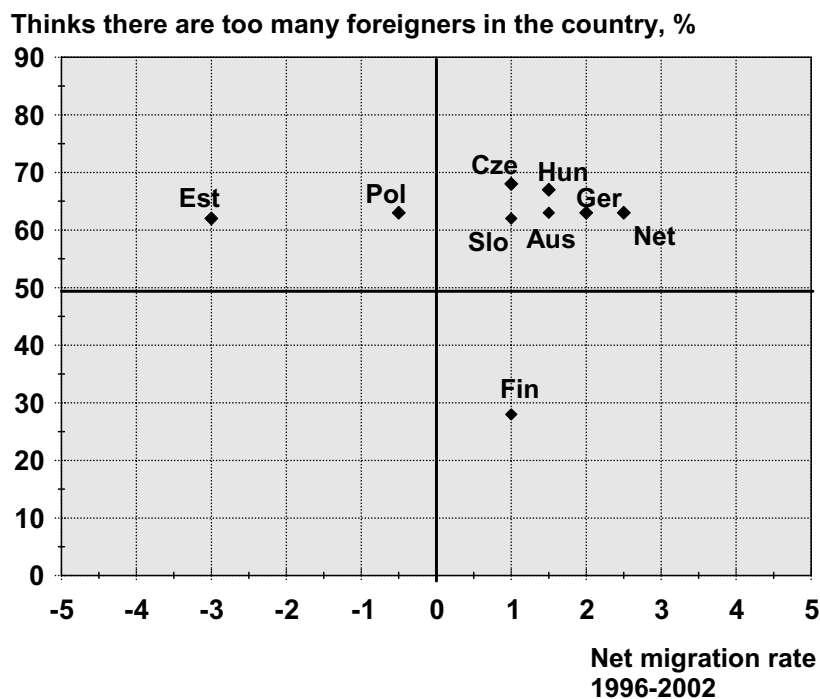
The opinions related to the proportion of the young in the population seem to be related with the actual population development (Figure 3). Attitudes are clearly more negative towards a decreasing proportion of the young in Central/Eastern European countries, where the natural growth has been zero or negative during the last few years. Also in two Western European countries with negative natural growth, Italy and Germany, the attitudes are relatively negative. Finland and Cyprus present a somewhat odd case, with the attitudes there seeming to be less tolerant towards a decreasing proportion of the young than the actual population development would suggest.

Figure 3. Average natural increase rate and opinion on the declining proportion of the young in the future around 2000, DIALOG countries.



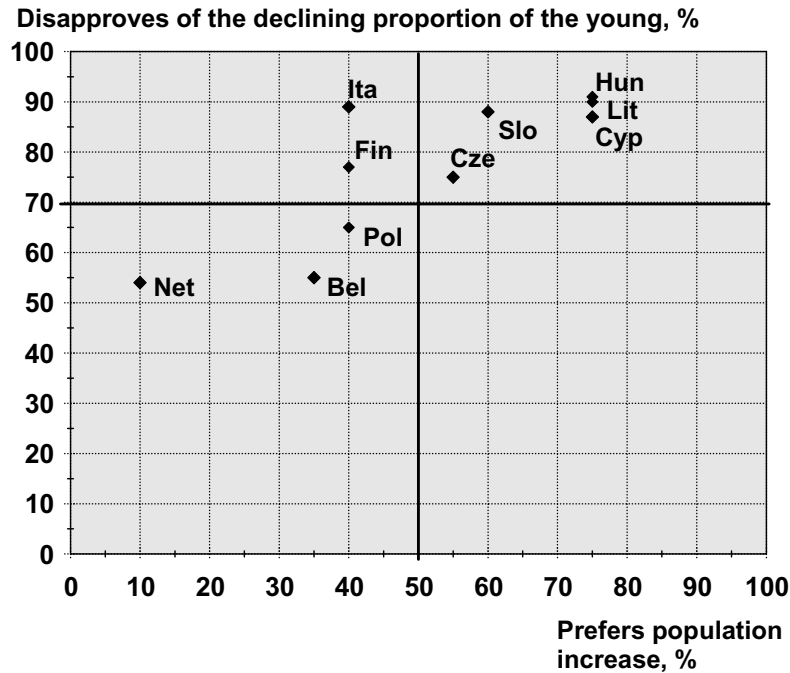
Opinions related to foreign population seem to be more independent of the actual population development in the country (Figure 4). Overall, attitudes seem to be relatively hostile everywhere, irrespective of recent immigration development, the proportion of foreigners living in the country. There appears to be no clear association between the attitudes towards foreigners and the relative importance of immigration to population increase in a country: foreigners are not approved of more in countries where the population growth is based solely on positive net migration when compared to other countries.

Figure 4. Average net migration rate and opinion on the number of foreigners in the country around 2000, DIALOG countries.



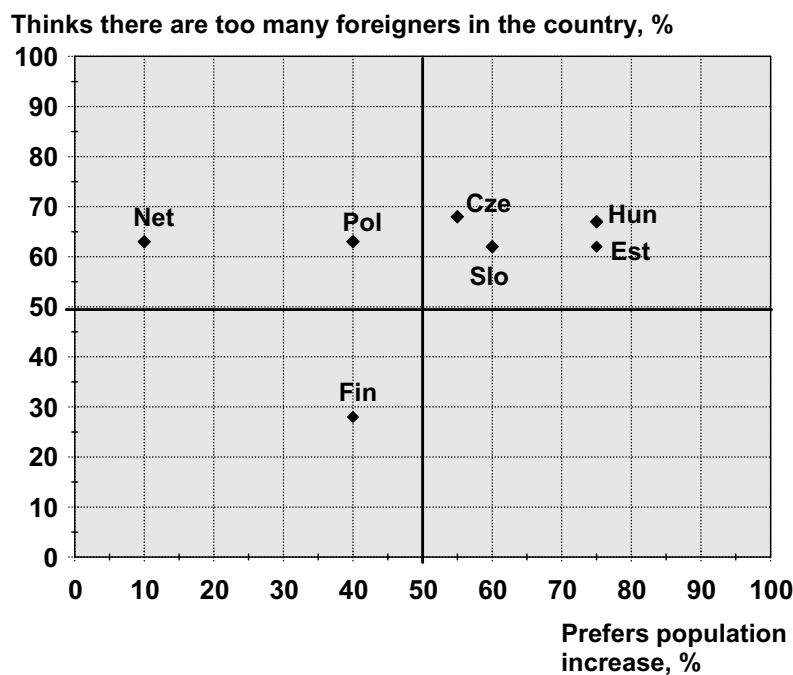
PPA Survey data allow us to examine also possibilities or problems related to governmental action with population issues. Public concern over the declining proportion of the young and a relatively wide preference for future population growth in Hungary, Lithuania, Slovenia, and Cyprus can point to greater tolerance towards explicit pronatal policies in these countries. In countries with less concern over future population growth, introduction of these kinds of policy measures may encounter open public disapproval (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Opinion on the declining proportion of the young and preference for population growth in the future around 2000, DIALOG countries.



Opinions related to foreigners combined with attitudes towards population growth could be presented only from those seven DIALOG countries, where such data were collected (Figure 6). It appears, however, that preference for future growth does not increase tolerance towards foreigners in countries. This suggests that governments need to be aware that population growth or population ageing may not be generally accepted grounds for increasing immigration into a country.

Figure 6. Opinion on the number of foreigners in the country and preference for population growth in the future around 2000, DIALOG countries.



4. Families and Family Policy

4.1. Family formation and family structure

Family formation and family structure have undergone major changes during the last two-three decades. These changes include diminishing family size, lengthening of the period without children, an increasing number of one-parent families, and pluralisation of a 'typical' family model. These trends will have important consequences for the future development of family policies in Europe.

An important aspect of current social and family life is that people postpone their decision to marry and have children. There has been an ongoing transition in Europe to marry older and to have the first child later in life. Social customs in forming couple relationships have been more stable when taking into account the patterns of how people live together. Although marriage is being postponed, partnership formation is common among young adults. Cohabitation has become more popular around Europe: as a consequence young people often start cohabiting at the very same age when young people used to get married a generation ago. Some have children while they cohabit, but it is still more common to have children only after one gets married.

The mean age at first marriage among women increased in 1990-2002 in DIALOG countries by 1.5-3.5 years (Table 9). This increase has been the highest, 3.0-3.6 years, in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovenia, Estonia, and Cyprus. In Western European countries the increase has been 1.9-2.5 years, except in Switzerland where it was 1.4 years.

Table 9. Mean age at first marriage (women) and total first marriage rate, 1990, 1995 and 2002, DIALOG countries.

	Mean age at first marriage			Total first marriage rate		
	1990	1995	2002	1990	1995	2002
Belgium	24.2	25.4	26.7	0.72	0.57	0.46
Switzerland	26.8	27.3	28.2	0.74	0.64	0.65
Czech R.	21.6	22.7	25.2	0.95	0.80	0.75
Germany	25.2	26.4	27.2 (2001)	0.64	0.56	0.54
Estonia	22.5	23.5	25.5	0.79	0.48	0.42
Italy	25.5	26.6	27.4 (2000)	0.69	0.60	0.64
Cyprus	24.1	25.5	27.1	1.18	1.21	1.54
Lithuania	22.4	22.3	24.1	1.05	0.70	0.53
Hungary	21.9	22.9	25.5	0.77	0.56	0.49
Netherlands	25.9	27.1	28.2	0.66	0.53	0.58
Austria	24.9	26.1	27.4	0.58	0.57	0.47
Poland	22.6	23.1	24.4	0.90	0.66	0.57
Romania	22.0	22.7	23.8	0.92	0.73	0.66
Slovenia	23.7	25.1	27.4	0.51	0.51	0.45
Finland	26.0	27.0	28.5	0.58	0.57	0.62

In Western Europe women marry around 27-28 years of age and in transition countries at the age of 24-25. Even though the mean age at first marriage has increased more in transition countries than in Western Europe, there is still a gap of 2-3 years in the marital age between transition and Western European countries.

The transition in marital age has had a similar trend, but it started one generation later in Central/Eastern European countries than in Western European countries. A similar one-generation difference in the onset of behavioral change between transition countries and Western European countries has been found previously also concerning sexual initiation (Kontula, 2003; Haavio-Mannila & Kontula, 2003).

Social conditions and norms vary from country to country in relation to motivation and feasibility to cohabit or marry at a young age. In 12 DIALOG countries, where this information was available, among the age group 20-29, living together without marriage was most common (over 60 percent) in Estonia and in Switzerland and the least common (less than 30 percent) in Italy and Slovenia. In the latter countries there appears to be several obstacles to moving in together when young. In these countries, the proportion of young adults still living with their parents is high.

Marriage has also lost its meaning as a life-time union. Partnership break-up, or divorce has become more common everywhere in Europe. The North and Central/Eastern European transition countries are leading the way, but by the turn of the century, divorce rates were relatively uniform in most of the DIALOG countries. Divorce is gradually becoming more common also in the Catholic countries. However, the total divorce rate in these countries is still clearly lower than in the others. Increasing marital breakdown has also contributed to an increase in one-parent households.

The mean age at first birth has followed the development of marital age (see Table 4). Age at first birth has increased by 1-3 years in 1990-2002. The most outstanding increase (3.1-3.3 years) was found in Slovenia, the Czech Republic, and Hungary, again from a traditionally much lower level. In Western European countries the increase in the mean age at first birth has been 1-2 years. In Western Europe first birth takes place at the age of 27-29 and in transition countries at the age of 24-25.

Mean age at first marriage and mean age at first birth are still strongly interrelated in DIALOG countries, even though the institution of marriage has gone through a true revolution among younger generations. Only in a few cases (Finland, Austria, Estonia, and Cyprus) is mean age at first birth somewhat lower than mean age at first marriage. People usually postpone their first birth until they are married. Even in countries where consensual unions are replacing marriage, the first child is tied to marriage, only marriage takes place after the birth of the first child. To have children while cohabiting has been more common in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia, Belgium, and Austria.

In this respect they still resemble some regions (e.g. the Caribbean and Latin America) in the developing world (Kontula, 2000). The difference is that in Europe the young generation usually starts to have sexual intercourse, go steady and cohabit many years before they marry. They have their first sexual intercourse on the average 6-11 years before they marry and have their first child (Kontula, 2003). In the developing world, the young generation, especially young women, usually do not have sexual experiences before they marry or conceive children out of wedlock to become single mothers (Kontula, 2000).

Increasing age at first birth may eventually increase childlessness. Childlessness is a growing phenomenon especially in western cultures. An exceptionally high rate of childlessness can already be observed in Germany (28 % western Germany), Switzerland (28 %), and Austria (22 %). The Czech Republic,

Lithuania, Hungary, and Slovenia form a group that differs from the other countries, because in these countries childlessness has remained at a low level close to 10 percent or has even declined. Childlessness has been the most common among highly educated women (Kontula, 2004). As intended childlessness is still not very common (Goldstein et al., 2003), a large part of the postponement and eventual childlessness is explained by situational and pragmatic factors.

Even though the fertility rate has been declining there is still a high proportion of families who will have at least three children (Table 10). In Finland, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Poland, and Belgium 20 percent of families of women aged 30-44 are families with three or more children. In Finland and in Switzerland, the proportion of these families has even increased during the last decade. In Germany, Estonia, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Austria, Slovenia, and Italy families with three or more children form a little over 10 percent.

Table 10. Proportion of families with three or more children of all families with children, women aged 30-44, 1990 and 2002.

	1990	2002
Belgium	20.0	20.5
Switzerland	22.0	23.7
Czech R.	14.2	12.3
Germany	12.9	14.0
Estonia	-	13.8
Italy	13.0	9.5
Lithuania	11.8	12.5
Netherlands	25.0	22.0
Austria	12.2	12.1
Poland	23.0	21.7
Slovenia	-	9.8
Finland	20.1	25.1

4.2. European family policy

‘Family policy’ is the term used to describe what the government does to and for families, in particular those public policies that are explicitly designed to affect the situation of families with children – or individuals in their family roles – and those that have clear consequences for children and their families even though the impacts may not have been intended. In family policy the family may be both the object and the vehicle of social policy, for example, policies may be designed to compensate families for the costs of children or to encourage parents to bear more children. (Kamerman, 2003.)

As a sub-category of social policy, the family policy field includes:

- family law (e.g. laws regarding marriage, divorce, child custody);
- child or family allowances (cash benefits provided on the basis of the presence and number of children, their age and/or ordinal position);
- tax benefits (credits or allowances; wastrepayable or non-wastrepayable);
- maternity and parenting payments and job protected leaves (from employment following childbirth or adoption);

- early childhood education benefits and services;
- child support or advanced maintenance policies providing financial support or advanced maintenance policies providing financial support for children by a non-custodial parent;
- child protection services (foster care and adoption);
- subsidised goods and/or services (e.g. housing allowances).

After the Second World War, the development of family benefits became a debated political issue across the world. In many western countries general maternity and family leaves were adopted, while in the United States, Australia, New Zealand, and Japan, they remained the responsibility of the private labour market. Countries vary regarding to whether they invest more in the economic support of children or in supporting maternity leaves and maternity benefits. (Lewin-Epstein et al., 2000.)

In a way, political choices are a question of choosing between the family's independence and communal cooperation. In the latter case, the state and the family share joint responsibility for the children, including issues such as their protection from physical punishment and their need for sex education. In Germany, for example, the Constitution designates right and duty limits of child rearing to the parents, meanwhile putting marriage and the family under the special protection of the state, including free education and economic equalisation of child-related burdens. In the Nordic countries, the government's strong role in developing family policy subsidies and services has already been long accepted. As a result, very few children have lived in poverty there.

The European Union has endeavoured to co-ordinate family policies. In 1989 the European Observatory on National Family Policies was founded in Vienna and in 1990 a Commission staff working group was established and given responsibility for political issues affecting the family (Family Benefits..., 2002.)

Governments in EU member states have sought to meet three main objectives, reflecting the different rationales underlying their welfare regimes: income (re)distribution, family-friendly pro-natalism, and equal opportunities. Some member states have pursued all three objectives simultaneously. All governments have implemented measures through taxation and benefits that redistribute resources, either horizontally between families from those without to those with children, or vertically from wealthier to poorer families. Concern about population decline has served to justify the promotion of family policy measures to stem the decline in fertility. (Hantrais, 2004.)

Among the countries for which information is available, state intervention in family life is most strongly supported by the public in France. Here, the state is expected to formulate and deliver responsive and proactive public policies that take account of family change. In the Nordic countries, where public policy provision is taken for granted, the right of the state to intervene in the private lives of individuals to implement permissive and supportive policy measures is undisputed. By contrast, in Germany, Ireland, and the UK, the principle of outside intervention receives relatively little support among the general public, particularly when it is considered as interfering and intrusive. (Hantrais, 2004.)

In southern Europe, attitudes towards government intervention in family life are more ambivalent. The state is expected to provide an enabling legislative framework and to channel resources towards families, but without compromising the role of family members. In CEE countries, intervention by the state in family life is, for the most part, considered to be justified and necessary, but the resources devoted to family policy are deemed to be insufficient to meet even minimum needs. (Hantrais, 2004.)

The 12 European countries studied by Lewin-Epstein and his colleagues (2000) were grouped into three models according to the key dimensions of family policy. They were named:

1. Traditional: Spain, Greece, Italy, Portugal, and Ireland

– These countries have fewer divorces, unmarried women give birth less, fewer women are employed in paid labour, there is less economic investment in family subsidies, and women's right to vote came later. These countries also have hierarchical religious traditions and a patriarchal family model.

2. In-between: Germany, United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg

3. Generous: Denmark, Belgium, and France

– Greater input into the well-being of families, the unmarried give birth more and the employment rate of mothers is higher. Support for employment is not really any greater for men than for women.

In Western European countries, families are generally compensated for costs arising from raising children without regard to their level of income, while balancing the income distribution is left to taxation. In addition, in the Nordic countries, support for women's employment is provided through municipal day care services maintained with tax funds. In some countries taxation is used to support families with children, where one of the spouses is not working outside the home. In Spain, for example, family support is distributed mainly through the tax system.

In European family policy, employed spouses have either joint taxation or spouse deductions. Tax deductions can also be made for children. Taxation is thus a significant element of family policy in Europe. In addition, the family subsidies distributed in cash (child allowances) is greater in many Western European countries than in the Nordic countries. (Kurjenoja, 2003.)

In Great Britain, Finland, and Sweden, the size of the family subsidy is not affected by whether only one or both of the parents go to work. In the joint taxation countries, Spain, France, and Germany, the family benefits gained through the family taxation system are greater for one wage earner than in families with two wage earners. (Kurjenoja, 2003.)

According to Kamerman (2003) in the 1980s the characteristics of family policies in Central and Eastern European countries included the following:

- Family allowances were universal (albeit linked to employment) and an important component of family income.
- Family allowances were the most important public social expenditure after pensions and disability benefits; there was no unemployment insurance.
- Consumer prices for essential goods and services (e.g. milk, bread, school meals, vacation resorts, housing) were heavily subsidised.
- Early Childhood Education and Care Services (ECEC) services were extensive, especially for the 3-6-year-olds.
- ECEC services for the under 3s were much less extensive but were significant.
- ECEC services were funded and operated by the government directly, or indirectly through enterprises (which were owned and operated by the government) and fees were very low.
- Maternity leaves were generous and the benefits usually replaced full wages.

- Several of the countries adopted a policy initially developed by Hungary, of an extended parental or child rearing leave following the end of the maternity leave, until a child was 3 (or sometimes 2) years old.

With regard to the Eastern and Central European countries, economic transfers to families in terms of social benefits and family allowances (among these large families, single-parent families, etc.) and services were an essential part of their family policies before the political and economic transformation occurred. Only France and the Nordic countries have always enjoyed benefits comparable to those in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. These countries have undergone a general erosion in the value of the support and services to families with children, due to a decline in government expenditure and with the introduction of substantial user-fees. The real value of social transfers has been eroded for all social groups. (O'Reilly, 1996.)

In 1990 the socialist family benefit system in the former GDR was replaced by the West German dissolved system of family policies. This probably explains the exceptional drop in Eastern Germany's birth rate, to even less than one child per woman of fertile age. The system had been characterised previously by a high employment rate among women, comprehensive child allowances, on-site day care, and supplements paid to single parents. (Chesnais, 1996.) When this system disappeared, when unemployment and anomy in a completely new situation became widespread, women and men postponed their desire to have children.

In England it is not economically feasible for people with a low income to get married. Because of the benefits paid to single parents, it is more profitable to live separately. In 1992 one third of British children lived in families under the poverty line, with this proportion having tripled since 1979. Due to an active local housing policy and the flexibility in employment (part-time work), the birth rate has remained quite high, nevertheless. (Chesnais, 1996.)

France is generally considered the world pioneer in family policy. The assistance given to families has helped employers in France to avoid general pay raises, which would have accelerated inflation. In Finland similar attempts by employers led to the hasty inauguration of the child allowance system in 1948. (Hiilamo, 2002.)

In France the government carried out a large family policy reform in 2004. It included an 800-euro "birth bonus" before the birth of each child, a maximum 4,120 euro home care allowance to the parents of children under 3 years of age, an adjusted offer for arranging a private child care provider at home and a 340-euro home care allowance for parents with children under the age of three, if there are two children in the family. (Key Family..., 2003.)

In some countries, social policy supports men as the family breadwinners (England, Germany and Ireland), while in others the goal is for both parents to be employed. Even though in many sectors of family policy, women and men are not addressed separately, the aim is to help women reconcile working life with the roles of parenthood. Men, again, have a greater interest in promoting the family's general economic well-being. (Brayfield et al., 2001a.)

4.3. Family leaves

4.3.1. Maternity leave

All other DIALOG countries except Switzerland provide maternity leaves and maternity allowances for the mothers (Table 11, Figure 7). In 2000, maternity leave varied from 14 weeks (Germany) to 28 weeks (the Czech Republic). The mean was 19.2 weeks. In some countries maternal leave was longer in case of multiple births. In transition countries maternity leaves are, on the average, a few weeks longer than in Western European countries.

In case of employed mothers, the coverage of the maternity allowance varied among countries from 50 % up to 100 % of monthly earnings. In seven countries (every second) maternity allowance was 100 % of the previous salary. On the average, the percentage of the maternity allowance was 87 %. In Finland and Belgium the maternity allowance was income tested. In the Czech Republic, the Netherlands and Romania there was a ceiling implying that after the defined sum of earnings no more money was given. In Slovenia mothers were guaranteed at least minimum wage.

If mothers were self-employed the maternity leave and related allowance was a much more complicated issue. Only Italy, Finland, and Austria reported that self-employed mothers had as many weeks of maternal leave as employed mothers. In Belgium this leave was three weeks. In the Netherlands minimum wage was guaranteed for self-employed mothers. In Poland farmers were provided a benefit that was 1/30 of the minimum old age benefit for eight weeks.

For mothers not in the labour market Finland gave an allowance of 11.50 € per weekday. This is roughly 50 % of the basic unemployment benefit. In Germany they received a maternity grant of 77 €. In Lithuania a pregnancy allowance was 27 €. In Hungary non-working mother could get double the amount of the minimum wage. In the Netherlands unemployed workers received 100 % of earnings with the minimum wage (1,066 € a month) as a maximum.

Figure 7. Maternity leave (weeks) and level of income compensation during the leave in DIALOG countries around 2000.

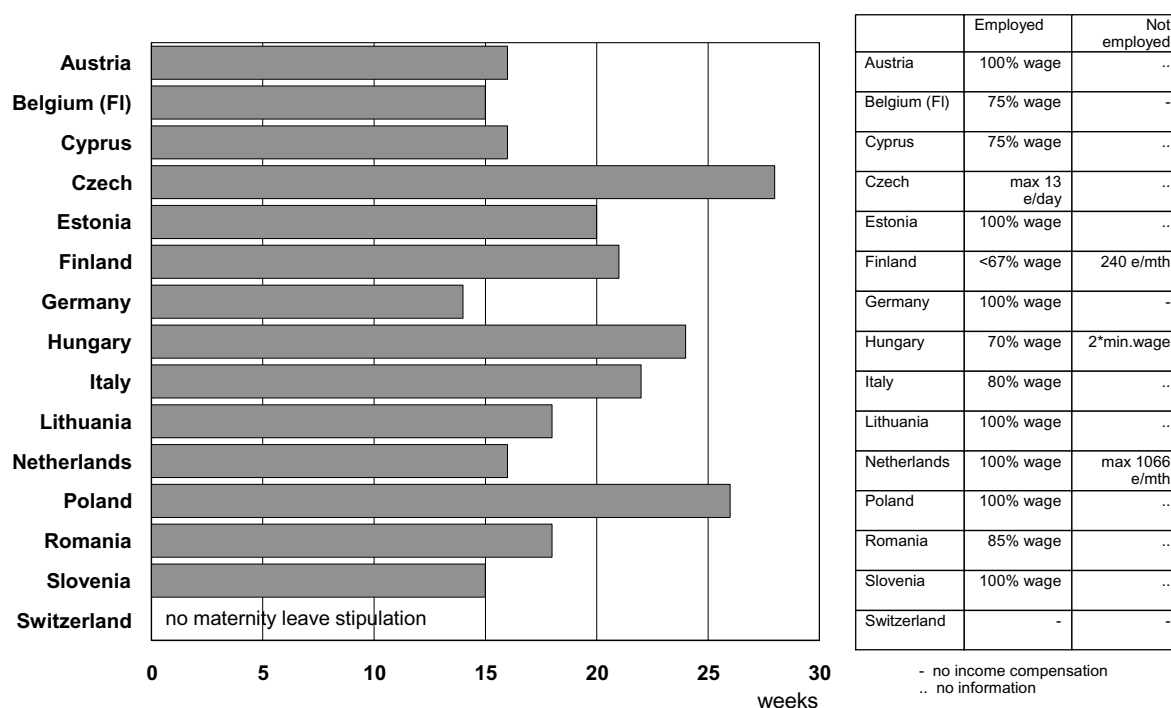


Table 11. Maternity leave schemes and maternity allowances in DIALOG countries, around 2000.

COUNTRY	Employed mothers, civil servants	Self-employed mothers	Mothers not in the labour market
Belgium (Flanders) (BE2)	Leave: 15 weeks (17 in a multiple birth). Allowance: First 30 days: 82% of wages (without ceiling); then 75% or 60% of wages up to ceiling respectively. Civil servants: 100% of the previous wage.	3 weeks	Special regulations for unemployed workers and for the disabled.
The Czech Republic (CZ)	Leave: 28 weeks (37 for single mothers and for multiple births). Allowance: 69% of the daily assessment base. Ceiling is 13 € a day.		
Germany (DE)	Leave: 14 weeks. Allowance: For female fund members with an employment contract, 100% of net earnings.		Women without an employment contract receive only a maternity grant 77 € and some health and social services.
Estonia (EE)	Leave: 140 days = 20 weeks. Allowance: 100% of monthly salary.		
Italy (IT)	Leave: 22 weeks. Allowance: Dependant working mothers: 80 % of monthly salary.	Same	
Cyprus (CY)	Leave: 16 weeks. Allowance: 75% of the mean earnings of the previous working year.		
Lithuania (LT)	Leave: 126 calendar days = 18 weeks, in case of complicated delivery or multiple birth 140 calendar days. Allowance: During the period of pregnancy and maternity leave the allowance at the full amount (100%) of salary is paid.		Students: a pregnancy leave for a period of one year shall be granted. Pregnancy allowance: 27 €
Hungary (HU)	Leave: 168 days =24 weeks. Allowance: 70% of the mother's former income (of the previous calendar year), if she had social insurance for at least 180 days in a two-year period prior to the birth of her child.		If there were less than 180 days of social insurance in the preceding 2 years, then the mother can get the double amount of the minimum wage.
The Netherlands (NL)	Leave: 16 weeks. Allowance: 100% of the daily wage, up to a daily maximum of 159.99 €.	No maternal leave, but 100% of the minimum wage (at least if that was earned) or less.	16 weeks. Unemployed workers: 100% of earnings with a maximum of the minimum wage (1,066 € a month).
Austria (AT)	Leave: 16 weeks. Allowance: 100% of the previous 3 months' average net-income.	16 weeks. 23,05 €/ day OR a person working as a substitute.	

COUNTRY	Employed mothers, civil servants	Self-employed mothers	Mothers not in the labour market
Poland (PL)	Leave: 26 weeks, 39 weeks in the case of a multiple birth. Allowance: 100% of the average earnings for the three-month period preceding the maternity leave.	For farmers a daily maternity benefit for eight weeks that equals 1/30 of the minimum old age benefit.	
Romania (RO)	Leave: 126 calendar days = 18 weeks total. Allowance: 85% of the individual average monthly income they received in the last six months before the leave. This amount may not exceed three times the monthly national gross wage.		
Slovenia (SL)	Leave: 105 days = 15 weeks. Allowance: 100% of the average monthly gross wage of the entitled person during the 12 months prior to the leave. The minimum guaranteed level is the minimum wage.		
Finland (FI)	Leave: 105 week days = 21 weeks. Allowance: On average 65% of earnings, negative progression (the higher the annual income, the lower the percentage)	Same	Irrespective of the employment status the minimum is 11.45 € / weekday.

4.3.2. Parental leave and parental allowance

Parental leave and parental allowance was available in 13 DIALOG countries (Table 12, Figure 8). In Switzerland there was no parental leave or allowance, and in Cyprus only a three-week leave was provided without any parental allowance.

The length of parental leave varied between Western European and transition countries. In Belgium, Finland, Italy, and the Netherlands parental leave varied between 3 and 6 months. The exception was Germany where the parental leave is possible for employed parents with one or more children under 3 years of age until the third birthday of the youngest child with re-employment guarantee (paid for two years, or unemployment insurance, a universal cash benefit replacing 67 percent of wages for up to 32 months). In Finland there was also an additional home care leave and related allowance (250 € per month) for the parents who take care of their child under 3 years of age at home. In Finland either the mother or the father with a child under three years of age can take a full-time home care leave with full employment security. In transition countries parental leave was at a minimum up to when the child reached 1 year of age (Slovenia, Lithuania) or up to three years (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary) or even up to when the child reached the age of four (Poland).

In parental allowances there was a lot of variation among DIALOG countries. Switzerland, Cyprus, and the Netherlands do not provide any allowance. The highest compensation level for parental allowance was in Slovenia where 100 % of the person's previous salary was paid until the child was one year old. In Romania the allowance was 85 % of the previous salary.

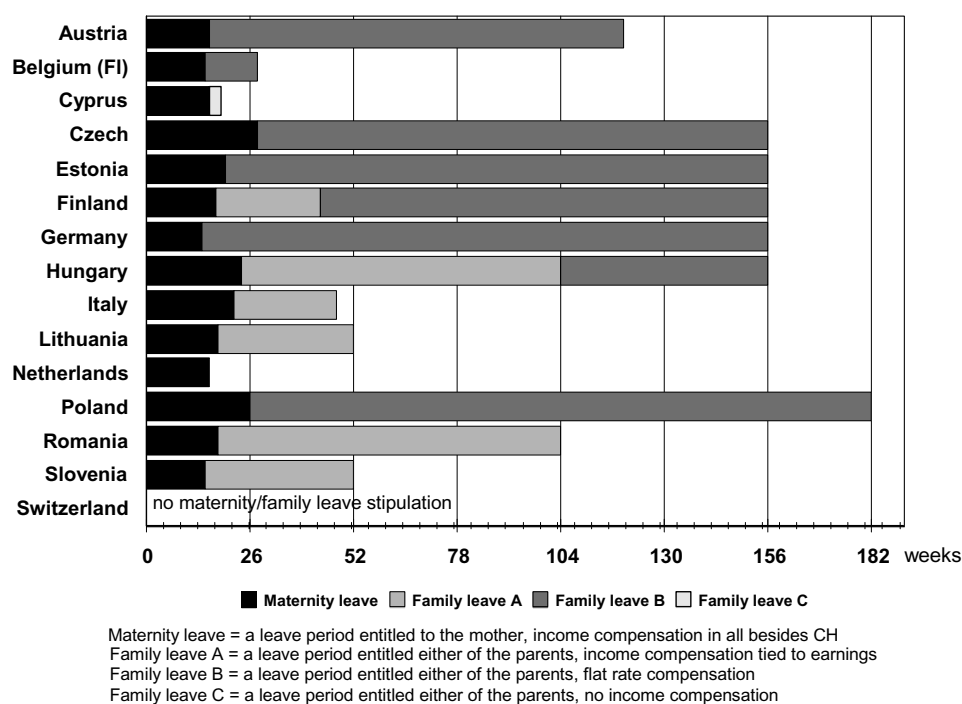
Table 12. Parental leaves and parental allowances in DIALOG countries, around 2000.

COUNTRY	Parental leave	Parental allowance
Austria (AT)	2 years full-time or 4 years part-time leave	Every mother and/or father of a child under the age of 2 ½ years (if 1 parent draws the benefit) or 3 years (if both parents have received it). 14.53 € /day; income-limit of 14,500 €/year.
Belgium (Flanders) (BE2)	3 months full-time leave or 6 months part-time	About 550 € a month (if taking a full-time leave). Other leave schemes are paid proportional to the leave-period.
Cyprus (CY)	3 weeks due to the birth or adoption of a child.	Not paid.
The Czech Republic (CZ)	Parents can make use of parental leave up to when the child reached three years of age, with job security.	The allowance is 1.1 times (58.30 €) the living minimum of adults. Ceiling: 1.5 times living minimum of adults.
Estonia (EE)	Mother or father having children under age 3.	38 € per each child under 3. If there are also children aged 3-8, an additional benefit of 19 € for each child.
Finland (FI)	158 week days = 22.6 weeks. The child is appr. 10.5 months old when the parental leave period ends.	On average 65% of annual earnings, negative progression: Annual earnings <25,515 €: 56.65 € a day; annual earnings 25,516-39,256 €: 56.66-76.53 € a day; annual earnings are >39,256 €: >76.54 € (25% increase of each daily earnings).
Germany (DE)	Parental leave is possible for every employed mother and/or father with one or more children under 3 years of age including adopted children. Parental leave can be taken simultaneously for both parents without any reduction	Parental allowance is paid independently of parental leave. Parents can choose between a standard monthly parental allowance for the child's first two years or a parental allowance in the form of a budget for the child's first year. Monthly allowance: income dependent (limit: 51 130 € for parents living together and 38,350 € for single parents); standard allowance: 307 € budget: 460 €.
Hungary (HU)	GYES: Child care aid; universal up to the child's third birthday. GYED: Child care fee; paid during the first two years (from 0.5 to 2.0 years). The eligibility criterion was the same as in the case of the maternity allowance.	GYES: official minimal level of old age pension (in 2000 63 €). The value of GYES was 29.8% of the average net income, and 52.8% of the average value of GYED in 2000. GYED: 180 days of social insurance of the mother in the 2 years before the birth of the child; 70% of the former wage or salary.
Italy (IT)	Fathers/mothers can benefit from work-leave from work for child care for 6 months (extended to 7 if fathers take at least 3 months). Self-employed mothers are entitled to a leave of 3 months. Housecleaners, workers at home, female workers that are employed under a fixed term (contract workers) are not entitled to a leave.	The allowance is 30% of earnings and must be taken before the child is 3 years old. For the self-employed: The allowance is 30% of earnings and must be taken before the child has reached the age of one year.
Lithuania (LT)	From the end of maternity leave (56 or 70 days after childbirth) until the child reaches one year of age.	A parental allowance shall be fixed at the amount equalling 60% of the compensated wages.
The Netherlands (NL)	Employee working >20 hours/week is entitled to unpaid leave during a continuous period of 6 months. They have the right to take parental leave in a total of 3 separate periods. All 3 periods do not necessarily have to be taken within a period of 6 months.	Parental leave is unpaid. However, in the public sector employers pay 70-75% and some collective agreements (CAO) contain agreements on payment and/or duration.

COUNTRY	Parental leave	Parental allowance
Poland (PL)	Parental leave may be taken for 36 months for a child up to the age of 4 (fathers have been entitled since 1996).	Parental allowance is granted if the household income per person does not exceed 25% of the average monthly remuneration in the national economy. Basic allowance (97 €) - 25% of the average monthly remuneration, preferential allowance - 40% of the average monthly remuneration.
Romania (RO)	The law was changed in 1997 and the period increased until the child was 2 years old. Parental leave was fully implemented in Romania in 2000. A person who works on a part-time contract cannot take parental leave.	It is calculated as 85% of the last 6 months' salary (before 31st December 2003) and 85% of the average gross national wage beginning with 2004.
Slovenia (SL)	Parental leave can be used either as 260 days of full-time leave or as 520 days of a half-time leave combined with part-time work.	100% of the average monthly gross wage of the entitled person. If parental leave is taken half-time, an eligible person receives half of the full salary substitute and a salary for half-time employment.
Switzerland (CH)	No parental leave exists.	No parental leave exists.

In Finland parental allowance was, on the average, 65 % of the salary, in Lithuania 60 %, in Poland 40 %, in Hungary 30-70 % (depending on the system), and in Italy 30 % (at half pay). Belgium gave 550 €, Germany 307-460 €, the Czech Republic 58 €, and Estonia 38 € per month.

Figure 8. Maternity leave and the following parental/family leave period (weeks) in DIALOG countries around 2000.



Taking into account the average annual gross earnings in each country, the most generous parental allowances were in Slovenia and Romania. Finland was third. The lowest allowances were in Estonia, Germany, and the Czech Republic. In Slovenia and Romania parental allowances were relatively 7-8 times higher than in Estonia, Germany, and the Czech Republic.

In nine out of 15 DIALOG countries paternity (fathers') leave was implemented. The duration varied from 10 days up to one month. In some countries special efforts were made to entice fathers to take paternity leave: for example, in Italy, the father had a one-month bonus if he took 3-6 months' parental leave.

4.4. Income transfers for families

4.4.1. Maternity grants

A maternity grant means mainly a lump sum given to mothers as a birth grant. Eleven DIALOG countries provide some sort of maternity grant (Table 13). The Netherlands, Austria (abolished in 1996), Poland (abolished in 2002), and Cyprus did not have any maternity grant.

In Belgium the amount depended on the child's rank in the family. The first child received 964 € and the other children 726 €. In the Czech Republic the first child received 265 €, the second 318 €, and the following 530 €. In Estonia the grant was 240 € for the first child and 192 € for the others. The other countries had a fixed grant. Italy had a somewhat pro-natal aim (since 2004): a maternity grant of 1,000 € was provided to mothers' delivering/adopting a child of second or higher order. In Germany a small grant (77 €) was given only to women who were not entitled to a maternity allowance. In Switzerland the maternity grant varied from canton to canton from 413 € to 1,032 €. This was the only maternity benefit in Switzerland that did not provide any maternity leave or allowance.

Maternity grant has an important role in family policy in transition countries. In the Czech Republic, Estonia and Slovenia the grant was over 200 € and in Romania, Hungary, and Slovenia over 100 €. These figures do not sound high but in comparison to average annual gross earnings in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, and Romania, they were more generous than maternity grants in Western European countries. In the Czech Republic the maternity grant was relatively the most generous among the DIALOG countries.

In Finland mothers can choose between a maternity package containing child care items (clothes, child care equipment, an information packet etc.) and a 'symbolic' cash benefit of 140 €. The value of the package (about 270 €) is much higher than 140 € and families prefer it to cash.

4.4.2. Child allowance/family allowance

Either a child allowance or family allowance was paid in all Dialog countries (Table 13). In most cases a child allowance was paid at least until the child is 18 years old. In Lithuania the child benefit was paid only for each child between 1 and 3 years of age. In Cyprus the child allowance was paid up to the age of 14 and in Romania up to the age of 15. If the child is a student and still dependent, the allowance was paid up to the age of 19 (Estonia) or 20 (Hungary and Poland) or 25 (Belgium/Flanders) or 26 (the Czech Republic and Austria) or 27 (Germany).

In most countries the allowance was modified/increased by the rank of the child. This was the case in Belgium, Germany, Austria, Italy, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, and Finland. Higher order children got higher benefits. In the Netherlands and Austria grown up children were provided a higher allowance than for younger children. This is in line of the statistics that show that the expenses will rise along with the increasing age of the child.

The allowance was a means (income) tested benefit in Belgium, Italy, Poland, Slovenia and the Czech Republic. It meant that a child allowance was not paid to the family if they went over a specific income limit (Belgium and Poland) or it relatively decreased with increasing family incomes (the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Italy). This policy option was widely discussed in the end of 2004 in Finland where most of the PPA survey respondents supported this means-tested policy that is in serious contrast to the traditional universal Nordic child allowance policy (Kontula, 2004).

In Cyprus the child allowance was targeted as an income support only for large (4+ children) families. In Switzerland child allowances varied from Canton to Canton and only employees were entitled to them.

The sums of child or family allowances provided in each country did not vary relatively that much from country to country. The only exception was Italy that also provided relatively very high allowances per child to large and poor families. Italy had adopted the means-tested family benefits in the spirit of the Anglo-Saxon countries.

Table 13. Maternity grants and child allowances in the DIALOG countries around 2000.

Country	Maternity grant	Child allowance/family allowance
Belgium (Flanders) (BE2)	For the first child, the fee amounts to 964.40 €, for the other children 725.61 € A multiple birth: rank 1 for all these children.	Age: Child must be under age 18 (age 21 if disabled or 25 if a full-time student or seeking employment) Child allowances (per month): First child: 71.20 € Second child: 137.03 € Third and following: 196.65 € Means-tested allowances: a yearly income of 12,813.8 € for families with one child, increasing by 20 % for each additional child.
Czech Republic (CZ)	Birth grant is five times the living minimum (1,690 CZK = 53 €) of one child = 265 €, six times for two children = 318 €, ten times for three or more children = 530 €	Age: Paid for each dependent child up to age 26 if a student. Child allowance: A means-tested benefit, related to the living minimum: - if family income is below 1.1. times the living minimum, the allowance is 32 % of the living minimum = 18.70 € - if family income is between 1.1. to 1.8 times the living minimum, the allowance is 28% of the living minimum = 26.70 € - if family income is from 1.8 times to 3 times the living minimum, the allowance is 14 % of the living minimum = 22.30 €
Germany (DE)	Insured persons, who are not entitled to Maternity Allowance. Fixed grant of 77 €	Age: the child must be under age 18 (under 21 if unemployed; under 27 if a student, if no apprenticeship is available, or if carrying out a voluntary service, income no more than 7,188 €) Child allowance: 1 st - 3 rd child: 154 €, subsequent children: 179 €.
Estonia (EE)	All mothers. First child 240 €, following parities 192 €.	Age: Paid for each child until age 16, for students until age 19. Child allowance: First child: 10 €; all other parities: 20 €.

Country	Maternity grant	Child allowance/family allowance
Italy (IT)	Not until 2004 was a maternity grant introduced for mothers delivering/adopting a child of 2nd and higher order 1,000 €.	Age: Up to age 17. Child allowance: Is means tested – it varies depending upon the size and income of the family from 10.33 € to 965.26 € for those with up to seven children. Each child will raise the allowance by 53.72 € and 10 percent.
Cyprus (CY)	No.	Age: Up to age 14 (large families only, at least 4 children). Child allowance: The child benefit scheme provides income support and tax benefits, cash free. In 2001 a sum of 53 € was paid each month for each child.
Lithuania (LT)	The amount of the benefit is equal to 6 times the minimum standard of living = € 217.	Age: For each child aged 1 to 3 years, i.e. upon the expiry of parental allowance until the child reaches one year of age (0-3 years if not insured). Child allowance: Equals 27 €.
Hungary (HU)	Maternity assistance is 150 % of the minimal old age pension = € 100.50.	Age: Family must include one or more children under age 16 (age 20 if enrolled in a primary or secondary school) or disabled. Child allowance: For the first child, 15 € a month; for two children, 18.50 € a month per child; and for three or more children, 21 € a month per child.
Netherlands (NL)	No.	Age: Children under the age of 18. The size of the child benefit depends on the age of the child and the size of the family. Child allowance: The benefit varies between 176.62 € (for 1 st child 0-5 years old born in 1995 or after) and 328.74 € (for 6 th child aged 12-17)
Country	Maternity grant	Child allowance/family allowance
Austria (AT)	Abolished in 1996	Age: Paid for under 18-year-old and until the age of 26, if they study at a university or if they are in vocational training. Child allowance: Below the age of 3 years: 105.4 €, below the age of 10 years: 112.7 €, below the age of 19 years: 130.9 €, from age 19 on: 152.7 €. From the 3 rd child on: 25.5 € per child and month
Poland (PL)	Abolished in 2002	Age: A child aged up to 16, or up to 20 if the child is continuing his or her education. Child allowance: The amount of the allowance accounts for 16% minimum wage (10.50 €) in the case of one or two children, 26% in the case of three children (12.90 €) and 38% in the case of four (16 €). The child/family allowance is granted to the person whose income per family member does not exceed 50% of the average remuneration in the national economy.
Romania (RO)	It was about 4 million ROL in 2003 = 106,50 €.	Age: Up to age 15. Child allowance: First child 3.30 €, second child 4.60 €, third child 5.90 €, fourth child 6.50 €. After these allowances each additional child gains 2.40 € more.
Switzerland (CH)	10 cantons provide a birth allowance. This varies between 413 € and 1,032 € per birth, depending on the canton.	Age: Up to age 15. Child allowances: In most cantons, only employees are entitled to benefits. Child benefits vary from 97 € to 224 € per child and per month, depending on the canton.
Slovenia (SL)	This benefit is granted either in-kind or in cash. In 2000, the cash benefit amounted to about 143 €. It represented the average cost of goods included in the three alternative kits.	Age: Up to age 17. Child allowance: Child benefit level depends on the birth order of the child (1 st , 2 nd , 3 rd and subsequent) and on eight income categories. The benefit varies between 13 € (Income per family member as a percentage of the average wage 75-99%, 1 st child) and 90 € (Income per family member as a percentage of the average wage <15%, child 3+).
Finland (FI)	Mothers can choose between a maternity package containing child care items and a cash benefit of 140 €.	Age: Paid for each child in the family under 17 years of age living in Finland. Free from tax. Child allowance: 1 st child: 90 €, 2 nd child: 110.50 €, 3 rd child: 131 €, 4 th child: 151.50 € and 5 th + child: 172.00 €.

4.4.3. Income tax allowances and credits to the families with children

Income tax allowances were developed largely in the post-World War II years as a device for supplementing the incomes of families with children without being visible in public social expenditures. Initially, they benefited higher income families more than lower because the tax allowances reduced taxable income and thus were only of value to families who paid taxes. The development of a “refundable” tax credit made it possible to use the tax policy instrument to aid low-income families as well.

In recent years, there has been increased use of the tax system, with specially targeted tax benefits providing income supports to families with children and in some countries, as a means of delivering child and family allowances.

A tax deduction or allowance is the amount subtracted from the taxable income base before calculating tax liability. The value of the allowance depends on the marginal rate of taxation and is of greater value to taxpayers with higher incomes. Allowances may be transferable between spouses. A tax credit is a reduction in tax liability after assessing tax obligations. The value of the credit may vary according to family size, family composition or marital status, and the credits may be transferable between spouses. The tax credit may be refundable to benefit those families whose income is below the level of taxable income.

Income tax allowances to the families with children have been an important element of family policy in Europe. These benefits are rather difficult to compare in DIALOG countries based on the available information in the country reports (Table 14). In most countries some tax credits are available. Only in Finland, the Czech Republic, Poland, and Cyprus, were no tax credits reported. In Finland family tax allowances and credit were abolished in 1989 and 1994.

Tax benefits are granted in Belgium to the tax unit, in Germany both spouses with the highest benefit to the only breadwinner, in Austria to the main breadwinner, in Italy to both if working (share credit in certain cases), and in the Netherlands to the highest earnings claimant.

In Belgium a minimum income limit below which no taxes have to be paid is increased for each child. In a family with 4+ children no taxes need to be paid if incomes are a maximum of 4,050 €. In Germany tax exemptions for each child are 3,648 €.

Family tax credits are available for children in Austria, Belgium, and Italy. Family tax allowances are applied for children in Germany. In Austria automatic expense deduction varies with family composition (age of the child) and in Italy life assurance expenses are deducted.

In Estonia and Lithuania tax deduction are available to families with three or more children. In Slovenia tax allowances are bigger for the first child than for the other children. In Romania (supplementary) tax deductions are given to minor children based on the number of children. In Austria tax credits are paid equally to each child together with the child allowance.

In Italy there are tax credits for individuals who have a dependent spouse or children, and additional tax credit for children under 3. In the Netherlands some child tax credits are allocated to the poorer families. In Hungary, on the contrary, family tax credits are higher for families who have higher income. Also in the Netherlands there are some supplementary and combination tax credits for families that have incomes close or over some income limits.

Table 14. Income tax allowances to families with children in DIALOG countries around 2000.

COUNTRY	Income tax allowances
Belgium (Flanders) (BE2)	For income tax purposes, the family unit is the tax unit. Lone parent families receive a special tax benefit. In addition, 80 percent of child care costs for a child under age three can be deducted from income when calculating taxes, if the child care that is used is regulated and supervised care. Minimum income limit below which no taxes have to be paid is increased for each child. (Valid for January 2003: child 1: minimum rises by 1,140 €, child 2: by 1,780 €, child 3 by 3,630 €, child 4 and more by 4,050 €).
Czech Republic (CZ)	Family-related taxation does not exist.
Germany (DE)	Tax exemptions for each child is 3,648 € + tax exemptions for child care equalling 2,160 € up to the age of 18, after the age of 18 there are special tax exemptions of up to 924 € if the child is still being schooled. Since 2002 for children up to the age of 14 an amount of up to 1,500 € of child care costs caused by employment can be set off against tax liability, if real child care costs exceed 1,548 €. Tax exemptions for a child are only paid if child allowance is lower than the results of tax exemption, i.e. is only remunerative for parents with higher income.
Estonia (EE)	Starting from 2000 families with three or more children under age 17 are entitled to a tax deduction.
Italy (IT)	The Italian taxation system is based upon individual taxation. Individuals can benefit from tax credits for a dependent person who does not have a minimum income (spouse, children).
Cyprus (CY)	Taxation in Cyprus is based on individual taxation. No income tax credits.
Lithuania (LT)	1) for persons with three and more children under 18 years- 58 €; 2) for the mother or father in case of a single-parent family with one child under 18 years, - 45 €, with two and more children under 18, the tax exempt minimum income for second and every successive child shall be increased by 13 €; It means that a tax-exempt minimum is deducted from the income of the above persons and for the remaining amount a 33% rate is upheld.
Hungary (HU)	In 1992 the government terminated the system of tax-base reduction, and a decrease of tax - tax credit - was introduced instead. It was universal. In 2000 the benefits equalled 50 percent of the family allowance. Tax benefits became important sources of income as was the family allowance in 1992. Only families with high revenues were eligible for the whole amount of this tax credit and the middle strata only partly, the poorer strata (not known exactly, but about 30-50 percent of society) were not eligible at all.
Netherlands (NL)	Families with a child younger than 16 receive child tax credit if the household income is under 54 593 euros (per annum). Tax credit is worth little (38 euros in 2001). Families with a child younger than 16 with earnings close to average earnings (household income below € 27,297 €) received a supplementary child tax credit of 192 € in 2001. Employed parents with a child younger than 12 and earnings of over 3,942 € per annum can receive a combination tax credit. It is paid at 4.3% of employment income up to a maximum of 100 € per parent. Single Parent's Tax Credit is 1,272 € per annum (4.3% of average earnings).
Austria (AT)	Since the beginning of 2000 a tax credit of 50.90 € for each child is paid together with the child allowance. For a single earner household and for single parents the amount is 364 € a year. There are also tax credits for alimonies equal to 25.50 € per month for the first child, 38.20 € per month for the second child and 50.90 € per month for the third and each further child.
Poland (PL)	No direct solutions.
Romania (RO)	Romania has a family related taxation system through which the families are given tax deductions for minor children based on the number of children. It is called supplementary deduction and it is deducted from the salary before taxation.
Switzerland (CH)	A family represents an economic unit. The 26 cantonal and the Federal tax laws take into consideration that often several persons have to live on the income of the family.
Slovenia (SL)	The taxpayer is entitled to an allowance for a child aged up to 18 years, or up to 26 years if the child is a full-time student and is not employed. The tax allowance for the first child is set at 10 percent of the average wage. For each subsequent child this amount was raised by an additional 5 percent of the average wage.
Finland (FI)	In 1976 the family taxation system was abolished and taxation was based on individual taxation (except child deductions). In 1994, tax deductions for minor children were discontinued entirely in Finland except for the deduction for maintenance liability.

Lithuania, Austria, and Belgium provide tax credits also for single-parent families. In Germany and in the Netherlands family tax allowances are available for lone parenthood.

There are also tax deductions for child care. In Belgium (80 %), Germany (for lone parents), and the Netherlands (depends on income) child care costs can be deducted from incomes when calculating taxes. In Italy tuition costs can be deducted and in Germany there is an allowance for children's education.

4.5. Day care (crèches/nurseries, kindergarten)

DIALOG countries have very different day care systems for children who are under three years of age and for those over three. The day care system for children under three years of age is called, depending on the country, either a crèche or a nursery. The day care system for children who are over three years old is usually called kindergarten. The provision of day care for children above 3 years of age in kindergartens is much more prevalent than the provision of day care for children below 3 years of age in crèches or nurseries.

Day care for children under the age of three

There are six countries reporting practically no provision of day care in crèches. These countries are Germany, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, and Cyprus. Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, Hungary, Poland, and Romania report about the shortage of places for children in crèches. In Italy the available places are only part time – this is why grandparents still hold a crucially important role in day care in Italy. In Italy priority in municipal crèches is given to certain groups (low-income families, disabled children). (Table 15, Table 16).

Only in Finland and Slovenia does day care for young children seem to be properly organised. In Finland every child is unconditionally entitled (the subjective right to day care) to a place in a crèche. However, also in Finland (78 %) and Slovenia most children under the age of three years are taken care of at home, by the parents themselves (mothers).

In Belgium family day care homes are available for young children. Charges are income-related and non-subsidised. In Austria day care is organised mostly by organisations for day-care mothers or welfare organisations. In Switzerland municipalities provide some income-related subsidisations for families seeking day care for their young children.

In transition countries the provision of day care in crèches has diminished markedly since the early 1990s. In Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, and the Czech Republic baby nurseries practically disappeared in the 1990s. They have been partly replaced (not in Lithuania) by parental leaves and allowances. In Hungary day nurseries are available still in the cities but they are rare in other parts of the country.

Day care for children aged 3-6 (pre-school-age)

Most DIALOG countries provide almost universal day care systems in kindergartens for children over three years of age. In Lithuania services are available only for children who are already 4 years and 8 months old; for disadvantaged families free day care is provided. In Romania and Lithuania there is a serious shortage of places in kindergartens. In Germany, Switzerland, and Austria most kindergartens are not open the whole day; they provide only part-time day care. In Poland the high fees can be an obstacle to putting a child into kindergarten. Only 40 percent of children aged 3-6 attended kindergartens in Poland. (Table 15, Table 16).

Table 15. Childcare in crèches (nurseries) and kindergartens in DIALOG countries around 2000.

COUNTRY	Childcare (crèches, kindergartens)
Belgium (Flanders) (BE2)	<p>Crèches: The most prevalent form of organised care for children under 2.5 years is in family day care homes. Charges are income-related in "Kind and Gezin" supervised arrangements and otherwise non-regulated and non-subsidised. There is still a shortage of places in formal childcare for the 0-3-year-olds.</p> <p>Kindergartens: Pre-school education is under the authority of the Ministry of Education in the Flemish community and is available to all children from 2.5 to 6 years. Participation is nearly universal. Hours are from 8:30 AM to 3:30 PM, and after school services are available.</p>
Czech Republic (CZ)	<p>Crèches: Since 1990 there has been a shift from nursery provision to parental leave for children under 3 years. Nurseries in the Czech Republic have practically ceased to exist.</p> <p>Kindergartens: Kindergartens seem to have been much less affected by transition policies. In the Czech Republic about 92 percent of the children aged 3-5 years are still enrolled in kindergartens. Kindergartens offer full-day pre-school education for three- to six-year-old children. Access to kindergarten is a subjective right for a child of age 5. The cost of a kindergarten place is 10 € per month plus food costs.</p>
Germany (DE)	<p>Crèches: the families themselves mainly provide Childcare. No right exists for a place in a nursery for children under the age of 3 or for schoolchildren.</p> <p>Kindergartens: In 1996 a legal entitlement for a kindergarten place for every child between 3 and 6 was introduced. However up to now, it has not been fully achieved as there are still regions short of places. The institutional care outside the family is much more common in the East than in the West. Most of the places are only part-time which makes it hard for parents/mothers to work. At the age of 6 and higher: there are nearly no full-time schools in Germany, normally children attend school from 8h to 13h and parents have to organise private care in the afternoon.</p>
Estonia (EE)	<p>Crèches: The system of baby nurseries virtually disappeared in the 1990s.</p> <p>Kindergartens: The system consists mainly of kindergartens: according to statistics, 80 % of children aged 3-6 are enrolled in kindergartens. The percentage has been increasing following the decrease in the early 1990s.</p>
Italy (IT)	<p>Crèches: Municipal crèches have a limited number of places available and the opening hours do not assure a compatibility with full-time employment and do not fully enable the participation of women in the labour market. At the end of 1990 grandparents cared almost half of the children under the age of 3 for while mothers who did not work cared for about 17%.</p> <p>Kindergartens: The proportion of children older than 3 attending kindergarten is traditionally relatively high (more than 90 %). While the public childcare for children aged below 3 years is quite expensive, for the older ones it is highly subsidised and parents are asked to contribute solely to sustain the meal costs.</p>
Cyprus (CY)	<p>Crèches: None.</p> <p>Kindergartens: In public kindergartens children of 4 years and 8 months to 5 years and 8 months of age are accepted. If there are vacant places these may be filled with younger children (3 years old). Roughly about 50 % of the cohort pre-primary education age attended kindergartens or day nurseries in 1999/2000.</p>
Lithuania (LT)	<p>Crèches: At the beginning of independence in the early 1990s, the basic responsibility for the care of pre-school children was placed on the mother.</p> <p>Kindergartens: Municipalities have been responsible for the development of day care services since 1994. Only children from socially disadvantaged families are entitled to free day care services, and only in public institutions. In the day care system, children aged 6-7 years are offered a pre-school education programme intended to prepare the children for school.</p>
Hungary (HU)	<p>Crèches: There are several day nurseries in Hungary at present that help the parents with under school-aged children to reconcile family- and working life. About two thirds of the costs are covered by the local government. That is why day nurseries are rare in villages (and also rare in smaller towns): local governments there have often not enough money to maintain them. The parents cover only the costs of food.</p> <p>Kindergartens: Kindergartens are free, but parents have to pay for meals. 3-6-year-old children may attend. The last year of kindergarten is meant to be a preparation year for entering school, and so this year is compulsory, while the others are not.</p>

COUNTRY	Childcare (crèches, kindergartens)
Netherlands (NL)	<p>Crèches: In the Netherlands there are 3 types of childcare: the formal (paid) childcare, the informal paid childcare and the informal unpaid childcare. Costs of childcare are paid by (local) government, employers and parents. In 2001, informal childcare (paid or unpaid) was the most important form of childcare: for more than two thirds of the children (0-12 years) who used childcare, informal childcare was used. Especially for the youngest group (aged 0-1) but also for other pre-schoolers (aged 2-3), informal childcare is very important. The number of formal childcare places has increased from 30,000 in 1990 to 172,000 in 2002, which were used by app. 300,000 children.</p> <p>Kindergartens: Children aged 4 in the Netherlands are not yet of school age but they have a right to pre-school education; 98 % of the 4-year-olds participate in pre-school education. The maximum recommended payment for parents for five days of childcare per week is 500 euros per month where family income is 2,343 euros per month or more. The minimum recommended parental contribution is 46 euros per month for five days child care a week, where the family income is 765 euros or less.</p>
Austria (AT)	<p>Crèches: Day-care mothers are in most cases employed by organisations for day-care mothers or welfare organisations, with some working on a freelance basis. These children are in most cases between 1 and 3 years of age. 10 % of those under 3 and 73 % of the 3- to under 6-year-old children in Austria attended external childcare in 2002.</p> <p>Kindergartens: In some regions there is a very good provision of childcare and in some regions there are too little children in the single groups; in others there is a lack of childcare facilities. Also the quality and the opening hours vary very strongly.</p>
Poland (PL)	<p>Crèches: There are public and non-public childcare institutions: nurseries (for children up to 3 years) and kindergartens (for children aged 3-6). In the years 1990-1999 the number of kindergartens declined by 1/3 and the number of nurseries by 2/3.</p> <p>Kindergartens: In 1990 there were 72.8 places in the kindergartens per 100 children aged 3-6, in 2001 this number amounted to 82.3. The percentage of children attending kindergartens rose – from 32.8 to 38.9. In the same period the public expenditures on nurseries dropped from 0.4 to 0.04 % of the GDP and on kindergartens from 0.46 to 0.4 % of GDP. For low-skilled mothers the cost of childcare can be an obstacle to starting a job.</p>
Romania (RO)	<p>Crèches: Nurseries were neglected in the 1990s as a consequence of the extension of maternity leave until the child reaches two years of age. The nursery and crèche system was decentralized. The system has very little financial support from the state or other public funds.</p> <p>Kindergartens: The childcare system in Romania does not offer too many possibilities to parents with under school-aged children to balance family and working responsibilities.</p>
Switzerland (CH)	<p>Crèches: Child care of small children under three years of age is highly individualised. Play groups, crèches etc. which are subsidised by the municipalities are mostly income-related.</p> <p>Kindergartens: Pre-school (kindergartens) starts between the ages of 3 to 5, depending on cantonal laws. The duration varies between 1 and three years. Average weekly hours in kindergartens vary between 10 and 35 hours.</p>
Slovenia (SL)	<p>Crèches: In the school year 2000/2001, the share of children aged 1-2 attending day-care centre programmes was 29.1%.</p> <p>Kindergartens: The existing childcare facilities (most of them being public day care centres) almost fully meet the demand for pre-school childcare. In the school year 2000/2001, 56.6 % of pre-school children over age one were included in organised child care, 91.3 % of them in programmes lasting 6-9 hours per day. The share of children aged 3-6 attending day care centre programmes was 70.9 %. The pre-school educational programme the year prior to starting school was free of charge for all children who started the 8-year elementary school at the age of seven.</p>
Finland (FI)	<p>Crèches and Kindergartens: Since 1990 all Finnish parents have been unconditionally entitled to day care for their children <i>under the age of three</i> either in a day care place provided by the municipality or by receiving child home care allowance if they care for their child at home. In 1996, the subjective right to day care was extended to all children below school age. Parents in Finland can choose to place their child in a day care centre run by the municipality or in municipal family day care. Municipal day care fees are income –related and the maximum fee for the first child is 200 EUR/month, for the second child 180 EUR/month, and 40 EUR/month for every subsequent child. Day care places offer full day care and provide meals. Private care: A private day care allowance is paid for the private carer. Pre-school education in Finland is mainly intended for 6-year-olds free of charge.</p> <p>In 2002: 32 % of children under school age were in municipal day care, 37 % of them in home care (parent on parental leave/child home care leave), 16 % in municipal family day care, 4 % in private day care, and 11 % in some other form of care.</p>

Table 16. Proportion of children in public day care, around 2000.

Country	Day nursery, crèche Children aged 0-2 yrs (%)	Kindergarten Children aged 3 to school age (%)	Pre-school education, starting age	Compulsory education, starting age
Belgium (Fl)	61.0 (1999)	99.0	Age 2.5	Age 6
Switzerland	Varies by cantons, ages 3-5	Age 6
Czech R.	<1.0	89.2	Age 3	Age 6
Germany	3.7 (west) 14.0 (east)	74.4 (w) 85.8 (e)	..	Age 6
Estonia	46.7	81.9	..	Age 7
Cyprus	33.9	86.5	..	Age 6
Italy	8.6 (2000)	98.0 (2000)	Age 3	Age 6
Hungary	10.3	87.2	Age 5	Age 6
Lithuania	14.9	55.9	Age 6	Age 7
Netherlands	22.5	98.0	Age 4	Age 5
Austria	10.0	73.0	..	Age 6
Poland	2.0	38.9	..	Age 7
Romania	..	66.1 (2000)	..	Age 7
Slovenia	29.1	70.9	Age 6	Age 7
Finland	36.0 (2001)	67 (2001)	Age 6	Age 7

In Finland every child, and in the Czech Republic children aged 5, have a subjective right to a place in kindergarten. In the Czech Republic 93 percent of the children aged 3-5 are enrolled in kindergarten. In Estonia this percentage is 80 %, in Cyprus 50 %, in Slovenia 71 %, and in Italy over 90 %. In Italy and Hungary parents need to pay only meal costs in kindergartens.

In Germany, children older than 3 are legally entitled to a place in a public centre, but the entitlement actually guarantees a place in a relatively costly part-time centre offering five hours of care per day and no lunch. (Bettio & Plantenga, 2004.) Parents have to organise private care in the afternoon. There are also still regions where there is a shortage of places. The regional variation of available services is high in Austria also.

In the Netherlands there are three types of childcare: formal (paid) childcare, informal paid childcare and informal unpaid childcare. It has been estimated that informal paid childcare is 25 % greater than the two other kinds. Employers finance (together with the government and the parents) part of the day care costs.

In Finland and Austria home care is an essential part of the care system: in Austria day care mothers (child minders) are in most cases employed by welfare organisations, with some people working on a freelance basis. The ‘corporate day care mothers/fathers’ represent a new service in Austria: this possibility is particularly interesting for smaller firms subject to seasonal fluctuations (e.g. tourism) and for smaller companies where the establishment of a company-owned kindergarten would be too expensive.

In Finland all parents have unconditional (subjective) entitlement to day care for their children under school age (7 years). Parents can choose between municipal day care (the subsidised fee is means-tested), municipal family day care (the fee is also means-tested) or private day care.

In many countries pre-school has almost replaced kindergartens. In Belgium pre-school education is available to all children from 2.5 to 6 years, and in the Netherlands to children from 4 years to school age. Some after school services are also available. In Switzerland pre-school education is given to from one to three years in the age group of 3-5. In the Czech Republic kindergartens provide full-day pre-school education. In Hungary and Finland pre-school is available only for 6-year-old children. In Slovenia pre-school education is integrated into day care without age limits. Most of the programs last 6-9 hours per day.

In contrast to many other countries, family day care (child minders) in the Nordic countries, France, and Germany are under public sponsorship, with providers often being recruited, trained, supervised, and even paid by local government authorities. (Kamerman, 2003.)

Bettio & Plantenga (2004) found that in most countries their findings matched the expectation that inter-generational sharing of care (the share of adults older than 50 out of all adults who devoted at least two hours per day to looking after children of other persons) was higher where family cohesion is stronger – southern Europe, with Italy in top position – and lower where cohesion was weaker, as it was in the Nordic countries. Continental Europe sat more or less in the middle. Belgium was an exception where “grannies” appeared to be as active caregivers as they are in Portugal and Spain; in Germany, by contrast, intergenerational sharing of care was at the low levels of the Nordic countries.

In cohesive families large flows of informal care between generations prolong the perception that external care services are poor substitutes. One particularly telling example of this attitude is the so called long family in Italy, in which children often live with their parents well past their 20s, and female children are then expected to pass on to their own offspring the same standard of care, as well as returning some of the care they have received from their own parents. In contrast, active inter- and intergenerational relations are less typical of the northern family. Instead, the family has become largely de-institutionalised, with a large number of people living alone, a high divorce rate, and a high proportion of children born out of wedlock. (Bettio & Plantenga, 2004.)

4.6. Gender issues: Gender and working life

A major gender issue in Europe has been the integration of women and especially mothers into the labour market. One of the strategies to increase employment rate in Europe in the near future relies on the possibilities to increase female participation in countries where it still is relatively low.

The female labour force participation rate has traditionally been on a high level especially in Central/Eastern European and the Scandinavian countries. However, the traditional U-shaped labour force participation of women in many Western European countries is gradually disappearing. Among DIALOG countries, the highest participation rates can be found in transition countries, especially in Slovenia and Lithuania and in Finland. In Western European DIALOG countries, women’s labour force participation rate at ages 30-39 is almost equal to that in transition countries, or about 80 percent. Only in Italy and Hungary are women’s labour force participation rates at ages 20-29 and 30-39 still about 10-15 percentage points lower (Table 17). The increasing participation of women in the labour market has implied that the gap between female and male economic activity is gradually diminishing.

Table 17. Labour force participation rate among women aged 20-49 years, around 2000.

	20-29	30-39	40-49
Belgium	-	76	-
Switzerland	68	81	81
Czech Republic	62	82	92
Germany	72	79	82
Estonia	63	79	90
Italy	56	65	59
Cyprus	70	76	73
Lithuania	68	88	90
Netherlands	81	78	75
Austria	70	76	75
Poland	66	80	80
Romania	58	79	75
Slovenia	73	94	86
Finland	73	84	89

Note: the age group in Belgium is 25-49 years; in Switzerland the age groups are 15-24, 25-39, 40-54 years.

In Italy the gap between female and male labour force participation rates at age 30-39 has been the highest among the DIALOG countries, or 30 percent (Table 18). On the average this gap has been about 15 percent. In Slovenia and Lithuania it has been the lowest, 5 percent or less.

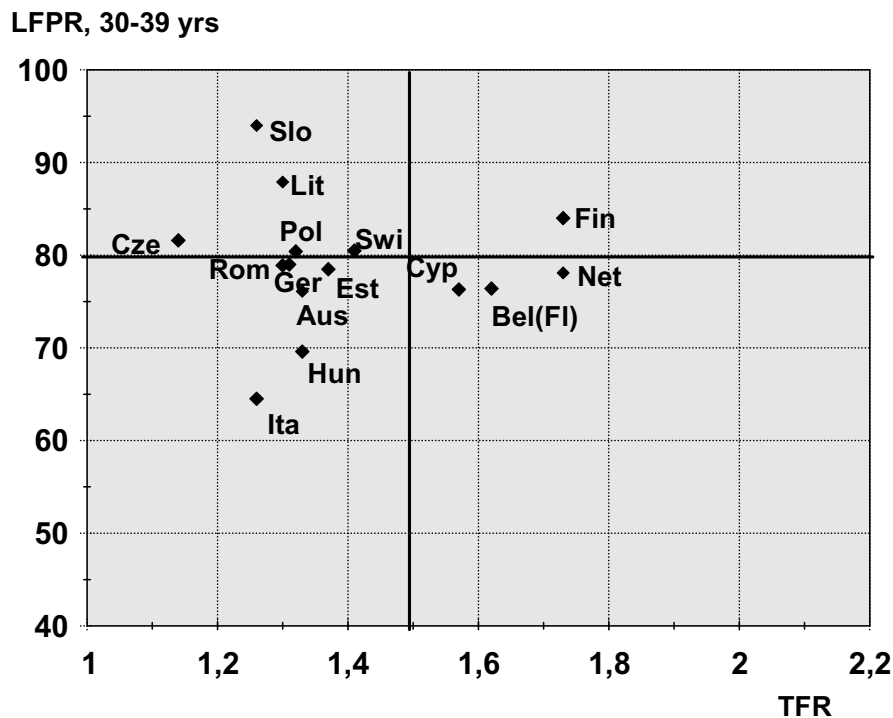
Table 18. Gap between female and male labour force participation rate at age 30-39 years, around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Percentage points
Belgium	17
Switzerland	16
Czech Republic	16
Germany	17
Estonia	14
Italy	30
Cyprus	21
Lithuania	5
Hungary	19
Netherlands	17
Austria	19
Poland	14
Romania	16
Slovenia	2
Finland	10

Note: Belgium age group 25-49; Lithuania age groups 30-34, 35-39; Switzerland age group 25-39.

The connection between a high female labour force participation rate and low fertility seems to be disappearing in Europe (Figure 9). However, the low fertility rates in transition countries, where during the 1990s many family policy measures have been either abolished altogether or reduced (see Chapter 4.3-4.5) suggests that family policy development may have some influence on childbearing decisions families make. On the other hand, fertility trends in Germany, Austria, and Belgium, for example, are more difficult to combine with changes in family policies.

Figure 9. Labour force participation rate among women aged 30-39 years and the TFR around 2000, DIALOG countries.



Part-time employment has been a very popular solution to combine paid work and family life in many Western European countries (Table 19). It has been very popular in the Netherlands and Switzerland where more than half of employed women work part-time in the age group of 20-39 years. Part-time employment has been popular also in Belgium, Austria, and Germany. In Southern Europe and in Central/Eastern European countries part-time work has been quite rare, below 10 percent. Part-time work has also been relatively rare in Finland, but has increased during 1990s, thus approaching other Nordic countries. In all countries, part-time employment among men has been rare.

Labour force participation and part-time employment rates are very much influenced by the unemployment rates in each country. In the age group 20-29 the unemployment rates have been very high in Poland, Lithuania (men), and Italy (women) (Table 20). In Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Cyprus the young generation's unemployment rates have been very low.

Table 19. Part-time employed, % of all employed women aged 20-39 years, 1990 and 2002.

	(% of all employed women)	
	1990	2002
Belgium	23.3	31.1
Switzerland	-	55.3
Czech R.	-	7.7
Germany	20.0	29.0
Estonia	4.2	8.5
Italy	-	16.9
Cyprus	-	6.6
Lithuania	-	11.5
Netherlands	43.0	62.8
Austria	17.1	30.1
Poland	9.3	10.0
Romania	-	10.9
Slovenia	-	6.0
Finland	8.8	18.8

Table 20. Unemployment rate among 20-29-year old men and women around 2000.

	Men	Women
Belgium	7	9
Switzerland	3	5
Czech R.	10	13
Germany	8	11
Estonia	13	16
Italy	17	24
Cyprus	2	3
Lithuania	26	18
Hungary	11	6
Netherlands	4	3
Austria	4	3
Poland	27	31
Romania	14	14
Slovenia	10	11
Finland	13	12

4.7. Reconciling work and family: policies

The current family policies in all the European countries have the primary aim of achieving the conditions for mothers to raise their children through two basic instruments: a) a period of leave from work for mothers before and after the birth of the child; b) assistance to very young children through child care facilities such as crèches and kindergartens, to enable the parents to do paid work. (Palomba, 2003.)

Policies facilitate the work and motherhood combination by reducing the costs of care, by providing quality services, and with legal protection against firing and against discriminatory practices regarding hiring mothers. Policies give advantages also to non working parents: by giving extra tax or cash advantages in case of a non working spouse with children or by providing replacement income in case of career breaks, they implicitly encourage women to leave the labour market when the children are young. (Palomba, 2003.)

The general aim in reconciling work and family has been to increase female labour force participation and to provide women with equal opportunities for a career and equal pay with men. This has been promoted by increasing flexibility in working hours and by increasing male responsibility in child care and housework. Equal division of labour in the home has given women more freedom to concentrate on paid work when children are young. In many countries the important policy for reconciling work and family has been to provide to parents more options for part-time work, or other forms of atypical work. This is an attempt to promote young women's labour force participation. In addition, policies related to unemployment and basic social security can have a marked impact on women's labour force participation. In Appendix 4, policies in DIALOG countries for unemployment and basic social security as well as atypical work are listed (see Appendix 4).

In a broader scope reconciling work and family includes most aspects of family policy. As Palomba (2003) has stated, working parents look for solutions for how to take care for the child right after it has been born. Maternal and paternal leaves and related allowances help to reconcile paid work and family responsibilities. One important factor is the right to return to the previous position a parent held before the parental leave (job protected leave). Public and subsidised day care services facilitate the labour force participation of both parents. Promoting maternal employment is also an important strategy for preventing child poverty and disadvantage. (Kamerman et al., 2003.)

In 2000, France adopted a 35-hour workweek, creating a flexible work schedule rather than a rigid workweek for public and private employees in firms with 20 or more workers. According to French authorities, 57 percent of parents with children under the age of six years say the new law helps them better balance work and family responsibilities, especially child care. (Kamerman et al., 2003.) The quality of daily life had improved with the shorter workweek.

In the country reports representatives from each DIALOG country reported about different measures and reforms for reconciling paid work and family life. These reports have been summarised in Table 21.

In addition to part-time arrangements, other innovations for shortening working hours for parents with young children have been applied. In Belgium a specific time-credit system has been created that allows reduction of working time or interruption of work for a certain period. In a similar way shorter working hours are allowed to employees who look after a child (under the age of 15) in the Czech Republic.

In Belgium, a wide range of measures for rearranging and redistributing working hours were introduced during the 1990s. One feature of this has been the career break schemes, which Belgium has pioneered together with Denmark. The intention is that employees give up working for a specified period and, provided other workers replace them, receive compensatory payment from the government.

In Germany and recently in Italy working part time has been made a legal right to encourage women to re-enter the labour market. Also in the Netherlands employees have a legal right to shorten their hours per week after having worked for one year in an organisation. In Italy local trade unions have signed

collective agreements on combining work and family. In contrast, in Slovenia entry to part-time employment has been made very difficult.

Another option for lowering the movement from home to labour force has been the mini-jobs that have been created first in Austria and later in Germany. There is a ceiling in earnings up to which employees (a maximum of 15 hours per week) can work without taxes. This is one form of so-called atypical work in Austria.

One important policy for reconciling paid work and family life has been afternoon day care services for young school children. This has been introduced in Finland and Cyprus, for example.

Some countries (for example Lithuania) allow unpaid leave for the care of children. In the Netherlands and Poland these employees can get an allowance. In Estonia parents earn additional days to their vacation depending on the age and number of children.

In the Netherlands the idea is to create financial incentives for taking a period of leave. In this proposal a possibility is given to employees to take leave for care or educational purposes. The duration of the career break is a minimum of two and a maximum of six months.

Austria organised an annual competition for women- and family-friendly enterprises. Austria also provides financial support for unemployed persons for buying external childcare.

Attitudes towards employment also divided the countries in an interesting way:

In many Western European countries, new regulations to broaden the concept of atypical work were seen as essential and useful. In contrast, in Finland and in some transition countries, “atypical” work was seen as a negative alternative (in Finland) or as an unnecessary reform (in Poland).

Table 21. Reconciliation of work and family in DIALOG countries, around 2000.

Countries	Measures and reforms for reconciling work and family life
Belgium (Flanders) (BE2)	<p>During 15 months after the birth there is a 1/5-reduction of working time.</p> <p>A time-credit system (2002): interruption of work or reduction of working time for a certain period. A time-credit system replaced the former system of career break.</p> <p>41% of women worked part time in 2002.</p> <p>Law of August 1998: Every employee has the right to an interruption of a job during a maximum of 12 months (minimum one month) or a reduction of working time (with a minimum of 1/5), to take care of an extremely sick family member</p>
Czech Republic (CZ)	Employers obliged to allow shorter or otherwise amended working hours for pregnant women or women looking after children if the women so require.
Germany (DE)	<p>The possibility to work part time is designed to encourage women to re-enter the labour market. Law on part-time and temporary jobs (2001): forcing employers to accept, under certain conditions, requests for part-time work. A legal right of working part time in companies with more than 15 employees while being on parental leave. The maximum number of hours a parent can work during parental leave will increase from 19 hours per week up to 30 hours a week</p> <p>Mini-jobs: up to 325 € without taxes or other deductions have to be paid (only 15 hrs a week). A similar reform was passed in Austria, where it was a success. Simplifying the regulations for atypical work is the general target.</p>
Estonia (EE)	Parents are entitled to additional days of vacation, added to annual vacation depending on the age and number of children.

Countries	Measures and reforms for reconciling work and family life
Italy (IT)	<p>Recently, a new law on part-time (N. 61/2000) has been introduced with the aim of increasing the presence of women, youth and the elderly in the labour market.</p> <p>Collective agreements on combining work and family have been signed between local trade unions.</p>
Cyprus (CY)	<p>After returning to their job, mothers are allowed to go to work an hour later or to leave an hour earlier for the first 6 months after maternity leave.</p> <p>The Department of Social Welfare Services encourages and facilitates the establishment and operation of day centres for school-age children in order to protect and take care of young pupils after school and until working parents finish their work.</p>
Lithuania (LT)	<p>During the mother's pregnancy and childbirth leave and during the childcare leave until the child reaches three years of age, the father - on request (the mother – during the child care leave of the father until the child is three years of age) may be granted an unpaid leave, the overall duration of which shall not exceed three months.</p> <p>Sickness benefit is granted to a family member (mother or father), guardian.</p> <p>Working parents may take an unpaid leave for the care of the children. Duration of additional vacation days depend on children's age and number</p>
Hungary (HU)	-
Netherlands (NL)	<p>The Career Breaks Act: an allowance for employees who agree with their employer to take long-term leaves for reasons of caring responsibilities or education.</p> <p>After having worked for one year in an organization, employees have a legal right to change their contract and to work longer/shorter hours per week, as long as it cannot be shown to cause a problem for the business</p>
Austria (AT)	<p>Financial support for unemployed persons for buying external childcare.</p> <p>1998: a form of atypical work with up to 12 hours per week and gross salary under the amount of negligibility € 296.21 in 2001) was introduced. No taxes have to be paid; employers do not have to pay additional fees, just contributions to social security system.</p> <p>Since 1998 (starting 1991 in Styria) in all federal states of Austria competitions for women- and family-friendly enterprises are carried out every year.</p> <p>Since 1998 the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth offers the "work and family audit" to Austrian enterprises. The focus of this project is the improvement of the reconciliation of work and family life.</p>
Poland (PL)	<p>Employed persons can take care leave. The maximum benefit period is 14 days (Since 1995 - 80% of the employee's remuneration). The leave may also be taken to care for another sick family member.</p>
Romania (RO)	<p>Temporary Child Sickness Leave: Entitlement to every employed mother and/or father with one or more children below 7 years of age or 18 years in the case of a disabled child. It is given for a period of 14 days per year with prolongation in case of serious illness and disability.</p>
Switzerland (CH)	The proportion of part-time arrangements (particularly among women) is comparatively high.
Slovenia (SL)	The regulations with respect to part-time employment and retirement rights are rigid.
Finland (FI)	<p>Possibility to work part-time until the youngest child is 8 years old. If working hours 30 h/week or less, and the youngest child is below 3 years of age part time childcare allowance is paid (flat rate, 63 e/month, taxable income). Either of the parents, who is working part time, can receive allowance. Part time work due to childcare arrangements is relatively rare in Finland; only about 5-7 percent of mothers with a child below 3 years of age have used this possibility.</p> <p>Since 1988, parents of a child under the age of ten have had the right to four days off work to care for the sick child. Both parents, and the child's only parent, have to be in employment. Although there is no statutory income compensation, majority of the branches offer paid leave up to four days via collective agreements.</p> <p>At the end of 2000 employers gained a possibility to deduce from taxation costs of a private childcare service hired on behalf of the employee in order to take care of employee's sick under 10-year-old child up to four days. The number of employers using this possibility is increasing gradually.</p> <p>Since 1998, employed persons have a right to short term emergency leave for urgent family reasons (accident, acute illness etc.). Employee must inform employer as soon as possible, and if required, provide a reliable account of reason for the leave. No financial compensation is paid during leave.</p> <p>Flexitime means that employee can start/end working day according to previously agreed limits. The use of flexitime has increased through the 1990s, and currently majority (about 75%) of the employees have some flexibility in arranging their working day.</p>

4.8. Other gender policies

Many components of family policy aim at diminishing inequalities in the labour force, e.g. difficulties in building up a career because of caring for one's own children, and in division of work at home in families with young children. As we learned in the previous subchapter, these policies are often called the reconciliation of work and family. Some other policies are even more gender-specific and they are treated here under the title 'Gender policies'. The general aim of gender policies is to promote equal opportunities for women compared to men.

Gender policies reported in DIALOG country reports are summarised in Appendix 5 (see Appendix 5). For each country, the appendix includes the employment rate for men and women, part-time employment rates for women and men and the gender pay gap. The percentage in the gender pay gap informs how many percentage units the mean female payment is of the mean male payment rate. If it were 100 % the incomes of men and women would be equal. The appendix covers also the gender specific policies that were reported in the national reports.

Especially in Italy and Cyprus but also in Austria, the Netherlands, and the Czech Republic men have participated in the labour force much more actively than women. The difference according to sex in the employment rates for the age group 20-64 ranged from 18 to 29 percent. Based on these statistics the opportunities in the labour force have been much more limited to women than to men in these countries. In Lithuania and Finland differences among sexes are almost non-existing and in Slovenia and Estonia the differences are only moderate.

Rates in part-time employment vary a lot in the age group 20-39 by sex in DIALOG countries. In the Netherlands and Switzerland more than half of the women have a part-time job (a much higher proportion than in the other countries), but men have not been more involved in part-time work than men in other countries. Other countries where women have had part-time positions much more often than men are Belgium, Germany, and Austria. In these countries part-time employment has been preferred and applied instead of founding proper public day care facilities. On the other hand, in Romania, Estonia, Slovenia, Cyprus, and Poland differences among the sexes are only tiny. These countries have not provided specific means to reconcile paid work and family with help of the part-time work institution.

There is no country where men and women would have equal payment. Closest to the aim to diminish the gender pay gaps to a minimum have been Belgium (89 %) and Slovenia (88 %). In nine countries this gap is around 80 percent. The most outstanding pay gaps were found in the Czech Republic (73 %), Cyprus (74 %), and Estonia (76 %). This is an implication of the need for real reforms in national gender and labour policies.

The other information on national gender policies varied based on different policies and how the issue was reported. Some countries mentioned legal acts taken towards equal opportunities for women compared to men.

The Austrian federal act on equal treatment places an obligation on the employer to increase the women's quota in the area of civil service. The act on equal treatment for the private sector prescribes equal pay for both sexes. Germany and Belgium (with good results) also have a law for equal pay of men and women for equal work. Finland has an Equality Act that demands an even distribution of men and women in state and municipal bodies.

In Italy the Constitution states that working women are entitled to equal rights and, for comparable jobs, to have the same salary as men. There are three new laws in Italy relevant to gender equality and equal opportunities but there is still strong resistance to applying these principles. In Switzerland the Constitution also contains the provision of equal employment opportunity and a claim to equal pay for work of equal value.

In Slovenia equal rights and opportunities and equal pay (an obligation in the Labour Relation Act) in the labour market have been reported. In Estonia the law on gender equality has been passed previously. In Lithuania the law on equal opportunities has been enforced – also a national programme for equal opportunities has been approved. Romania has the National Action Plan for Equal Opportunities for men and women and an act of equal opportunities that provides the principle of equal pay.

In Cyprus measures on reconciliation of work and family life are incorporated in legislation and programs of the Social Welfare Services. The non-governmental sector is encouraged to develop a wide range of family services.

Some countries have not reported any specific gender related policies – when standard family policies are not taken account. These countries are Hungary and the Czech Republic. The Netherlands reported only some equal opportunity objectives that have been approved in the Cabinet. In Poland the Government Office of the Plenipotentiary for the Equal Status of Women and Men has been established; some state activities are expected to appear.

4.9. Opinions on general family policy issues

The PPA Survey included some questions on general family policy issues. These included:

1. (CI1c.) Please indicate what you think about the government's responsibility regarding facilitating the labour force participation of women? (Completely responsible, Quite responsible, Responsible, Slightly responsible, Not responsible?)
2. (CI1d.) Please indicate what you think about the government's responsibility regarding providing opportunities for women to combine a job outside the home with raising children? (Completely responsible, Quite responsible, Responsible, Slightly responsible, Not responsible?)
3. (CI1e.) Please indicate what you think about the government's responsibility regarding providing opportunities for men to combine a job outside the home with raising children? (Completely responsible, Quite responsible, Responsible, Slightly responsible, Not responsible?)
4. (CI1a.) According to your opinion, in the recent years the Government has paid less, more or the same attention than they did before to poor families?
5. (CI1b.) According to your opinion, in the recent years the Government has paid less, more or the same attention than they did before to the families with small children?
6. (CI1c.) According to your opinion, in the recent years the Government has paid less, more or the same attention than they did before to the problems of working mothers?
7. (CI1d.) According to your opinion, in the recent years the Government has paid less, more or the same attention than they did before to the childcare facilities?

4.9.1. Opinions on the government's role in family policy issues

While the majority of Europeans appeared to favour at least partial responsibility of the government in many social issues, there are marked differences between countries and across issues. Among issues related to the family and working life, measures for women for reconciling work and family received the strongest support in seven out of eleven DIALOG countries. In four countries, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia fostering female employment was preferred. Measures for men for reconciling work and the family received the least support in most countries. Only in Lithuania and Finland, was the least support given to the government's role in fostering women's labour force participation. Also in Slovenia, the government's role was expected more in measures for men for combining work and family than in similar measures for women (Table 22).

Overall, the role of the government in family issues was stressed more in Germany and in Belgium than in other DIALOG countries in Europe. Of the transition countries, the government's role was most acceptable in Romania and Hungary. Overall, the government responsibility over social and family issues was expected to a lesser extent in transition countries than in Western European countries. The least responsibility from the government in these issues, on average, was expected in the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia, and, among the Western European countries, in the Netherlands.

Table 22. Expected government responsibility over issues related to family and working life around 2000 (Mean), DIALOG countries.

	Female labour force participation	Reconciliation of work and family: women	Reconciliation of work and family: men	All family issues
Belgium (FI)	-	2.08	2.47	2.3
Czech R.	2.68	2.61	3.14	2.8
Germany	2.09	1.96	2.27	2.1
Cyprus	2.47	2.43	2.90	2.6
Lithuania	2.81	2.23	2.70	2.6
Hungary	2.13	2.21	2.81	2.4
Netherlands	3.22	3.16	3.26	3.2
Poland	2.79	2.84	3.19	2.9
Romania	2.18	2.20	2.61	2.3
Slovenia	2.95	3.09	3.03	3.0
Finland	2.99	2.76	2.85	2.9

1=completely responsible, 5=not responsible. Germany, only categories 1,2,4,5
Data missing in Estonia, Italy, Austria.

Female labour force participation

Among issues related to the family and working life, fostering women's labour force participation received clearly less support than measures for women to reconcile work and family. In four out of eleven countries, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia, fostering female employment was preferred. Public support for the government's role in fostering female labour force participation was the highest in Germany and the lowest in the Netherlands (Table 23). Women favoured it more than men did in all DIALOG countries. Young respondents tended to favour the government's role in fostering female employment less than middle-aged or old respondents in most DIALOG countries. In Germany, Cyprus, and Lithuania, the opinions of the age groups did not differ markedly (see Appendix 1, Table 5).

Table 23. Expected government responsibility for fostering female employment around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Quite responsible	Responsible	Not responsible	Mean
Czech R.	44	51	5	2.68
Germany	79	18	3	2.09
Cyprus	54	42	4	2.47
Lithuania	36	58	6	2.81
Hungary	68	29	3	2.13
Netherlands	22	68	9	3.22
Poland	47	39	14	2.79
Romania	63	31	6	2.18
Slovenia	35	56	9	2.95
Finland	32	62	6	2.99

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2);

Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4); Not responsible (5)

Data missing in Belgium (FI), Estonia, Italy, Austria.

Combining a job with raising children, women

The government's role in facilitating the combining of a job with raising children for women was the most supported family issue in most of the DIALOG countries (Table 24). Only in four countries was women's employment supported more (Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia). Again, women favoured it markedly more than did men, with the exception of Slovenia. Age did not have a uniform impact on the support. In the Central/Eastern European countries middle-aged or older respondents tended to favour it more than the young, in Western European countries and Finland, the young gave more support to it than other age groups (see Appendix 1, Table 6).

Combining a job with raising children, men

The government's role in providing opportunities for men to combine work and the family received the least support in most of the DIALOG countries. The support given to government's role in providing opportunities for women to combine work and family was clearly stronger in most DIALOG countries than support given to the government's role in providing similar opportunities for men (Table 25). The gap between support given to measures for women and for men is relatively large in Hungary, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, and Cyprus, and small in Finland, the Netherlands, and Slovenia. Women supported measures targeted to men more than men did (except in Slovenia), but the differences between genders in the support given were not as marked as in the support given to women's possibilities to combine a job with raising children. Age tended to decrease the support given to the government's role in this issue in Western European DIALOG countries and Cyprus and Finland, while in the transition countries age groups did not differ markedly in their opinions (see Appendix 1, Table 7).

Table 24. Expected government responsibility for facilitating reconciliation of a job with raising children, for women, around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Quite responsible	Responsible	Not responsible	Mean
Belgium (FI)	72	25	3	2.08
Czech R.	48	47	5	2.61
Germany	83	15	2	1.96
Cyprus	57	38	5	2.43
Lithuania	57	42	2	2.23
Hungary	64	32	4	2.21
Netherlands	31	56	13	3.16
Poland	47	38	15	2.84
Romania	64	30	6	2.20
Slovenia	28	62	10	3.09

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2);

Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4); Not responsible (5)

Data missing in Estonia, Italy, Austria.

Table 25. Expected government responsibility for facilitating reconciliation of a job with raising children, for men, around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Quite responsible	Responsible	Not responsible	Mean
Belgium (FI)	55	41	5	2.47
Czech R.	29	57	14	3.14
Germany	74	22	5	2.27
Cyprus	41	46	13	2.90
Lithuania	41	55	4	2.70
Hungary	42	44	13	2.81
Netherlands	27	59	14	3.26
Poland	34	44	22	3.19
Romania	51	37	12	2.61
Slovenia	27	66	7	3.03
Finland	39	56	5	2.85

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2);

Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4); Not responsible (5)

Data missing in Estonia, Italy, Austria.

4.9.2. Opinions on the recent government attention towards family policy issues

According to the opinions expressed in the PPA Surveys, national governments have had different priorities when addressing social issues in the DIALOG countries. The opinions reflect the socio-political situation in a country at the time of the survey. National PPA2-surveys were conducted during the years 2000 to 2003.

In general, according to public opinion, national governments had recently paid less attention to family policy issues than before in most of the Central/Eastern European DIALOG countries. Especially in Poland, Romania, and Lithuania the majority of the public feels that the government is focusing on poor families, families with small children, problems of working mothers or child care facilities clearly less than earlier. In Hungary, families with small children and childcare facilities seem to have received about as much attention from the government as earlier. In two other transition countries, Slovenia and especially the Czech Republic, public opinion is somewhat more optimistic, more than a half of the respondents saw that government was focusing on family issues at least to the same extent as before. In Slovenia, public opinion was more pessimistic about the focus on poor families and the problems of working mothers (Table 26, Figure 10; Appendix 1; Tables 8-11).

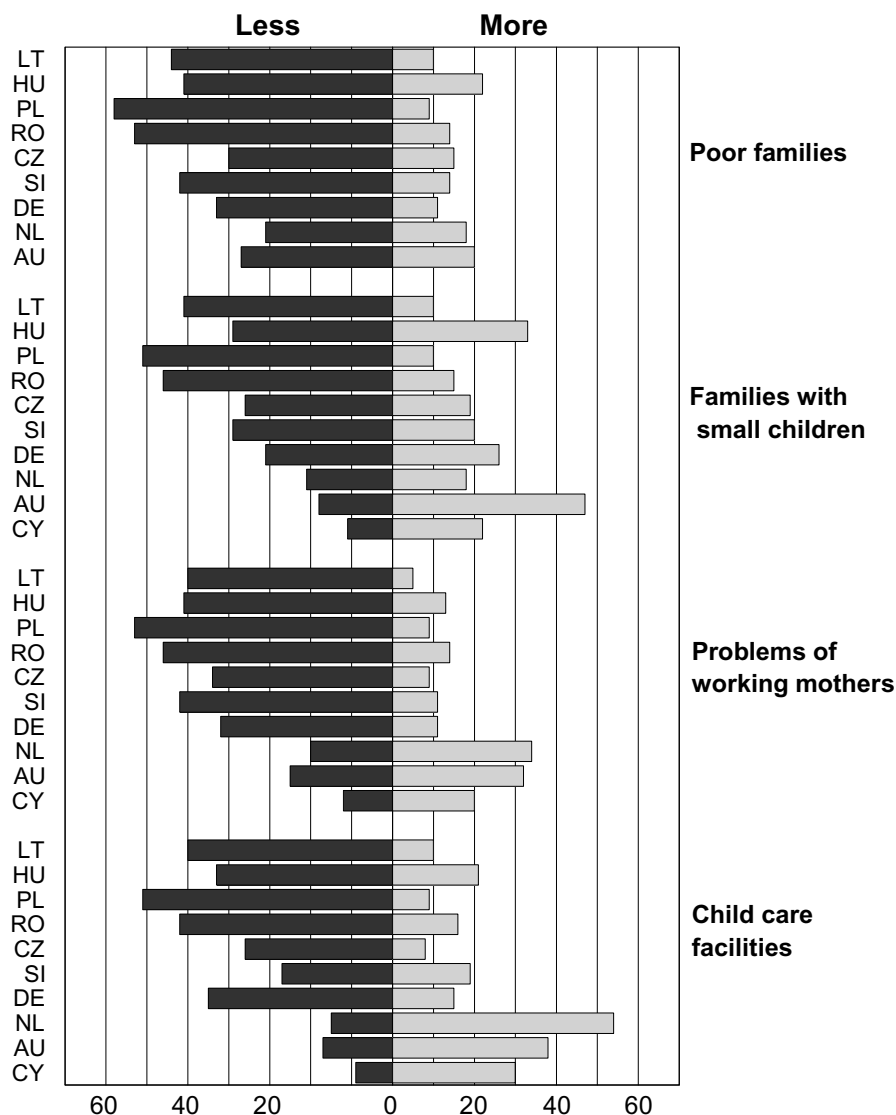
In Western European countries and Cyprus, a large proportion of the respondents felt that there had been no marked change in government attention to family issues. However, according to the opinion of the population, some of issues had received more attention from the government, especially in Austria and the Netherlands. In Austria, a large proportion of respondents agreed that the government had paid more attention to families with small children, childcare facilities and problems of working mothers. In the Netherlands, problems of working mothers and especially childcare facilities appeared to have been on the government agenda. On the contrary, in Germany the attitudes were more pessimistic, and there was more ambivalence only in opinions regarding the government's actions concerning families with small children.

Table 26. Public opinion on recent government focus on various family policy issues around 2000 (less, equal or more than before), DIALOG countries.

	Less	Equal	More
Poor families			
Czech Republic	40	45	15
Germany	43	46	11
Lithuania	54	36	10
Hungary	51	27	22
Netherlands	31	52	18
Austria	37	43	20
Poland	68	23	9
Romania	63	23	14
Slovenia	52	34	14
Families with small children			
Czech Republic	36	45	19
Germany	31	43	26
Cyprus	11	67	22
Lithuania	51	40	10
Hungary	39	29	33
Netherlands	21	61	18
Austria	18	36	47
Poland	61	29	10
Romania	56	29	15
Slovenia	39	42	20
Problems of working mothers			
Czech Republic	44	48	9
Germany	42	48	11
Cyprus	12	68	20
Lithuania	50	45	5
Hungary	51	36	13
Netherlands	20	46	34
Austria	25	43	32
Poland	63	29	9
Romania	56	30	14
Slovenia	52	37	11
Child care facilities			
Czech Republic	36	57	8
Germany	45	40	15
Cyprus	9	61	30
Lithuania	50	40	10
Hungary	43	36	21
Netherlands	15	32	54
Austria	17	45	38
Poland	61	31	9
Romania	52	32	16
Slovenia	27	53	19

Data missing in Belgium (FI), Estonia, Italy, Finland, and in 'Poor families' for Cyprus.

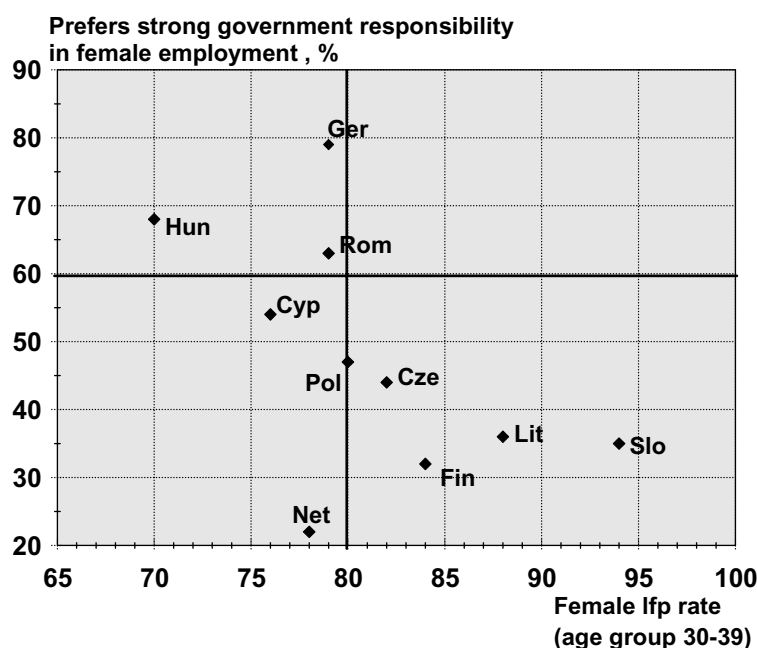
Figure 10. Opinions of the population on recent government focus on certain family policy issues around 2000, DIALOG countries. Proportion of Less or More (than before) responses (%).



4.10. Interrelations of opinions on demographic trends and gender issues in working life

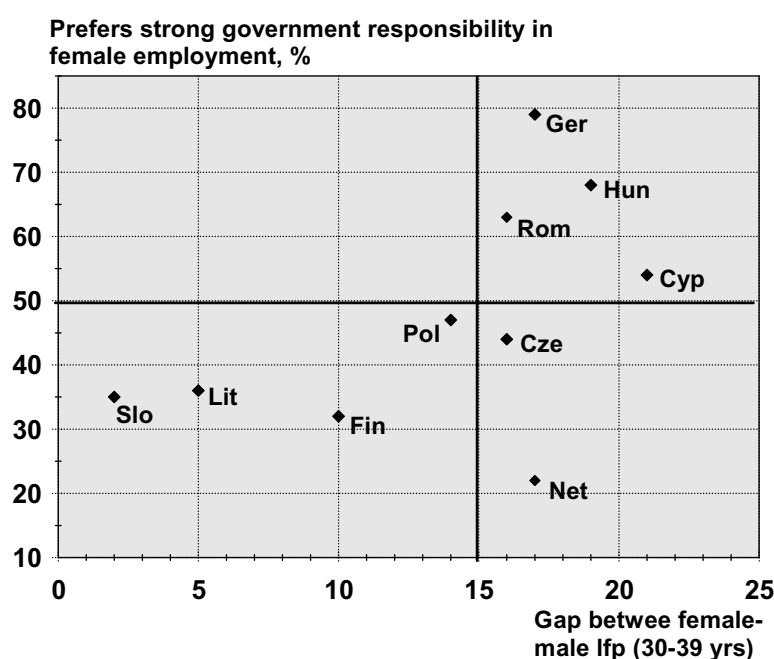
The female labour force participation rate has some bearing on general public preferences concerning the governmental role in female employment: in countries with a relatively high female economic activity rate there are less expectations towards the government to foster female employment. In Germany, there appears to be a relatively strong support for government intervention although the participation rate is high. This may point to country specific problems related to terms or consequences of women's employment. In the Netherlands, there is relatively weak support for government intervention (Figure 11).

Figure 11. Opinion of the population on government responsibility in fostering female employment and the female labour force participation rate around 2000, DIALOG countries.



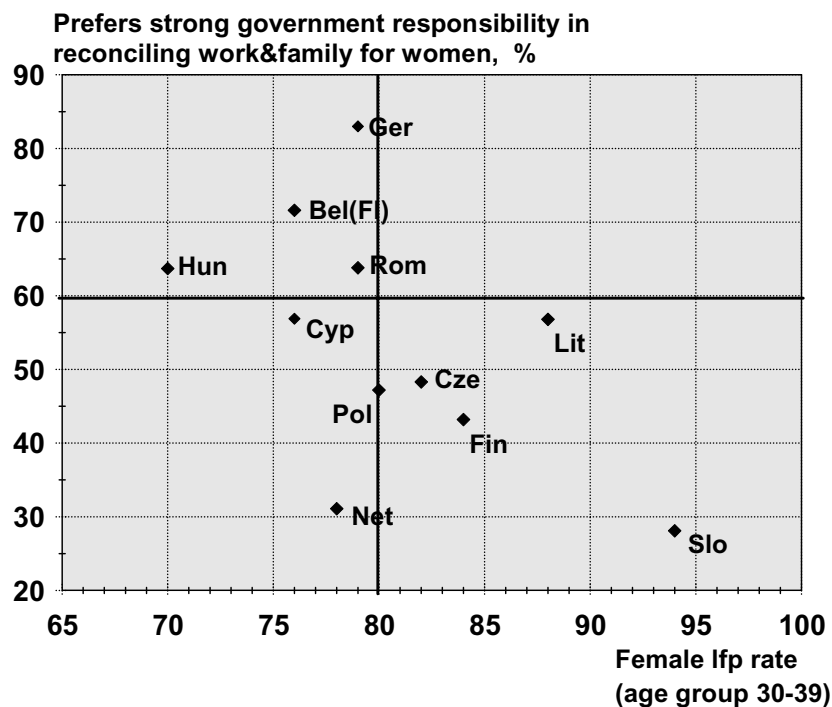
Expectations towards government intervention in female employment are higher in countries where the gap between male and female employment is the greatest, and diminish with a decreasing gap. However, in Cyprus, the Czech Republic, and especially in the Netherlands, the gap between male and female economic activity is relatively large, but attitudes of the population do not widely support the government's role in fostering female employment (Figure 12).

Figure 12. Opinion of the population on government responsibility in fostering female employment and the gap between male and female labour force participation rates at age 30-39 around 2000, DIALOG countries.



Government responsibility in facilitating combining a job with raising children for women received generally wider support in DIALOG countries than other family policy related measures. However, it had no visible association with the female labour force participation rate in these countries. In countries where the female labour force participation rate among 30-39-year old women was about the average, or around 80 percent, there were marked differences in how large a role was expected from the government (Figure 13).

Figure 13. Opinion of the population on government responsibility in facilitating combining a job with raising children for women and the female labour force participation rate around 2000, DIALOG countries.



Results of the PPA Survey also show, that support given to the government's role in facilitating reconciliation of work and the family is only weakly tied to a country's fertility rate (Figure 14). Concerns related to decreasing fertility are thus not straightforwardly transferred into greater expectations towards government intervention in family and work -related family policies within a country.

The government's responsibility was expected the least in facilitating reconciliation of work and the family for men. Public expectations do not appear to be connected with the prevalence of the male breadwinner family model in DIALOG countries (Figure 15). In countries with a relatively large gap between female and male labour force participation rates (for example, Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands), the public support given to the government's role varies markedly. However, the results suggest that men's improving role may be expected more in countries with a relatively large gap between female and male employment, combined with increased expectations towards the government to also foster men's combining of work and family.

Figure 14. Opinion of the population on government responsibility in facilitating combining a job with raising children for women and the TFR around 2000, DIALOG countries.

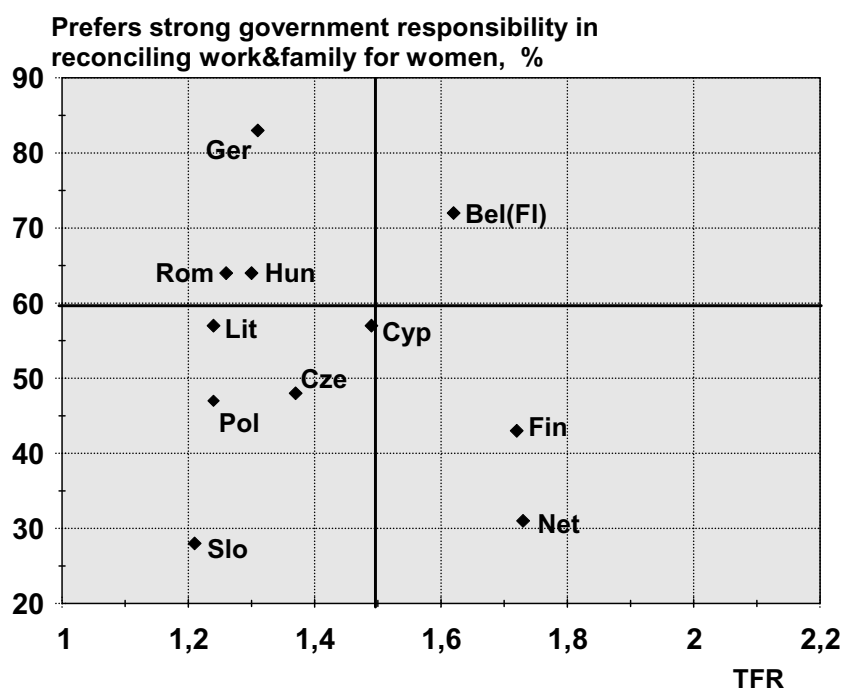
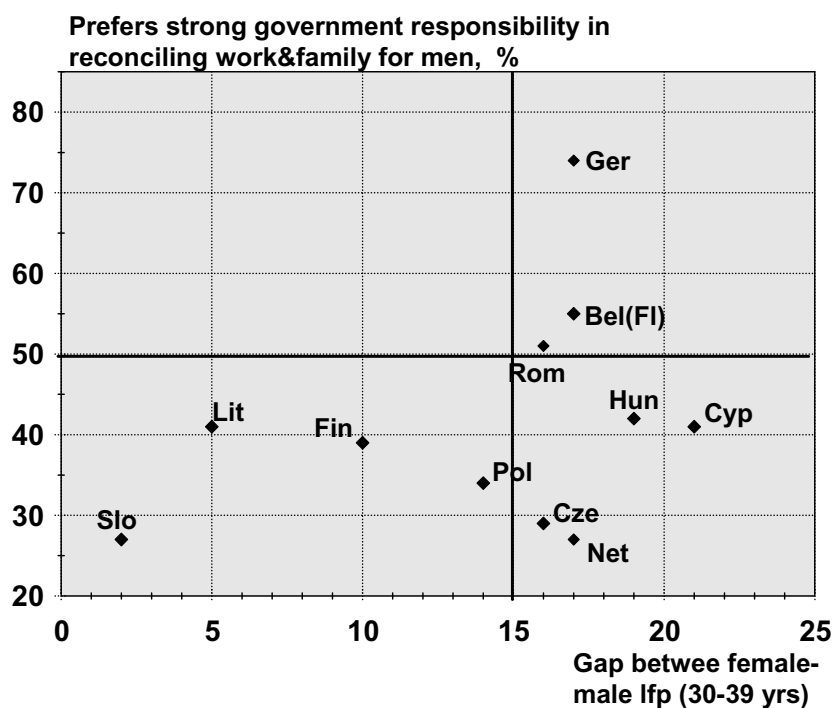


Figure 15. Opinion of the population on government responsibility in facilitating combining a job with raising children for men and the gap between female and male labour force participation rates around 2000, DIALOG countries.



4.11. Family policy types and their interrelations to opinions on general family policy issues

There have been a number of models for clustering European welfare societies. Family policy has been an important element in these attempts to group countries according to the specified criteria. In this report mention was already made of a grouping into “Traditional-”, “In-between-” and “Generous family policy” groups of countries (Lewin-Epstein et al., 2000).

Ostner and Lewis (1995) have classified several European countries according to the strength of the male-breadwinner norm as manifested in national tax and social security systems, the level of provisions for public child care, and the nature of women’s labour force participation.

Papadopoulos (1998) argues that the countries that constitute ‘the periphery of the EU’ (Ireland, Spain, Portugal, Greece, and Italy) are characterised by a centrality of the family as a social institution and as the key provider of welfare. The peripheral countries have the least generous child support packages, and thus, public dissatisfaction with family policy in these countries is not surprising.

Family policy regimes have also been divided into “Etatism” (services, financial incentives), “Familialism” (financial incentives, pronatalist) and “Individualism” (weak financial incentives, hardly any services) (Fux, 2002; Fux, 2004). In “Familialism” security in the society and solidarity inside the family system are important values. Policy is based on financial incentives. In “Individualism” the liberal type of basic values such as independence and freedom of choice prevail. The basis of social policy is in subsidiary targeted to the poor population. In “Etatism” important values are equality and equal opportunities. These opportunities are promoted with redistributive policies.

In this report we apply a grouping model that is based on the available data and information in the DIALOG documentation. It is a combination of different aspects of family policy and welfare. The division of countries has been carried out bearing in mind that in all European countries families and children are highly valued compared to other values in life. Each country and each family has been looking for the best possible solutions how to take care of their young children and how to reconcile it with the necessity of everyday family living.

DIALOG countries are divided into four family policy groups:

1. Income transfer model

Belgium (Flanders), Germany, Austria, Italy

- Tax credits, limited services, part-time work

2. Labour market model

The Netherlands, Switzerland, Cyprus

- High rate of part-time work (not Cyprus), low unemployment, limited services

3. Imposed home care model

The Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Lithuania

- Some income transfers, very limited services, economical hardship and high unemployment

4. Day care service model

Finland, Slovenia

- Universal day care, female full-time work

Belgium, Germany, Austria, and Italy were grouped into the income transfer model. These countries provide quite generous tax deductions and tax credits to families. The first policy option for young children is home care. Day care services are limited. Mothers are somewhat encouraged to participate in the part-time work labour market. This is the policy to reconcile family and work in these countries. Italy has also a specific approach to income transfers to low income and big families. These countries together have some of the features of Western European “Familialism” as defined by Fux (2004).

The Netherlands, Switzerland, and Cyprus rely in their family policy on the labour market model. In Switzerland there are no maternal or parental leaves and related allowances. The only income transfers are child allowances and maternity grants (per canton). The Netherlands has only maternal allowances for 16 weeks, child allowances and some tax credits. Cyprus is equal to the Netherlands with the exception that it does not provide tax credits. None of these countries have sufficient or subsidised day care services for families with young children. In the Netherlands and Switzerland part-time work has been a solution to reconcile family and work – in this order. In Cyprus very low unemployment helps young women to work full time when they select this option. Day care has to be organised with help from relatives. These countries together represent Individualism as defined by Fux (2004).

Transition countries (except Slovenia) are the imposed home care model countries. Before the 1990s these countries had pronatalist policy with financial incentives. Political and economical reforms combined with high inflation in the 1990s led to a major cutback in family policy services (also for 3-6 years olds) and to a diminishing value of income transfers. This was a price to be paid for political and economical emancipation. Familialism was an important value in the society that tried to support families with income transfers. Even though home care was often the first option for families with small children, economical hardship forced many women to look for additional earnings from the labour market. However, high unemployment was too often a serious obstacle to earning a living in the labour market. Home care was often left as the only option to choose. It is a kind of social dumping to a family policy without any services. Together these countries have some of the features of Central and Eastern European (imposed) “Familialism” as defined by Fux (2004).

Finland and Slovenia have ended up to the day care service model. Day care services are universal, available to everybody. This policy includes the aim to support female career in the labour force, provide equal economical opportunities and to reconcile work and family – these last two in this order. Young women work full-time, part-time work is rare. Parental leave is limited to one year. Home care is an option for young mothers if the unemployment is a serious risk. These countries share some features of “Etatism” as defined by Fux (2004).

5. Ageing as a demographic challenge

5.1. Demographics of ageing

5.1.1. Population and the labour force

The future demographic change in relation to ageing population will be quite dramatic in Europe: the proportion of people over 60 years old is expected to grow by 50 % over the next 30 years. At the same time the proportion of young people (up to 19 years old) will decrease by almost 11 % and those of working age (between 20–59 years old) will decrease by 5.6 %.

In addition, the oldest-old-age groups (80+) will be of great interest: ageing brings a radical increase in the need for care. The oldest among the elderly will be the fastest growing segment of the population by 2050. Although the proportion of the oldest old is still low (about 4 % in the EU), in 2050, 21 countries or areas are projected to have at least 10 % of their population made up of those aged 80 years or over. Among DIALOG countries, these are Belgium, Germany, Italy, Austria, Switzerland, Slovenia and Finland.

The proportion of the population aged 65 years or more varied in DIALOG countries from 12 to 18 percent in 2002 (Table 27). Highest proportions were in Italy and Germany, the lowest in Cyprus and Poland. Within a decade, the proportion of the aged population increased most rapidly (at least by three percentage points) in Estonia, Italy, Slovenia and Romania. The increase was the slowest (less than one percentage points) in Austria, Switzerland, Cyprus and the Netherlands. Relatively large immigration of younger working age population and, in Cyprus and the Netherlands, above European average fertility during last decade contributed to slower ageing of their populations.

Table 27. The proportion of persons aged 65+ and 80+ in the total population 1990, 1995 and 2002 (%), DIALOG countries.

	65+ of the total population			80+ of the total population		
	1990	1995	2002	1990	1995	2002
Belgium (FI)	15.0	15.8	16.9	3.5	3.8	3.8
Switzerland	15.0	15.2	15.6	4.0	4.2	4.2
Czech Republic	12.6	13.1	13.8	2.5	2.8	2.4
Germany	14.9	15.4	17.1	3.7	4.1	3.9
Estonia	11.6	13.3	15.9	2.5	2.8	2.8
Italy	14.5	16.4	18.2	3.1	4.0	4.1
Cyprus	11.0	11.1	11.7	2.5	2.6	2.6
Lithuania	10.8	12.2	14.1	2.7	2.6	2.4
Hungary	13.2	14.0	14.6	2.5	2.9	2.4
Netherlands	12.8	13.2	13.7	2.9	3.1	3.3
Austria	14.9	15.1	15.4	3.5	3.9	3.6
Poland	10.2	11.2	12.5	2.0	2.1	2.1
Romania	11.1	12.0	14.1	2.0	2.1	2.0
Slovenia	10.7	12.3	14.0	2.2	2.6	2.3
Finland	13.5	14.3	15.3	2.9	3.2	3.6

The oldest-old-age group (80+) was largest in Switzerland and Italy, where over 4 percent of the population belonged to this group in 2002. In Belgium (Flanders), Germany, the Netherlands, Austria, and Finland, the proportion of 80+ populations was over 3 percent. The lowest proportion could be found in Poland and Romania.

The discussion on the ageing population culminates in the subject of 'active ageing' (working longer). Many countries are reforming their ageing policies due to low participation rate in the labour force in the age groups 55-59 and 60-64.

In DIALOG countries the employment rate in the age group 55-59 varied among men from 44 percent (Slovenia) to 89 (Switzerland) and among women from 17 percent (Slovenia) to 66 (Switzerland) (Table 28). The other countries with low male employment rate (half of men were in labour force) were Poland, Hungary and Italy. The low female employment rate (20-25 %) was found also in Hungary, Italy and Austria. On the average, these rates were 62 percent for men and 38 percent for women.

Switzerland and Finland were exceptional countries in their high female labour force participation rate. In Finland it was even as high as among males. In Cyprus and the Czech Republic male employment rate was even 40 percentage points, and in Austria, the Netherlands and Hungary 30 percentage units higher than the same rate for women. In these countries equal opportunities were obviously still missing in relation to pensions that are based on earnings in the labour force.

Table 28. Employment rate among men and women aged 55–59 years and 60–64 years around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	55-59 years		60-64 years	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Belgium (Fl)	55	27	18	6
Switzerland	89	66	-	-
Czech R.	72	31	23	12
Germany	66	47	31	15
Estonia	69	53	50	36
Italy	51	23	30	9
Cyprus	81	41	50	23
Lithuania	63	49	34	14
Hungary	50	20	10	4
Netherlands	70	39	30	13
Austria	60	25	15	6
Poland	47	29	25	13
Romania	62	47	36	14
Slovenia	44	17	19	11
Finland	59	60	29	24

Employment rate = employed persons among all persons in the age group

In the age group 60-64 the employment rate was quite low for all DIALOG countries. Male employment rate was on the average 29 percent and it varied from 10 percent (Hungary) to 50 percent (Estonia, Cyprus). Female employment rate was on average 15 percent and it varied from 4 percent (Hungary) to 36 percent (Estonia). The highest sex differences in these rates were found in Cyprus and Romania and

lowest in Finland and Hungary. The labour force participation in the age group 60-64 was most active in Estonia and Cyprus. The activity rate was the lowest in Hungary, Austria and Slovenia. In some transition countries a long working career plausibly substitutes for the lack of social security for the retired.

The low Hungarian figures are based on the pension policy: In Hungary from the mid-1990s the official retirement age (55 for women, 60 for men) has been gradually raised to a unified 62 years for both men and women. The Polish policy seems to be based on early retirement: The policy of reducing the labour supply through the possibility of early retirement was carried out in the 1990s, resulting in a rapid increase in pensioners. This was true also of the Finnish pension policy until the 1990s.

5.1.2. Legal and the average age at retirement

The legal age at retirement has been in DIALOG countries on the average 64.0 years for men and 61.8 years for women (Table 29). In most countries the legal age at retirement for men has been 65 years. Lowest it has been in Czech Republic (61 years). Female retirement age has been more variable. In six countries the female retirement age has been 60 years or less and in four countries 65 years. Only in six countries the legal age at retirement was the same for both sexes. In four countries it was 65 years for both sexes.

Table 29. Legal retirement age and average exit age from the labour force around 2000.

Country	The legal age of retirement, by sex (years)		The average exit age from the labour force (years)			Difference (years)	
	Men A	Women B	Men C	Women D	Both sexes	Men A-C	Women B-D
Belgium (FI)	65	62	58.6	58.4	58.5	6.4	3.6
Czech Rep.	61	55-61 ^a	60.7	57.3	58.9	3.7	...
Germany	65	65	60.1	60.7	60.4	4.9	4.3
Estonia	63	63	61.6
Italy	65	60	60.2	59.7	59.9	4.8	0.3
Cyprus	65	65	62.2	60.7	62.3	2.8	4.3
Lithuania	61.5	57.5	58.9
Hungary	62	62	58.5	57.3	57.8	3.5	4.7
Netherlands	65	65	62.9	61.6	62.2	2.1	3.4
Austria	65	60	59.9	58.5	59.2	5.1	1.5
Poland	65	60	57.8	55.5	56.6	7.2	4.5
Romania	65	60	60.2	59.2	59.8	4.8	0.8
Switzerland	65	63
Slovenia	63	61	59.2	55.4	57.2	3.8	5.6
Finland	65	65	57.1	58.1	57.6	7.9	6.9

^a Depends on the number of children

The average age at retirement has been in each country lower than the legal age at retirement. For men it has been 59.8 years and for women 58.5 years. The gender difference has been less marked in the actual average age of retirement (1.3 years) than in the legal age at retirement (2.2 years). The lowest average ages have been found for men in Finland (57.1 years) and Poland (57.8 years) and the highest in the Netherlands (62.9 years) and Cyprus (62.2 years). For women lowest are Slovenia (55.4 years) and

Poland (55.5 years) and the highest the Netherlands (61.6 years), Cyprus (60.7 years) and Germany (60.7 years). Among both sexes the difference between the lowest and highest actual average ages of retirement in the reported countries were around five years. This finding is evidence that retirement policies have still a lot of variation in the DIALOG countries.

The effective average age at retirement has been 4.2 years lower for men than the legal age of retirement. For women this difference has been 3.3 years. In most cases both sexes retire several years before the legal age at retirement. The most outstanding these differences have been for men (7.9 years) and women (6.9 years) in Finland and for men in Poland (7.2 years) and in Belgium (6.4 years). The most close to the legal age at retirement the effective average age at retirement has been for women in Italy (0.3 years), Romania (0.8 years) and Austria (1.5 years).

5.1.3. Life expectancy

Life expectancy is at birth in DIALOG countries 72.7 years for men and 79.7 years for women (Table 30). Women live on average seven years longer than men. The highest life expectancy in birth has been for women in Italy (82.5 years) and in Switzerland (82.1 years) and for men as well in Switzerland (77.8 years) and Italy (76.6 years). The lowest life expectancy years at birth have been found for women in Romania (74.8 years) and Hungary (76.7 years) and for men in Estonia (65.3 years) and Lithuania (66.3 years). The highest life expectancies for men are close to the lowest life expectancies for women.

Table 30. Life expectancy at birth and at age 65, men and women, around 2000.

	At birth		At age 65	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Belgium (Fl)	75.1	81.1	15.8	19.7
Switzerland	77.8	83.0	17.4	21.0
Czech R.	72.1	78.7	14.0	17.4
Germany	75.5	81.3	16.0	19.6
Estonia	65.3	77.1	12.7	17.3
Italy	76.7	82.9	16.5	20.4
Cyprus	76.1	81.0	16.5	19.1
Lithuania	66.3	77.5	13.3	17.7
Hungary	68.4	76.7	13.1	17.0
Netherlands	76.0	80.7	15.6	19.3
Austria	75.8	81.7	16.3	19.7
Poland	70.4	78.7	14.0	17.9
Romania	67.5	74.8	13.1	15.8
Slovenia	72.7	80.5	14.6	18.9
Finland	74.9	81.5	15.8	19.6

At the age 65 the average life expectancy in DIALOG countries has been 15.1 years for men and 18.7 years for women (Table 30). With increasing age the gender gap in life expectancy is decreasing and stands at 3.6 years at age 65. The highest life expectancies at the age 65 are for women 21.0 years in Switzerland and 20.4 years in Italy and lowest 15.8 years in Romania and 17.0 years in Hungary. For men these life expectancies are highest 17.4 years in Switzerland and lowest 12.7 years in Estonia and 13.1 years in Romania and Hungary. As a whole, life expectancies were markedly shorter in transition countries compared to Western European countries.

By comparing the actual average age at retirement and life expectancy at age 65 it was possible to assess how many years, on the average, men and women in DIALOG countries live after their retirement. This time is usually longer than life expectancy at age 65 because people actually retire before this age. On the average, men live 20.3 years after their retirement and women 25.2 years. The social and retirement policies have not been able to diminish this gender inequality at the old age. Women have been/will be able to take advantage of their retirement period five years longer than men do.

The longest retirement period presents itself for women in Slovenia (28.6 years) and Poland (27.4 years). The next are Finland (26.5 years) and Belgium (26.3 years). The shortest retirement period was found for women in Romania (21.6 years) and the Netherlands (22.7 years). Among men the longest retirement periods were 23.7 years in Finland and 22.2 years in Belgium. Shortest they were in the Netherlands (17.7 years) and in Romania (17.9 years). Women in Slovenia and Poland have been able to spend even ten years more time at retirement than men in the Netherlands and Romania. These differences will somewhat decrease when the retirement policy will be more harmonised in the European Union. So far the early retirement will allow more years in retirement.

The national ageing policy has implications on the living conditions and care arrangements (when needed) of the elderly population. One consequence is the proportion of elderly who live in single-person's households (Table 31). This proportions varies in DIALOG countries where this information was available from 25 percent (Slovenia) to 39 percent (Finland). In Finland and Germany elderly live quite often independently of their relatives and treatment institutions. In Slovenia, Poland and Italy families more often co-reside with their ageing parents and relatives.

Table 31. One-person households among 65+ year-old population (%) around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	One-person households among 65+ year olds
Belgium (FI)	-
Switzerland	31.6
Czech R.	34.1
Germany	36.0
Estonia	-
Italy	27.3
Cyprus	-
Lithuania	30.1
Hungary	31.4
Netherlands	33.2
Austria	31.5
Poland	26.5
Romania	-
Slovenia	25.3
Finland	39.3

5.2. Ageing policies

Demographic changes cause governments to review their ageing policies, because European countries will, over the next 50 years, face a reduction in size and a change in the age structure of their population. The combined effect of large cohorts reaching retirement age and rising life expectancy will be a doubling of the old-age dependency ratio (2000-2050), i.e. the number of people of retirement age (65+) in relation to the working-age population (15-64). In the year 2000, persons aged 65 or over represented about the quarter of the working-age population; by 2050, it will be nearly 50 percent.

Public pension spending is projected to rise substantially in most European countries as a share of GDP over the coming decades if policies remain unchanged. Over the past few years, countries have recognised the urgency of making pension systems financially stable in view of the limited window of opportunity that exist before the ageing population takes effect. (European Council, 2003.)

The Working Group on Ageing of the European Union Economic Policy Committee show that public spending on pensions is likely to rise by between three and five percentage points of GDP in most EU Member States between 2000 and 2050. As a result, the EU average would rise from 10.4 percent in 2000 to 13.3 percent by 2050, with wide variations from around 5 percent to over 20 percent. (European Council, 2003.) EU Member States see their efforts to raise employment rates as an important element in their long-term strategy for making pensions sustainable. Higher employment rates imply that the financing of pensions can be spread across a greater number of people. However, higher employment rates alone will not solve the problem of the financial sustainability of pension systems.

One-year increase in the effective retirement age would absorb about 20% of the average expected increase in pension expenditure in 2050. EU Member States have declared their commitment to delay the take-up of early pensions and are in process of reforming early pension systems and labour-market policies. (European Council, 2003.) Chamie has argued that in case we want to maintain the same ratio of elderly and working population in 2050, as we have today, people have to work until they are 74 in France, 76 in Germany and 76.5 in Italy (Equeter 2002).

5.2.1. Pension systems and benefits

Pension systems, through public earning-related schemes (first pillar), private occupational schemes (second pillar) and individual retirement provision (third pillar), provide good opportunities for most Europeans to maintain their living standards after retirement. The maturing of the pension systems and the greater participation of women have contributed to raising average pension levels. European Union Member States are promoting increased private provision of pensions, whilst most pension income continues to be provided by first-pillar schemes. (European Council, 2003.)

European Union Member States have built strong re-distributive elements into their first-pillar pension schemes, notably in the form of minimum pension guarantees or credits for certain periods without pensionable income (e.g. unemployment, parental leave, etc.). This has contributed to reducing income disparities among pensioners, often more than among the population as a whole.

Eurobarometer survey, carried out in 1998, asked about responsibility for the provision and payment of care for older people. In Denmark and Sweden 80% or more, and over 60% in the Netherlands and Finland – opted for the state as the main source of funding for care. Barely more than 20% supported this solution in Austria, where more respondents than in any other EU15 member state expected children to pay for their parent's care. This was also preferred solution for 20-30% of respondents in Spain, Portugal,

Greece and Italy, whereas 20 % of respondents in Germany, Luxembourg and Italy thought that older people should pay for their own care. (Hantrais, 2004.)

The current pension systems are very complicated to compare properly among European countries. There is the ongoing process in developing indicators in the European Union to make pension systems and pension policies more comparable. In this report information available in the DIALOG national reports about national pension systems will be applied for comparative purposes. The full pension system table is in Appendix 6. The summary of this information is in Table 32.

The aim of this subchapter is to provide a general outlook into different pension systems: minimum pension/basic pensions, full pensions, maximum pensions and calculation principles of the final individual pensions in each country. Minimum pensions have been prescribed in twelve DIALOG countries. Germany, the Netherlands and Romania did not report of any minimum pension. In Western European countries minimum pensions for single persons varied from 260 € (Cyprus) to 832 € (Belgium) per month. In transition countries minimum pensions were from 40 € (Lithuania) to 132 € (Czech Republic) per month.

If the average annual gross earnings in each country are applied here most of the differences in minimum pensions disappear among DIALOG countries. In this comparison only Slovenia really stood out with the exceptional low minimum pension; it provided relatively only a quarter of the average minimum pension compared to other DIALOG countries. Next was Lithuania where the minimum pension was two thirds of the average pension. On the generous end of countries, the Czech Republic and Belgium went 50 percentage units over the average minimum pension.

Maximum pensions were not often applied in DIALOG countries. Nine countries had no rules for maximum pensions. Belgium, Cyprus, Austria, Switzerland, Slovenia and Poland gave a ceiling for pensions in their countries. Maximum pensions varied from 480 € (Slovenia) to 2,410 € (Austria) per month. In the relative comparison (the average annual gross earnings) Austria and Cyprus had somewhat higher maximum pensions than other countries that reported of some maximum pension.

In most countries pensions are earned along the years spent in labour force. The percentage of the amount of pension of the previous earnings before retirement (expected old-age gross pension replacement rates) varied very much individually based on activities and earnings in employment market. Calculations for pensions in each country are presented in Table 32 in case this information was available in the original country reports.

In most countries the full pension is earned after 40 years in labour force. In Belgium men need 45 years and women 42 years of contribution but in Romania only 30 years contribution for both genders. In several countries also the minimum number of years to be included to the system of insured earnings has been defined. In Estonia and Hungary this was 15 years and in Lithuania for men 30 years and for women 27 years of contribution. Some countries had a basic pension or flat rate pension. Years of contribution (%) are supplementary components that will be added to this flat rate pension.

In Belgium the ceiling for incomes to be counted on lifetime earnings (contributions) was 3,223 € per month. In Italy similar ceiling was 3,008 €, in Germany 5,150 € (West) and 4,350 € (East), and in Austria 3,103 € per month.

The highest percentage units for pensioners have been able to earn in Italy and Austria, in both cases 80 percent of the previous salary (in Austria the best 15 years, in Italy the last 5 years). In the Netherlands and Slovenia the maximum percentage has been 70 and in Belgium, Finland, Hungary and Cyprus around

60 percent. In Germany, Poland, and the Czech Republic the percentage has been around 55 percent. In Switzerland is has been 50 percent and in Estonia 37 percent (average pension). This information was missing from Lithuania and Romania. In Lithuania average pension had been 92 €. (see Blöndal & Scarpetta, 1999).

Table 32. Pension systems around 2000.

Average exit age from labour force			Minimum Pension	Amount of pension	Maximum pension
Country	M	F			
Belgium (FI) (BE2)	58.6	58.7	832 € a month for a single person; 1,040 € a month for a married couple	Full pension: 60 % of lifetime earnings (men 45 years, women 42 years of contribution), 75 % for married couples Ceiling: a maximum of 38,678.50 € a year Calculation: Reference earnings x 60 % x 1/30	1,420 € a month for a single person; 1,775 € a month for a married couple
Czech Rep. (CZ)	60.7	57.3	4,100 CZK = 132 €	Basic Pension: flat rate 1,310 CZK (42 €) per month Full pension: 1.5 % per year of contributions, min. 25y. - up to 7,100 CZK (229 €) 100 % - 7,100 – 16,800 CZK (229-538 €) 30 % - over 16,800 CZK (538 € -) 10 %	No.
Germany (DE)	60.1	60.7	No.	Calculation: Personal Earnings Points (Individual annual earnings divided by the average earnings of all contributors) x pension type factor (age at first pension) x Current pension value (25 € West, 22 € East)	No.
Estonia (EE)	60.8		931 EEK = 60 €	Basic Pension: EEK 410 (26 €) per month Full Pension: In 2003, the average monthly pension was about 37,3 percent of the average monthly net wage. 15 years of pensionable service required. Calculation: Basic Amount + a component calculated on the basis of years of pensionable service + an insurance component.	No.
Italy (IT)	60.2	59.7	425 € a month	Calculation: 2 % x n x S (up to 36,093 €) n = number of years of insurance (max.40) S = reference earnings (average of salaries in the last 5 years) 0.9 % x n x S (earnings over 68,577 €) Ceiling: 36,093 €	No.
Cyprus (CY)	62.2	60.7	CP 149. 89 = 260 €	Basic Pension: 60 % of the average lower part of insurable earnings (up to the level of <i>basic earnings</i> , fixed at 6,162 € a year in 2002) Full Pension: 1.5 % of the total amount of paid and credited insurable earnings over claimant's whole career.	CP 620, 44 = 1,070 €
Lithuania (LT)	63.3		138 Lt = 40 € The basic pension makes 18.3 % of an average salary.	Full Pension: A basic pension + rate of individual insured income. The obligatory SSI period was for women 27 years, for men 30 years. The average pension was 317 Lt = 92 €	In 2001, 1.6 % of the old age pensioners were paid 600 Lt (174 €) and over.
Hungary (HU)	58.5	57.3	16,600 HUF = 67 €.	Full Pension: The value of the pension is raised by 2 % for each additional year up to 63 % for 25 years; thereafter by 1 % each year up to 74 % for 36 years and by 1.5 % for each further year of service over 36 years. 43 % of pensionable net earnings since with 15 years of coverage.	No.

Average exit age from labour force			Minimum Pension	Amount of pension	Maximum pension
Country	M	F			
Netherlands (NL)	62.9	61.6	Not applicable, flat-rate pension benefits.	<p>Basic Pension: Single person: 869.24 € per month. Married and unmarried persons sharing a household 598.07 € per month for each person.</p> <p>Full pension: Payable after 50 years of insurance. In 40 years' time people must be able to build up a pension provision of 70 per cent of their final salary – including the basic old age pension and the supplementary pension.</p>	Not applicable, flat-rate pension benefits.
Austria (AT)	59.9	58.5	613.14 €, 874.76 € for couples	<p>Calculation: 2 % of "E" per year. "E" = the average of the (revalued) income of the best 15 insurance years (maximum: 80 % of "E"). The calculation period 40 years. Ceiling: 3,270 € a month</p>	80 % of the maximum assessment amount – in 2004 it was 2,410.58 €/month
Poland (PL)	57.8	55.5	530.26 PLN = 126 € net a month (as of June 2001)	<p>Calculation: 24 % of the average national salary (49 €) + 1.3 % of the worker's earnings base times the number of contribution years + 0.7% of the worker's earnings base times the number of credit years. The earnings base for the average monthly earnings from 10 consecutive years. After 40 years of service the average pension is 204 €.</p>	250% of the average national salary, in 2001 2,061.85 PLN = 490 €
Romania (RO)	60.2	59.2	No.	<p>Calculation: by multiplying the average insured monthly salary divided by the monthly national average wage by the point value of pension at the date of retirement. Average earnings over any 5 consecutive years in the last 10 years of economic activity. The full contribution period is 30 years for men and 30 years for women.</p>	No.
Switzerland (CH)	1,030 francs = 681 €	<p>Calculation: If average annual income is less than or equal to 37,080 francs (24,171 €), flat amount of 9,146 francs (5,962 €) a year + a variable amount calculated by multiplying annual income by 13/600; If average annual income is above 37,080 francs, flat amount of 12,854 francs (8,379 €) a year plus a variable amount calculated by multiplying average annual income by 8/600.</p>	2,060 francs = 1,363 € A couple cannot exceed 150 % of maximum old-age base pension of 3,090 francs a month.
Slovenia (SL)	59.2	55.4	35 % of the minimum pension base (120 €) = 42 € Minimum pension base is approx. 64 % of national net wage.	<p>Calculation: 35-38 % of the Pension Rating Basis for 15 insurance years + 1,5% increase for each additional year of qualifying period, no upper maximum % (for 40 years of qualifying period: 72,5 %; gradual lowering from 85 % for 40 years for men and 35 years for women; 0,5 % yearly from 2001 onwards).</p>	Maximum pension base is 4 times the minimum pension base = 480 €
Finland (FI)	57.1	58.1	Full amount between 411.75 € and 487.60 € per month according to marital status and municipality.	<p>Full Pension: The target is 60 % of pensionable salary after 40 years. The accrual rate is 1.5 % of reference earnings per year, increased to 2.5 % after the age of 60. Pensionable salary is based on the earnings of the last 10 years. No ceiling for reference earnings.</p>	No.

5.2.2. Efforts to promote ageing workers' participation in the labour force

Based on the reports by national experts in DIALOG countries there were in many countries current reforms and pressures to increase the retirement age and to promote ageing workers' participation in the labour market. In fifteen years every fourth European will be over 60 years of age. Retirement expenses will rise accordingly. On the other, many pensioners are frustrated after retirement and would be happy to continue working, at least part-time.

Governments were prepared to look for solutions how to finance the pensions for their increasing ageing populations. This concern was found in all Western European countries. The main idea is to keep people at work longer through technical legislative reform. The only exception was Switzerland. Transition countries had not paid much attention to these pension reforms. Poland and Slovenia had some intentions to launch reforms of their pension system.

In the Netherlands the aim was not only to provide new incentives to stay longer in the labour force but also to reduce or eliminate old benefits, which have reduced the retirement age. The national target is that half of all people aged 55-64 will have a paid job in 2030. The Dutch model seems to include also several social packages to improve coping at work and to make it easier and more attractive to keep working longer.

Belgium has increased number of working years for full pension (45 years) and decreased social security contributions for employers who employ older workers. Germany is raising and unifying the official retirement age. Austria has risen the minimum age for early retirement. Slovenia has launched penalties for early retirement and bonuses for retirement after the full pension age. Finland has a new legislation that provides incentives to those who want to work after the regular retirement age, especially after 65 years up to the age 68.

5.2.3. At home and institutional care for elderly

In the parsimonious national report there were several paragraphs considering ageing and care. When average life expectancy has increased, the cost of institutional care in particular has increased as well. Therefore, different alternatives were under discussion in most countries. Efforts to support people's wish to stay at their home as long as possible is the main objective in the DIALOG countries.

In many countries family members are traditionally understood as a significant source of help in old age (for example, in the Czech Republic, Italy, Cyprus, Romania). This tradition is constantly disappearing: e.g. during the last decade, the number of elderly living in their children's home decreased significantly (Belgium/Flanders).

On the other hand, the professional home care provided by professional staff is a common way to take care of the elderly. The basic principle is to enable those in need to stay in their own home as long as possible (Germany, The Netherlands, Austria and Finland). In the 'professional' home care countries, home help services and home nursing services work together in close collaboration.

In many DIALOG countries the core of long-term care policies exists in institutional care. This was the prevailing policy still in some transition countries. Times are changing and the new focus is on demand-oriented care. The 'traditional' focus on supply site is questioned (Belgium/Flanders, the Czech Republic), although this type of care was reported still to be universal in some countries (Estonia, Hungary).

The change has been towards care provided in residential homes or/and nursing homes making up the main type of institutional care. At the same time, the differences in scope between nursing homes and old people's homes have become smaller. In addition, nursing homes and old people's homes merge their forces more and more. During the past years, a substantial part of the old people's homes have been converted into apartments where people have their own independent dwelling and where the elderly pay separately for residence and care (e.g. Belgium/Flanders, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Finland).

The governments have established policies in order to support family members to participate in long-term care of elderly relatives. To provide an allowance or other financial support was the most common policy for supporting families who strive to provide long-term care for their relatives. This kind of support was provided in nine out of 15 countries.

Different terminology was used to describe the governmental support for family members providing care. In the Czech Republic benefits were available for family members, in Germany it was a nursing allowance, in Hungary a caring allowance, in Poland a care allowance and in Finland family caregiver's allowance. Payments to family members can also be based on long-term care insurance in Germany and on payments to a care fund in Belgium.

The Netherlands did not provide any allowance but there were long-term leave measures, which could enable people to combine work and long-term care leave. Also in Austria and Italy a care leave was an option. In Belgium a complete interruption of labour activities or reduction of working time was available. Four countries reported that they had no policy for the involvement of family members to the long-term care.

Active ageing has been a popular topic in debates of ageing policy reforms. The policy that could combine public and private arrangements might be a success. These policies have not yet much been applied based on the national DIALOG reports.

Austria and Finland seemed to be the countries with the most comprehensive active-ageing programs. In seven countries university for elderly or university for the 'third age' or specified education for elderly was mentioned. In the Czech Republic a national program of preparation for ageing was published and in Austria some private companies had started active-ageing programs. In five out of 15 countries no active-ageing policies existed.

5.3. Opinions on ageing and related policies

PPA Surveys included some questions on issues related to ageing and ageing policies. These included:

1. (A1) The number and proportion of people aged 65 years and over is expected to rise sharply in the future. ... How do you rate this 'ageing process'? Excellent, good, neither good, nor bad, bad, or very bad?
2. (C11a.) Please indicate what you think about the government's responsibility regarding looking after elderly? (Completely responsible, Quite responsible, Responsible, Slightly responsible, Not responsible?)
3. (C12e.) According to your opinion, in the recent years the Government has paid less, more or the same attention than they did before to care of the aged?

Currently, the proportion of the 65+-year-old population varies from 12.5 percent to over 18 percent in DIALOG countries. Tolerance towards this side of ageing of the population also varies by countries. In most countries, however, the majority of the population does not feel very comfortable with the rising proportion of the elderly in the population. Attitudes towards decreasing proportion of the young were,

in overall, more negative than attitudes towards increasing proportion of the elderly (see Chapter Population issues). About 70 percent of the respondents in most DIALOG countries considered the increasing proportion of the elderly bad or very bad. In Belgium, a small majority had either positive or in-between opinion of the increasing proportion of the elderly, in Italy and Slovenia, a rough 40 percent (Table 33). The youngest or the middle-aged respondents had the most negative attitudes in most of the countries. Gender did not have marked impact on opinions (see Appendix 1, Table 12).

Table 33. Opinion on the increasing number and proportion of persons aged 65 or more in the population (%) around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Good	Neither	Bad
Belgium (FI)	22	35	43
Czech R.	5	24	72
Germany	7	22	72
Estonia	5	25	70
Italy	23	19	58
Lithuania	4	24	72
Poland	6	29	65
Romania	5	23	72
Slovenia	17	27	57

Data is missing in Cyprus, Hungary, Netherlands, Austria, Finland.

Table 34. Expected government responsibility over looking after the elderly around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Quite responsible	Responsible	Not responsible	Mean
Belgium (FI)	88	11	1	1.74
Czech R.	70	29	1	2.11
Germany	88	11	1	1.83
Cyprus	65	34	2	2.20
Lithuania	54	45	1	2.27
Hungary	62	37	2	2.22
Netherlands	66	33	1	2.27
Poland	54	42	5	2.54
Romania	75	22	3	1.86
Slovenia	43	54	4	2.72
Finland	79	21	0	1.99

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2);

Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4); Not responsible (5)

Governmental responsibility over the care of the elderly received the widest support in most DIALOG countries (Table 34). Public support for government's role in elderly care was the highest in Belgium and Germany and the lowest in Slovenia and Poland. Overall, government's role in this issue is expected more in western European countries than in the Central/Eastern European countries. Of these countries, the government's role was the most supported in Romania and Czech Republic. Across countries, governmental responsibility in the elderly care is supported both by men and women almost equally. In the Netherlands, women favoured government's role visibly more than men did. The old tended to expect

more governmental responsibility in the elderly care than the young, but age group differences were relatively small. Only in Lithuania, the young and middle-aged respondents gave clearly less support to the government's role than the old did (see Appendix 1, Table 13).

In PPA Survey, opinion of the population on recent government attention towards care of the aged was asked, whether they perceived less, equal, or more attention to this issue.

In the Central/Eastern European countries, especially in Poland and Romania, the care for the aged appears not to have been on the government list, according to the opinion of the population (Table 35, Figure 16, Appendix 1; Table 14). In Czech Republic and in Slovenia, no changes in government's role was perceived. However, in these two countries and Hungary, almost a fifth of the population felt that the government had paid more attention to care of the aged than earlier. According to public attitudes, the care for the aged has not lost its position as much as family policy measures in transition countries.

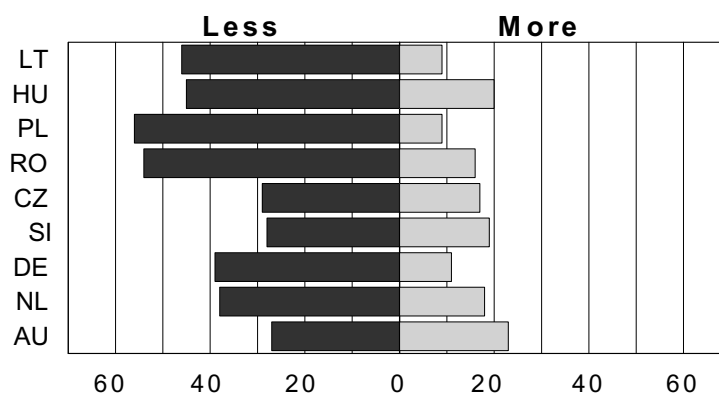
In Western European countries, Austria, Germany and the Netherlands, the care for the aged is believed to have received about the same attention from the government as earlier. In Austria, there is more ambivalence over the development, and over a fifth of the respondents thought that government's attention to old age care had increased recently.

Table 35. Opinion of the population on recent government attention to care of the aged, around 2000, DIALOG countries.

	Less	Equal	More
Czech R.	29	54	17
Germany	39	50	11
Lithuania	46	45	9
Hungary	45	35	20
Netherlands	38	45	18
Austria	27	50	23
Poland	56	35	9
Romania	54	30	16
Slovenia	28	53	19

Data is missing in Belgium (FI), Estonia, Italy, Cyprus, Finland.

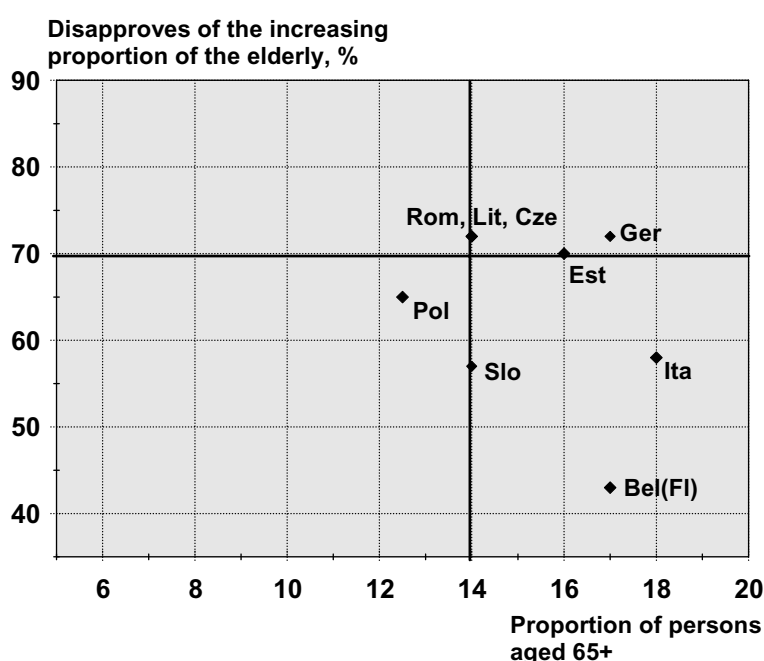
Figure 16. Public opinion on recent government attention to care of the aged, around 2000, DIALOG countries. Proportion of less or more (than before) responses (%).



5.4. Interrelations of opinions on ageing and related policies

While the proportion of the elderly is expected to increase markedly in the near future, the attitudes of the public to the population ageing vary across countries. Among DIALOG countries, opinion of the population towards the increasing proportion of the elderly was more negative in countries, where the proportion of the 65+ population was currently the lowest. In Belgium and Italy, where the proportion of the persons aged 65 or more is among the highest, the attitudes towards ageing of the population were not as negative as in transition countries, where the proportion of the elderly of the total population is still relatively low compared to central/western European countries. However, in Germany, the attitudes were markedly more negative than in other countries with similar age profile (Figure 17).

Figure 17. Opinion of the population on the increasing proportion of the elderly and the proportion of persons aged 65+ of the total population around 2000, DIALOG countries.



The opinion concerning the ageing of the population is slightly negatively related to the employment rate of men aged 60-64. In countries with a relatively high economic activity rate of the elderly, especially in Estonia, Romania and Lithuania, the attitudes of the public are clearly negative towards an increasing proportion of the elderly in the population, and in countries, with lower activity rates, the attitudes are more tolerant. It is plausible, that the more negative attitudes in some transition countries towards the increasing proportion of the elderly are more tied with existing pension problems, or problems related to care arrangements, which may also contribute to the higher activity rates among persons close to retirement age in these countries (Figure 18).

Opinion on the government's responsibility over care of the aged appears to be connected to the proportion of the elderly of population. In DIALOG countries with a relatively high proportion of the elderly in the population, public attitudes supported government's intervention in the elderly care much more than in countries with a relatively low proportion of the 65+ population (Figure 19). However, there were marked differences between transition countries with similar age profiles in the expectations towards the government, varying from the lowest support of about 40 percent in Slovenia to 75 percent in Romania.

Figure 18. Opinion of the population on the increasing proportion of the elderly and the employment rate of 60-64-year old men around 2000, DIALOG countries.

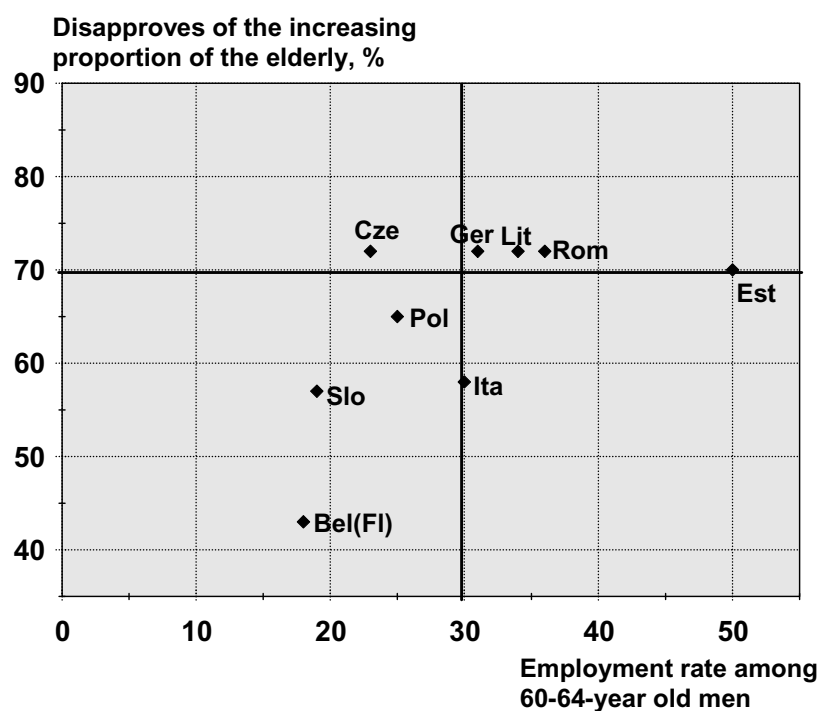
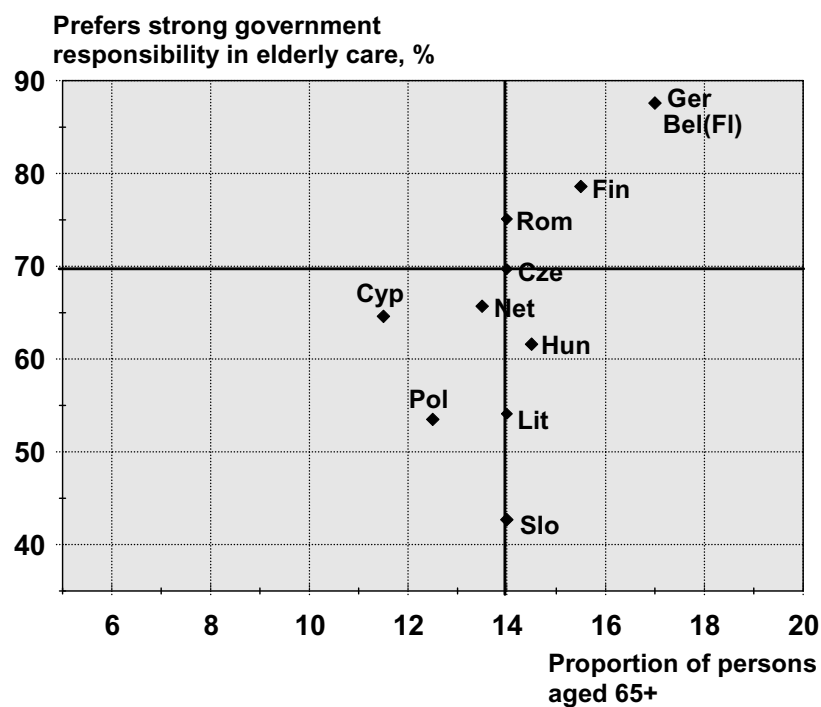


Figure 19. Opinion of the population on the government responsibility over elderly care and proportion of persons aged 65+ of the total population around 2000, DIALOG countries.



6. Reforms in policies concerning the family and ageing during the 1990s

One aim of this report is to survey the nature of the social policy reforms since the early 1990s in the countries participating the DIALOG project. This information is based on the aforementioned parsimonious national reports for Work Package 4. Table 36 includes a summary of the major reforms in each country. Focus is in family policy reforms (including reductions and abolitions) and in ageing policy reforms.

Main findings of this policy reform approach are presented in four groups of countries based on their family policy types (see 4.11.).

1. Income transfer model

Belgium (Flanders), Germany, Austria, Italy

Family policy reforms:

Belgium had reforms in parental leave; it was implemented in 1997, and in helping to combine working and family life by reductions in working hours. The legal living arrangement of two non-married persons was introduced.

Germany introduced in 1996 the legal entitlement for a kindergarten place (part-time) for every child between 3 and 6 years. Child allowance was raised and parental allowance was open for parents with higher income. Part-time employments were made easier. The rights for non-marital couples were strengthened.

Austria improved the parental leave scheme and invested to childcare institutions. Maternity grants were abolished in 1996.

Italy raised family allowances and introduced allowance for families with more than three young children. The maternity grants for second and higher order children were introduced. The means-tested maternity benefit was enlarged. The tax credits were increased for low-income families and for families with young children.

In summary, Income transfer model countries had introduced especially reforms in policies that facilitated the better combination of paid work and family life. Parental leaves and allowances were improved, part-time work was promoted and childcare systems received some improvements. There was some movement from income transfers towards the day care model.

Italy was an exception where the reforms were mostly focused on the mean-tested allowances to poor families and to families with numerous children. Italy had adopted the spirit of family policy imperatives implemented in the U.S and the U.K. where the means-tested family benefits are limited to the poor families.

Ageing policy reforms:

Belgium had a reform where legal retirement age will be lifted. In care new focus was in assurance and on demand-oriented care.

Germany in several steps started to stabilise the level of both contributions and pensions. Age at retirement increased and early pension schemes were reduced. Private pensions were promoted and the insurance for long-term care was introduced.

Austria was lifting the average retirement age and abolished conditions for early retirement. The long-term care allowance was introduced to help individually to obtain the care.

Italy adopted a new pension system with the aim to stabilise the ratio of pension expenditure to GDP.

In summary, Income transfer model countries were orienting themselves into lifting the average age at retirement in order to cut down the increasing costs of pension systems. Some components of pension system promoted to be privatised and the demand for the care of aged persons was partly individualised.

2. Labour market model

The Netherlands, Switzerland, Cyprus

Family policy reforms:

The Netherlands had introduced different types of (unpaid) leaves to childcare and some increase of childcare facilities.

Switzerland - information was missing. Maternal and parental leaves and allowances had not yet been introduced.

Cyprus implemented a universal child allowance scheme that was previously available only for large families. NGO services were encouraged.

Labour market model countries had very limited family policy reforms. Cyprus had expanded child allowance scheme and the Netherlands had some improvements in family leaves (unpaid). Governments rely on labour market and the local social policy actions. Individualism was the ruling model in family life. However, means-tested benefits had not been introduced.

Ageing policy reforms:

The Netherlands had replaced early retirements schemes with pre-pension schemes, for which people pay themselves. A growing proportion of over 65s received a supplementary pension. In the health care sector personal budgets were introduced.

Switzerland - information was missing. Cantons had their own ageing policies.

Cyprus had encouraged regional supportive services in collaboration with NGOs.

Governments in Labour market countries aimed at keeping a low profile in their ageing policy. Individual responsibility was promoted and regional activities were expected. The old age benefits were at the average European level.

3. Imposed home care model

The Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Lithuania

Family policy reforms:

The Czech Republic had shifted its family policy from nursery provision to parental leave provision for 0-4-year-old children. State expenditures on child-care facilities declined even dramatically and related fees had increased. Since 1990 all subsidies and priorities related to housing, goods for children and advantageous loans for newly married couples were abolished. To prevent the low-income families from falling into poverty the housing allowance was implemented. In 1996 even child allowances became means-tested.

Estonia extended the duration of parental leave and parental allowance. The child allowance was implemented. Maternity leave was introduced. Large families became entitled to tax reductions. Baby nurseries virtually disappeared.

Hungary faced a series of family policy reforms in the 1990s. Problem was that the real value of various benefits and paid care leaves decreased significantly because of high inflation. Many allowances were introduced, modified and abolished. In 2000 a family tax allowance was restored with a greater value and the childcare fee was also introduced.

Poland reduced the state support to the families, both in terms of income transfers and services. Childcare facilities were reduced and birth allowance was abolished. The allowances for single parent families and large families were introduced. Male rights for leaves were improved.

Romania paid less attention to childcare facilities in the 1990s. The value of child allowance decreased heavily; on the other hand, it was made universal (irrespective of the birth order). Family tax deductions were terminated. Maternal leave was prolonged from four months into two years.

Lithuania practically destroyed the previous system of day care in the 1990s. Maternal and childcare leave were developed and allowance system was reorganised.

Imposed home care model countries faced a real breakdown in the 1990s in their family benefits and day care systems. After nurseries and day care services were numerous closed down the childcare was strongly imposed to home care. Parental leaves were prolonged and related allowances were implemented or restored. Special emphasis was focused to low income and large families that were introduced some mean-tested allowances. This policy movement was not based on intended social policy approach, as had been the case for example in the U.S. It was simply a reaction to social and economical hardships in families that faced insuperable problems. The Czech Republic, Estonia and Poland dedicated more attention than other Imposed home care countries to poor families. Hungary was previously a model country in their family policy among the neighbouring countries.

Ageing policy reforms:

The Czech Republic increased the age limit for pension eligibility. The early retirement was restricted.

Estonia had developed home help service for aged.

Hungary changed its pension system from single pillar system to a multi pillar system.

Poland introduced new rules of calculating old age pension. The possibility of early retirement was improved in the 1990s. More incomes were allowed to pensioners.

Romania adopted two laws which both determined the decrease of retirement age. Services of elderly were limited to institutions. Since 2000 right for home care had introduced.

Lithuania was gradually lifting its legal age at retirement. Pension system had been altered from single pillar system towards the multi pillar system. Pay-as-you-go principle had been introduced.

Imposed home care model countries had divided their ageing policies partly based on the state economy. The Czech Republic and Lithuania were following the Western model and trying to lift the age at retirement. On the other hand, Poland and Romania had improved the possibility of early retirement. This policy was aiming at reducing the high rate of unemployment. The pension system was moving at least in Hungary and Lithuania towards more individual system (based on individual contributions and payments as in Western European countries). At the same time there was some movements from institutional care towards home care, probably also imposed for economical reasons.

4. Day care service model

Finland, Slovenia

Family policy reforms:

Finland extended in 1996 the subjective (and legal) right to day care to all children below school age (previously this right was adopted to all children below age three). In 2001 pre-school education was provided free of charge for all children at age six. In 1994 tax reductions for minor children (and families) were completely abolished.

Slovenia developed the child allowance towards universalism. In the 1990s the value of previous family benefits halved. As a consequence a family benefit for large families was introduced. Paternity leave was introduced.

Finland was emphasising the day care model more than ever before. Family benefits (income transfers) were reduced in the 1990s (-29%) but day care was given additional resources (+14%). Slovenia kept its generous day care services and tried to improve some income transfers to low income families due to a decrease in real value (inflation) of the previous benefits.

Ageing policy reforms:

Finland had shifted its ageing policy towards increasing non-institutional services and at-home-care. A reform with incentives had been introduced that should increase the age of retirement.

Slovenia raised the legal age at retirement and conditions for early retirement were made more stringent. The gender gap in pensions was narrowed. Day care model countries were attempting to rise the age at retirement and to improve home care for aged. Supplementary pensions were increasing due to higher number of contributory years that are counted in.

Table 36. Major reforms in family and old age policies in DIALOG countries in the 1990s.

Country	Family policy		Old-age policy Novelties and reductions
	Novelties in the 1990s and the 2000s	Abolitions/ Reductions	
Belgium (FI)	<p>The focus in the 1990s and 2000s is on combining a working life with a family life. The parental leave was implemented in 1997 and the paternity leave was prolonged in 2002. The right to every employee to interrupt working (1-12 months) or to reduce working time in order to take care of an extremely sick family member was introduced in 1998 and the time credit system was adopted in 2002.</p> <p>Striving for equality between different types of families made up a second aim of family policy: the legal living arrangement of two non-married persons was introduced as well as the same sex marriage.</p>	2002: The system of career-breaks is replaced by the new time credit system.	<p>1997: A pension reform. By 2009 the legal retirement age will be lifted to 65 with 45 years of coverage.</p> <p>2000→ In the elderly care policy the focus on supply-site is questioned and the new focus is on demand-oriented care dealing with services supplied by the market and informal care.</p> <p>2001: The introduction of Flemish care assurance for elderly people.</p>
Czech Rep.	<p>1990 → A shift from nursery provisions to parental leave for 0-3-year-old children: State expenditures on child-care facilities declined dramatically while fees for their use substantially had increased. During the 1990s mothers and fathers got the same rights to have parental allowance for three years and the parental leave was extended until the child reaches the age of 4. In 2004 the ceiling of income while on parental leave was abolished.</p> <p>Some other changes were made mainly in order to prevent low-income families from falling into poverty: In 1995 The existing family-related measures were modified and the housing allowance was implemented. In 1996 the child allowances became means-tested and in 2001 the birth grant was increased by 25%.</p>	<p>1990: Abolishment of all subsidies and priorities related to housing, goods for children and advantageous loans for newly married couples.</p> <p>1990-1993: Reduction of the pro-natal function of family benefits: birth order ceased to be a criterion for assessment of the amount of benefits. The change affected parental benefits and child allowances.</p>	<p>Significant changes towards the development of non-governmental providers and improvement of quality in the care of elderly.</p> <p>The age limit for pension eligibility gradually increases.</p> <p>2003: The temporarily reduced pension (at early retirement) was restricted. In 2006 it will be abolished.</p>
Germany	<p>The major changes during the last decade concern reconciliation of work and family life: In 1996 the legal entitlement for a kindergarten place for every child between 3 and 6 was introduced. In 2001 a reform of parental leave gave a possibility for mothers and fathers to have parental leave simultaneously, to work part-time and to postpone the 3rd year of it. In a reform of parental allowance (paid independently of parental leave) the income limits were increased. The child allowance was also raised.</p> <p>Measures have been implemented in order to equalise the status of other living arrangements in relation to legal marriage. The rights of children born out of wedlock have been strengthened as well as the rights of non-marital and homosexual unions.</p>	—	<p>1992: A pension reform: a change was made from the principle of stabilising the level of the pension to stabilising the level of the contributions</p> <p>1994: The insurance for long-term care was implemented.</p> <p>2001: A pension reform: the principle of private and company pension plans were fortified.</p> <p>The age limits of early pensions have increased during the first half of the 2000s.</p>

Table 36. Major reforms in family and old age policies in DIALOG countries in the 1990s.

Country	Family policy		Old-age policy Novelties and reductions
	Novelties in the 1990s and the 2000s	Abolitions/ Reductions	
Estonia	<p>The parental leave was improved at the beginning of the 1990s: In 1989 the duration of parental leave was extended to three years and in 1992 the payment of parental allowance was extended to three years. In addition the child allowance was implemented.</p> <p>Since 2000 families with three or more children under age 17 are entitled to tax deductions. The latest improvement (2004) is a paid maternity/parental leave for one year (allowance equal of the parent's previous earnings).</p>	The system of baby nurseries virtually disappeared.	Home help service has been developed during the 1990s in Estonia
Italy	<p>Family allowances were raised and the family allowance for families with more than 3 minor children was introduced. The means-tested maternity benefit was enlarged to mothers who do not work and women who have adopted / fostered children. In 2000 the tax credits were increased for low-income families and a tax credit for children under 3 years old has been set up. The parental leave was revised in 2000. The maternity grant for 2nd and higher order children was introduced in 2004.</p> <p>The law of new types of social services for children have been prescribed in 1999. The law states that all these services should guarantee flexible opening hours as they are established to provide an alternative service to the "traditional" crèches.</p>	—	During the '90s a new pension system has been adopted with a view to stabilising the ratio of pension expenditure to GDP and to achieve inter and intra-cohort equity
Cyprus	<p>The Government has been operating a scheme encouraging NGOs to develop family support programs and services on a local level.</p> <p>2003: Child allowance scheme was implemented for all families (formerly it was only for large families).</p> <p>2003: The unpaid parental leave was prolonged.</p>	—	The government encourages local communities and NGOs to develop supportive services on a local level, as they tend to be flexible and efficient.
Lithuania	<p>The development and renaissance of the child care system started in the mid-1990s: it adopted a more important role in the care and upbringing of small children</p> <p>In the 1990s the development of the family policy the priorities were given to the making/reorganisation of the allowance system (frequently very small amounts being paid on different occasions by way of family support) and to the development of maternal/paternal/childcare leave.</p>	At the beginning of the 1990s the Soviet system of childcare was practically destroyed.	<p>1990-1991: The reform of social security system (pay-as-you-go principle)</p> <p>1995: The actual pension reform started. The legal age of retirement will gradually be lifted.</p> <p>1999: The law on pension funds → In the beginning of the 2000s the pension system was altered from a single level to a several level system.</p>

Table 36. Major reforms in family and old age policies in DIALOG countries in the 1990s.

Country	Family policy		Old-age policy Novelties and reductions
	Novelties in the 1990s and the 2000s	Abolitions/ Reductions	
Hungary	In the first half of the 1990s Hungary was able to somewhat preserve its various benefits and paid care leaves to families, although their real value decreased significantly because of the high inflation. Many allowances were introduced, modified and abolished during the 1990s, especially in 1994-1996 because of "the Bokros-package". One of the novelties was the child raising assistance, which is a flat rate benefit for mothers of 3 or more children. In 2000 a family tax allowance was restored with a much greater value than it was in the beginning of the 1990s. The childcare fee was reintroduced as well.	1994-1996: "The Bokros package": the childcare fee was abolished, the maternity allowance was reduced and the tax benefits for families were terminated.	The reform of pension system started and in 1998 it became radical: A single pillar system was changed to a multi pillar system.
The Netherlands	In the 1990s the focus of family policy has been in introducing and developing different types of leaves to care for children and other relatives. In 2001 they have been integrated in one encompassing framework: the Work and Care Act. In the 1990s the role of government in organizing childcare has expanded (before it was mainly an issue between employers and employees) → an increase of childcare facilities.	—	The modernisation process has taken place in the pension system in the 1990s and it is now better prepared to cater for the changing lifestyles. The early retirement schemes, for which other people also pay, are replaced with pre-pension schemes, for which people pay themselves. A growing proportion of over-65s receives a supplementary pension. In the health care sector personal budgets are introduced, by which people can buy in their care themselves.
Austria	In the 1990s and in the beginning of the 2000s the major changes in family policy are bigger investments to the child-care institutions and improving the parental leave scheme (2001: the reform of parental leave).	Maternity grants have been abolished in 1996.	The pension system has been adapted several times during the last decade. The calculation period for pension and the minimum age for early retirement have been raised in order to lift the average retirement age. Retirement because of long term insurance, the gliding retirement and retirement because of unemployment have been or will be abolished in the. The long-term care allowance act (1992) gave people the possibility to "buy" care. It considerably improved the situation of people needing care.
Poland	Some solutions aimed at equalising the opportunities of women and men in combining work and family duties were introduced. In the middle of 1990s men had a right to take up parental and child-care leaves and in 2001 the maternity leave as well. The parental allowance was price indexed instead of wage indexing and the preferential allowances for one-parent families and multi-children families (three children and more) were introduced. Regarding to the family allowance many changes were done too.	Since the beginning of the 1990s the state reduced its support to the families both in terms of income and provision of services. For example the number of child care provisions dropped. Birth allowance have been abolished since January 2002	The social security system was subjected to some reforms in the 1990s. For example, new rules of calculating the old age pension, disability benefits and survivors' pension for the employees and entrepreneurs were adopted. The possibility of combining the old age pension with professional work also evoked a positive influence on the financial situation of the elderly. Reducing the labour supply happened through the possibility of early retirement in the 1990s.

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Country	Family policy		Old-age policy Novelties and reductions
	Novelties in the 1990s and the 2000s	Abolitions/ Reductions	
Romania	The changes in the family policy in the 1990's were: the introduction in 1993 of child allowances for all population categories, not only for those state employed; the prolongations of maternal leave from 4 months to 1 year, and then to 2 years; and granting to fathers the right to be able to take parental leave. The value of the child allowance was readjusted from time to time, but it did not catch up with the rising inflation, and its differentiation according to birth order was cancelled.	In 1990s less attention was paid to the childcare facilities than before and many crèches disappeared completely. The value of child allowance declined radically during the 1990s and the tax deductions were eliminated.	In the early '90 there were the first attempts of modifying the social insurance and pension system. For example, there were two laws which both determined the decrease of retirement age. The services for the elderly were limited until 2001 to institutions. In 2000, a new law for the social protection of the elderly was passed, stipulating their right to receive medical services/care in their home according to the need.
Switzerland	No reforms reported.	---	No reforms reported.
Slovenia	The family benefits existent in the socialist period were preserved or improved and some new rights were introduced. In 1993, a clearly defined, comprehensive and integrated family policy was accepted. The Act on Parenthood Protection and Family Benefits (adopted in December 2001) introduced the right to a paternity leave lasting 90 days. The child allowance was further developed during the 1990s and the early 2000s, for example the eligibility for it was extended. The large-family supplement was introduced in the end of 2001 as a universal transfer to families with three or more children.	In the 1990s, the major negative trend was in the real value of those family benefits, which were linked to the guaranteed wage. These benefits halved.	The 1990s were marked by gradual and incremental changes in the pension system. The legal retirement age was raised and conditions for early retirement were made more stringent. The gender gap regarding eligibility and benefits was considerably narrowed. Penalties for retirement prior to the full pensionable age were made permanent. The calculation base was of pension was extended. "The second pillar" of the three-pillar pension system was introduced.
Finland	In the 1990s, the focus has mainly been on the development of forms of reconciliation of family- and working life. In 1996, the subjective right to day care was extended to all children below school age. Since 2001 local authorities have been obliged to arrange pre-school education for children age 6 free of charge. In 2003 the paternity leave was extended. Since 2003 the parental leave may be taken full or partial.	In 1994, tax deductions for minor children were removed altogether in Finland except the deduction for maintenance liability.	During the 1990s there has been a shift in emphasis towards increasing non-institutional services and at-home-care of the elderly and decreasing institutional care. Non-institutional services have been targeted to those who need them most.

7. Concluding remarks

This report of the DIALOG project has surveyed between-country similarities and differences in terms of demographic dynamics, recent social policy reforms and attitudes of men and women regarding general social policies and demographic developments. In the comparative analysis the interaction between the general attitudes, population related policies and demographic processes have been presented.

This report provided an overview of the social policies in DIALOG countries with special emphasis on family policies. In some parts of the report the results of public opinions on family policies were combined with effective policies. In addition to fertility and family well being, ageing was announced as a big challenge for policy making in current and future Europe. Policy reforms in family and ageing policies were included to analyses.

7.1. Demographic challenges

In population related trends this report concentrated on population growth and fertility. DIALOG countries could be divided into three groups: 1) Population growth with natural increase (the Netherlands, Switzerland, Cyprus, Belgium, Finland); 2) Population growth with net migration (Austria, Germany, Italy, Slovenia); and 3) No population growth or decrease (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, and Romania).

Fertility had decreased in all participating countries so heavily that only in five DIALOG countries had had any natural population growth. Four other countries had been able to attract enough immigrants to ensure their population growth. Transition countries had not been successful in obtaining immigrants to compensate their low fertility rate. This had led either into stagnation of population growth or into population decrease. All DIALOG countries, and other European countries as well, will face the same faith of reducing population at latest around 2050. To ensure generational replacement and compensate for childless (10/15 %) and one-children (15/20 %) families there would have to be 45/15 % of two-children families and 30/50 % of three children families (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003). Currently, three- and more child families insufficiently compensate childless and one-child families.

Low fertility has spread out to all DIALOG countries. The low fertility emerged in Central Europe on the beginning of the 1980s, in South-Europe in the end of the 1980s, and in Eastern Europe in the end of the 1990s. The serious implications of this transition are illustrated by the fact that if TFR will stabilise to the level 1.5 the population will be halved in 65 years. If it will stabilise to the level 1.1 the halving process will be faced already in 32 years. (Billari et al., 2004.) Seriousness of the current fertility trends is demonstrated that in the Czech Republic, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia TFR has already dropped close to 1.2. Low fertility is expected to persist. Due to these very low fertility trends, these countries will encounter massive economical and social problems.

Other important demographic trends include postponement of first marriage and of the birth of the first child in all DIALOG countries. Important variation was found in timing of these family related events in Western European and transition countries. People in transition countries marry and have their first child 3-4 years younger than people in Western European countries. On the contrary, they have their sexual initiation 2-3 years older than people in Western European countries (Kontula, 2003). This implies that inhabitants in Western European countries are sexual active, on the average, 5-7 years longer time than inhabitants in transition countries before they form a family and have their first child. Many aspects of demographic and social transition in Central and Eastern Europe have appeared there a generation later than in Western Europe.

One explanation for low fertility rates and country differences in Europe is the Western modernisation. As societies become more modern, the emphasis people place on higher-order needs will increase. They seek self-expression and will focus on their own well-being and on actions they perceive as giving meaning to their lives. (Van de Kaa, 2001.) Societies have moved from collectivistic, family focused, and responsibilities emphasising society model towards individualistic, individual rights emphasising society model. Modernisation includes also consumerism and concentration on the provision of satisfaction in the labour market. Young generation has created new lifestyles that manifest their professional success.

In the European region, modernisation dispersed from North to South. The Protestant Nordic countries were the forerunners, followed by Western European countries. Major consequences related to this trajectory are early participation of women in universal education and in the employment sector, openness and tolerance regarding different behaviour (including the acceptance of contraception, abortion and divorce). (Hoffmann-Nowotny & Fux, 2001.)

In the Mediterranean area as well as in Eastern Europe, modernisation was hampered either by cultural (e.g. Catholicism, Orthodoxy) or by structural restrictions (e.g. the socio-economic conditions in the former communist countries). In the central and eastern European countries the propensity of people to marry is much higher and they tend to marry at comparatively earlier ages for traditional reasons. For a comparatively larger segment of women, employment was an economic necessity as well as being normatively expected. The combination of work and family obligations was for women more of a burden than a real matter of choice. (Hoffmann-Nowotny & Fux, 2001.) A small family was a good compromise between overall costs and benefits of having children (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003).

Among the reasons to postpone the engagement to relationships are the higher standards and expectations towards the potential partner. The concept of pure relationship (Giddens, 1992) implies that emotional aspects of the relationship have taken monopoly over the traditional expectations. Youth may postpone entering to relationships until they are at least moderately certain to get their expectations fulfilled. Becker's (1981) theory about the diminishing gains from marriage highlights the important role of highly educated women in postponement process. Life comes to be less constrained by traditions and customs and thus more susceptible to individualised action orientations, but it has to be fitted into the standardised and bureaucratised life patterns defined by the state.

Higher education has a postponing effect on the initiation of sexual experiences and on getting pregnant (Kontula, 2004). Well-educated women in the upper and middle classes will attempt to profit from their human capital investments. An increasing number of them will either reject motherhood or postpone fewer births into later life-stages. (Hoffmann-Nowotny & Fux, 2001.) These women have resources to control their life and to carry out their desires and professional aims.

The education has many-sided consequences and impacts on individual values and lifestyles. They can change the goals in the life as well as social roles and aspirations. The highly educated often postpone their sexual initiation and steady relations in order to meet the other aims in their life. As a consequence, they marry older and they also deliver their first child older than the peers. Education has frequently impacted on values and lifestyles that have implications on social interaction. Highly educated have at least moderately means and resources to control their lives. They have also better knowledge and skills to engage into rewarding couple relationships. Educated women are consistently better able to negotiate with their partners. Higher education provides also tools for improved and satisfied interaction with the partner.

Education can shape the individual life style in crucial ways. Persons who go to secondary school and later to university identify with adult patterns of behaviour less early, as they clearly experience a prolonged teenage role because of their position in the institution and their material dependence. Besides, preoccupation with exams and one's academic career may generate, in some students, an ascetic attitude in which sexual desire, as an element of self-construction, is inhibited. Conversely, there is no obstacle to social maturation, adult identification and sexual initiation for those who escape school discipline early and enter the labour market. (Bozon & Kontula, 1998.)

For the period of young adulthood, the expansion of the educational system is most important, as it 'forced' young people in Europe to follow standardised forms of education for increasingly longer periods of time. As a result, institutionalisation of young adulthood can be expected to have led both to a postponement of exit from the educational system and to a standardisation of the whole process of entry into adulthood, as young adults adapted their behaviours to the exigencies of modern life. (Liefbroer & Dykstra, 2003.)

Education is considered a youth role, while marriage is associated with an adult role. Marriage prior to the completion of formal education generally violates the common sequencing norms. If a union is formed before marriage, partners will feel, in particular, the pressure of social norms reflecting the incompatibility between full time educational enrolment and union formation. Although the increased investments in human capital represent a means of establishing their economic position, it also means that women perceive a high cost in the form of having to spend their time on household intensive activities such as child rearing. (Coppola, 2003.) Human capital investments include also concentration to the personal growth/self-development with the aim to become one day a perfect mother or farther. This may take a lot of time.

Society-wide economic factors may also affect fertility rates by increasing human capital investment of women: as firms' demand for skills increase, a much higher proportion of women will acquire high levels of education, reducing fertility among these women. (Sleeboos, 2003.) People have to adapt their life-course to fit to the expectations from the labour market. One of the implications is the postponement of forming a family.

In practice a child represents a prolonged limitation on the parents, most of mothers, freedom of choice. A child requires a consistent time commitment, which is difficult to reconcile with a full-time employment. The increasing postponement of family formation and the planning and limitations of births are factors that make it easier to find a balance between work and family life.

In some accounts, emphasis is given to the "risk aversion" of individuals who consider having children, and to the fact that both future costs and benefits of children cannot be known with certainty: when uncertainties about future economic, social or personal conditions increase, individuals may lean on the side of safety in order to avoid risk. (Sleeboos, 2003.) There have been risky scenarios of risk of unemployment (high youth unemployment rates) and also about the unpredictable national family policies. Especially in some transition countries people have been very distrustful on the implied family policies. These policies have fluctuated from time to time. It has been safer to wait for better and more predictably period in life.

Policies that make changes to the environment in which couples decide about the number of children they intend to have can make a difference to fertility rates. While these policies often have other goals than fertility per se, they may influence reproductive decisions indirectly. These policies may be further

subdivided into “family friendly” policies, which focus on reconciling the professional and family responsibilities of individuals; and other policies, such as those promoting gender equity within families and society, those shaping the general structure of the tax system or the features of the pension system, and those which encourage broad societal support of children and parenting. (Sleeboos, 2003.)

Some policies can pursue to influence fertility directly, by offering financial incentives to families and individuals with children and disincentives to those who choose to have none. These policies typically involve cash payments for each child, privileged access to public housing, free or subsidised provision of medical or education services to families with children, and taxation incentives related to the presence and number of children. (Sleeboos, 2003.) Financial incentives are more important in transition countries; in Western Europe additional time with family is more eligible. In transition countries the social protection system was being scaled down mostly at the result of the pressure from the international economic organisations (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003).

A combination of several family friendly measures would seem to be the most affective approach to increase fertility. If individuals have the means to purchase services that reduce the workload consequent on maternity, it will be easier to combine employment and fertility. The same applies where childcare services are cheaply available or are freely provided by the state. When state schemes of parental leave are not available, combining work and family will be easier where working hours are flexible and part-time jobs are widely available. (Sleeboos, 2003.) Universal and at least middle-level family benefits seems to be a precondition in order to attain the fertility level that would be even close to the fertility rate that could keep up the natural population increase (Therborn, 1995; Caldwell & Schindlmayer, 2003).

At the beginning of the report it was shown that population policy proper is not practised by governments’ of the DIALOG countries. Instead of direct policy, indirect measures were used. In this context family policy and its variations played a central role.

The current policy discourse and public debates about demographic issues largely concern population ageing and immigration, but rarely address below-replacement fertility (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003). None of the countries had specific programs for addressing population policy – for example, low fertility. On the contrary, in most of the transition countries the government’s current population policy attitude seemed to be very passive, and mostly more restrictive. In some of these countries pro-natal policies had been pursued prior to transition, and the contrast between past and present was clear. Individual freedom and choice appear to be highly valued. Many scholars and policy makers even doubt about the possibility to influence the reproductive behaviour of people in a positive sense. (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003.)

It was stated in many national report that reductions of the benefits, weakening the child care facilities and a generally insufficient attention to family policy have influenced the declining fertility levels, the welfare of the families and the postponement of child bearing. Hungary is a good example of the effects of family policies to fertility. Unlike many other transition countries it managed to somewhat preserve its rich family policy in the early 1990s after the fall of communism. The result of it was only modest decline in fertility compared to many other transition countries. On the other hand, the “Bokros package”, by which many family benefits were reduced around 1995, clearly strengthened the decline of fertility level.

In the Netherlands the measures adopted in order to help people to combine work and family life seem to have had a desired effect: the labour force participation of mothers with partner and minor children has almost doubled between years 1990 and 2001. However, the survey made in 2001 showed that the effect of the increase of childcare facilities to fertility behaviour is small, in particular with regard to the

number of children. On the contrary, some Finnish studies indicate that some family benefits may have an effect on families' possibilities to have the number of children they want.

In some of the countries the policy measures adopted during the last decade aimed to improve the situation of families did not have an effect on people's fertility behaviour. However, some authors expressed a doubt that the fertility levels would have been even lower without the family policy measures introduced in the 1990s.

All in all, many authors argued that the interplay between the demography and the changes in family policy couldn't be presented by some direct causal relationships, but that values, economy, demography and policies are in a complex interrelationship with one another. Some authors from the transition countries argued that it is necessary to secure the economic growth and create a stable population policy oriented to families and children and improve the labour market conditions and gender equality before the fertility levels can rise.

7.2. Family policy praxis and reforms

Family policy potentially covers a wide range of legislation, programs, and provisions. Governments can directly encourage childbearing by reducing the costs associated with raising children. Measures such as child allowances, birth grants, and maternity leave are identified explicitly as constituting family policy. Other policies can promote family well-being, but less directly, through family-related tax provisions, subsidised housing, the creation of part-time jobs, and the availability of flexible working hours. (Brayfield et al., 2001b.)

Family policies, family benefits, and state support for families, are used inter-changeably to refer the benefits and services provided by governments for families with children. Generally speaking, these benefits aim at partly compensating families for the cost of children and at increasing families' well being. (Gauthier, 1999.)

According to the classical economic theory of fertility (Becker, 1981), at the individual level, the demand for children is a function of the cost of children, income, and preference for children. In this model state support for families may influence the demand for children by reducing the cost of children (through the provision of services and other subsidies), or by increasing household income (through direct and indirect cash transfers). (Gauthier, 1999.)

Previously, for example between 1930 and 1958, the initial family support schemes in Europe fell short of a universal coverage in excluding children of low-birth order (typically the first child, in France that is still the case), in being means-tested, in offering different benefit rates for different categories of families, or in excluding some categories of families (on the basis of their employment status). Such restrictions were found in all countries, but Sweden and Finland. During the following decades, the coverage of these initial schemes was significantly expanded, and several of their restrictions and exclusions were lifted. (Gauthier, 1999.)

The results of this study brought forward evidences that a movement towards categorisation of families and towards means-tested benefits had been implied in many DIALOG countries since the early 1990s. In some cases there were economical reasons and in some other cases ideological reasons to this renaissance of liberal social policy that has been preserved in Anglo-Saxon countries while it was abandoned in most European countries.

In Gauthier's (1999) index of cash support for families in Europe, 1980-1997, the support has decreased from 1980 to 1997 in Austria (-26 %), Belgium (-23 %), the Netherlands (-16 %), Romania (-75 %), and Hungary (-55 %) but increased in Finland (+98 %), Germany (+86 %), Switzerland (+92%), Poland (+79 %, but support had been four times higher in 1990 than in 1997) and Czech Republic (+4 %). Comparable information was missing from Italy, Slovenia, Lithuania, and Estonia. Decreases on family benefits trends were most outstanding in the Imposed home care countries that had faced major economical and social reforms in the 1990s.

The consistent pattern is the strong decrease in family allowances observed in all Central and Eastern European countries since 1990. Subsidy cuts, high inflation, and high unemployment, have all contributed to the reduction in the value and coverage of family allowances in Eastern Europe since the end of the socialist regime. Between 1989 and 1993, the value of family allowance for a two-child family, in real terms, was halved in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, and was reduced by a factor of 3 in Romania.

In recent years family allowances were made subject to a means test in several countries. This was the case in Belarus, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Spain. The imposition of a means test on previously universally available allowances marked a considerable change in the politics of state support for families. (Gauthier, 1999.)

Across 24 Western and Eastern European countries, the average duration of the maternity leave increased from 11 weeks in 1954 to 25 weeks in 1997, while the benefits paid during the leave increased from 66 percent of the pre-leave earnings in 1954 to 86 percent in 1997. (Gauthier, 1999.) In the country report maternity leave varied in the early 2000s from 14 to 28 weeks (average 19.2 weeks), while the benefits varied from 65 percent to 100 percent (seven countries) (average 87 %). Reforms in maternity leave had proceeded. Exception was Switzerland that had no maternal or parental leave.

Confronted with high unemployment and to the closure of numerous day nurseries, parents in Central Europe have viewed parental leave as an attractive option. The percentage of parents opting for parental leave has in fact increased in the 1990s in countries such as Hungary, reaching 70-75 percent in 1993 (among parents with children age 0-2 years old). (Gauthier, 1999.) In this report parental leave up to 104 weeks (two years) or 156 weeks (three years) were applied in Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Poland and Romania. Only in Hungary and Romania these parental leaves had income compensation, in other countries there was flat rate compensation. Some of these countries there had been a reform towards prolonged parental leaves due to diminishing day care services.

Income transfers for families varied a lot from country to country. Maternity grants were most generous in Romania, Estonia, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, and Italy (starting from second child). Maternity grants were more prevalent in countries that had started to apply means-tested family benefits. The Netherlands, Austria, Germany, Poland and Cyprus did not have any maternity grant.

All the countries provided child allowances and the rates of these allowances did not vary much from country to country. Some countries had prolonged these allowances (for students) up to the age of 24-27. In nine countries child or family allowances increased by the number of children in the family. Five countries had means-tested child allowances.

Tax allowances or tax credits were most advanced in Germany, Belgium, Italy, Austria, and the Netherlands. In these countries they were mostly tax credits. Tax deductions (allowances) were applied in Estonia, Lithuania, Romania and Slovenia. Finland, the Czech Republic, Poland and Cyprus had no tax benefits for families with children.

While in the Nordic countries, childcare facilities were seen as a way of supporting the entry of women in the labour force and of promoting gender equality, in France, Belgium, and Italy, they were seen being beneficial to child development (especially kindergartens and pre-primary schools). In Eastern and Central Europe decades of socialism, a strong belief in the value of early education, and the higher participation of women in labour force, had led to the set up of extensive networks of nurseries, kindergartens, and after-school care facilities, already from the 1950s and 1960s. (Gauthier, 1999.) The main agenda was the maximisation of labour market participation. This led to a particular investment in substitute care services rather than transfer payments, reflecting a low-wage system with a high dependency on state distribution of services or benefits in kind. (Dingwall & Lewis, 1999.)

While the enrolment of children above the age of three increased in almost all Western European countries between 1970 and 1993, the enrolment decreased in Eastern Europe between 1989 and 1993. On average, while 66 percent of children ages 3 to 6 years old were enrolled in pre-primary institutions in Eastern Europe 1989, the corresponding figure had declined to 55 percent in 1993. The decline was especially steep in Lithuania (and Latvia, Slovakia and Albania). Only in Hungary was pre-primary school enrolment maintained constant. The percentage of children age 0 to 2 years old were being nearly cut by half in the early 1990s in some countries. High unemployment rates and the closure of public and employer-based childcare facilities explain this trend. (Gauthier, 1999.)

In DIALOG country reports day care services for children under three years old were quite limited. Services for children younger than 3 years old are especially important for working parents. Only in Finland and Slovenia these services were available for all families in need of day care. In Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, Hungary, Poland and Romania there were limited day care services for young children. The general trend now is to assume that parent who is subsidised for at least one year at home should care for infants. This model was imposed in Germany, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania and Cyprus, which had no day care services at all or very limited services. These countries had straightforward policy to impose parents to care for their children by themselves. Germany, the Czech Republic and Estonia tried to compensate this by providing families a flat rate compensation for their childcare. Fees for programs serving the under 3s are usually income-tested and largely in the range of 10-25 percent of operating program costs in Europe.

Day care in kindergartens was well organised and widely provided in DIALOG countries. However, even these services were limited in Switzerland (part-time), Cyprus (only from 4 years 8 months to 5 years 8 months), Poland (in kindergartens 39% of 3-6 years olds), Romania (very limited services) and Lithuania (limited services). On the other hand pre-school was available for under school age children in several DIALOG countries. Pre-school reforms had been carried out in many countries since the 1990s.

Day care services (nurseries and kindergartens) have been also called Early Childhood Education and Care Services (ECEC). In Nordic countries spending on ECEC services has been about equal to expenditures for child allowances, parenting benefits, and child-conditioned tax benefits combined in these countries. ECEC has an increasing attention to socialisation, development, and cognitive stimulation as key components or supplementary goals in providing care for very young children. (Kamerman, 2003.)

The movement towards universal preschools has clearly emerged as the dominant Continental European model of ECEC, largely funded and delivered by government. The preschool programs for the 3-6 year olds are free for the standard school day, which usually covers 7 or 8 hours, and have supplementary services available before and after school hours, at lunchtime, and during school holidays for parents who have a longer workday and young children in need of care and supervision. Parents pay for the supplementary

services at income-related fees. Stress is increasingly placed on socialisation and enhancing child development generally as well as cognitive stimulation and preparation for primary school. Although these programs go a long way toward providing childcare while mothers work, they are expanding within a framework in which mother's employment status is largely irrelevant. (Kamerman, 2003.)

By the end of the 1990s, in transition countries, the core family benefits and services remained: family allowances. Maternity and parental leaves and benefits, ECEC services; but consumer subsidies largely disappeared and social assistance became far more important. Although the family policy benefit/service package remains important, it plays a much smaller role in the family economy than pre-transition. And the portion of GDP spent on these policies has declined in most countries. Benefit levels are about 6-10 percent of average wages in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, and Lithuania. Child poverty increased during the 1990s, and large families, single parent families, unemployed families, and Roma children and families were especially hard hit. Over 80 percent of the children in the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland would be considered poor if the U.S. absolute poverty measure were applied. (Kamerman, 2003.)

Family allowances, child care for the under 3s, parental leave benefit levels are all being curtailed, thus reducing support for families. Policies that previously helped reconcile work and family life are losing financial support. Child poverty has risen and maternal employment has become more essential to protect children against poverty just when employment is less available and government income and service supports are being reduced in. Families are expected to play a larger role and lone parent and large families are especially hard hit. (Kamerman, 2003.)

In the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland the relative position of children worsened through the years of the transition despite the fact that all governments in the early 1990s made serious attempts to keep family policy systems unchanged and to keep these instruments to smooth the effects of the economic downturn on children and families with children. Maternity leave, childcare leave, child allowance and child support are still funded by the central and eastern European governments, but there is debate on whether to maintain the universality of these benefits and to what degree they are to be index-adjusted to limit public expenditure.

The importance of family benefits – in particular their most important part, child allowances – decreased in the income package of poor children in all three countries (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland) between the early and later 1990s. Poverty rates and intensity of poverty were found to be higher for children than for the rest of the population. Among families and children, those with three or more children and particular single parents faced the highest poverty risks. Poverty rates for single parents showed the most dramatic development: they doubled in the Czech Republic and Hungary, and almost tripled in Poland. (Förster & Tóth, 2001.)

The shared experience of Soviet rule left families in CEE countries highly critical of the inadequacy of public policy provision since transition. After a long period of state dependency, politicians are trying to promote a self-help philosophy through media, but the public still looks to the state to provide for the families by delivering jobs, reasonable working conditions, adequate wages and pensions, and support for families unable to meet their own needs. The widespread view is that the state is failing to deliver. People know they cannot rely on central government to provide the level of support required, and they tend to place greater trust in local government. (Hantrais, 2004.)

The most important family benefit reform was the introduction of income testing served to exclude the highest-income earners from benefit receipt rather than to 'target' the lowest-income groups. Perhaps the most important effect was a psychological one: the introduction of the principle of means-testing itself, abandoning the objective of universal coverage. Family cash transfer systems seem to be beginning to move from the Continental European to a more Anglo-Saxon pattern. However, after the observation period there have been attempts to relax income testing and restore at least some of the universalistic features of family policies. (Förster & Tóth, 2001.)

Governments are trying to increase female employment as a means to produce greater opportunities for social inclusion, to reduce the dependence of families on welfare systems, and in the long term to counter the fall of the labour force due to decrease in fertility.

Work and family reconciliation index combines information about the extent of part-time employment, flex-time working and voluntary family leave provided by firms, in addition to child care availability and maternal leave provisions (Sleebos, 2003).

A survey of the employment options of the future, carried out by the European foundation for the improvement of living and working conditions, shows that European workers have a growing interest in part-time. Those who already work part-time would like to a part-time job for more hours (on average twenty to twenty-five hours); some of those who work full-time would like to shift to part-time work (Fagan & Warren, 2001). Many women who do not currently work have also expressed the desire to work part-time. This was found also in the Finnish PPA survey where almost all female respondents had a preference to increase part-time work to increase their time with their family (Kontula, 2004).

The transition from full-time to part-time work and vice versa should be truly implemented before part-time is a satisfactory solution to reconcile paid work and family life. When it becomes possible to pass from one form of work to the other, part-time work will genuinely be the best way for women to reconcile the work for the market with family responsibilities (Evans et al., 2001).

"Atypical" working patterns are rapidly increasing in Europe, and involve a very large number of women. If women continue to be responsible for the strategies suited to combining work and family life, it is highly likely that part-time, casual and temporary-employment contracts or reduced working hours will apply mainly to women. The increase in flexibility in the world of work must advance with the principles of social justice and gender equality if we want the new working patterns and work-time organisation to produce family-friendly effects. (Palomba, 2003.)

The most recent change in the world of work is the possibility of working while staying at home. Telework is by definition this type of activity. Working at home provides the possibility of combining work and family commitments in the way best suited to people's needs. The Nordic countries and the United Kingdom are leading in this field. The organisations providing employment must become more family-friendly, more sensitive and open to those who want to work and continue to 'lead their own life'. (Palomba, 2003.)

Kamerman (2003) argues that the major family policy regimes are: a focus on young children (the Continental European model); a focus on poor and vulnerable children (the Anglo-American, "liberal" model); and a focus on working families and reconciling work and family life while protecting the well-being of children (the Nordic model). We have learned that DIALOG countries have something in common with these family policy regimes. However, better fit was found to the effective policy measures by dividing these countries into: 1) Income transfer model (Belgium, Germany, Austria, Italy); 2) Labour market

model (the Netherlands, Switzerland, Cyprus); 3) Imposed home care model (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Lithuania); and 4) Day care service model (Finland, Slovenia).

Income transfer model countries had introduced especially reforms in policies that facilitated the better combination of paid work and family life. Parental leaves and allowances were improved, part-time work was promoted and childcare systems received some improvements. There was some movement from income transfers towards the day care model. Italy was an exception where the reforms were mostly focused on the mean-tested allowances to poor families and to families with numerous children.

Labour market model countries had very limited family policy reforms. Cyprus had expanded child allowance scheme and the Netherlands had some improvements in family leaves (unpaid). Governments rely on labour market and the local social policy actions. Individualism was the ruling model in family life. However, means-tested benefits had not been introduced.

Imposed home care model countries faced a real breakdown in the 1990s in their family benefits and day care systems. After nurseries and day care services were numerous closed down the childcare was strongly imposed to home care. Parental leaves were prolonged and related allowances were implemented or restored. Special emphasis was focused to low income and large families that were introduced some mean-tested allowances. This policy was simply a reaction to social and economical hardships in families that faced insuperable problems. The Czech Republic, Estonia and Poland dedicated more attention than other imposed home care countries to poor families.

Of the **Day care service model countries** Finland was emphasising the day care model more than ever before. Family benefits were reduced in the 1990s but day care was given additional resources. Slovenia kept its generous day care services and tried to improve some income transfers to low income families due to a decrease in real value (inflation) of the previous benefits.

Public policies need further to strengthen measures reconciling labour and family life, more partially in the fields of childcare facilities and legal provisions in the domain of parental leave and re-integration in labour force. Moreover, work time flexibility and variability, adapted to family needs, should be promoted. Furthermore, public policies should promote greater job stability for both men and women. Last but not least, family friendly and child related policies need to be universalistic and benefits granted irrespective of the type of family and household forms. (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003.)

The main portion of recent EU legislation on the work-life balance is the Parental Leave Directive of 1996. The main objective of this Directive is to enable workers with very young children to reconcile the care of their children with their parental and professional responsibilities. An employee's contract will continue during the leave, but unfortunately, neither pay nor any other benefits apply. (Palomba, 2003.) This Directive should be updated to meet at least the family policy reality that already exists in Europe.

In comparison of 22 Western countries was shown (Bradshaw & Finch, 2002) that the association between the child benefit packages and the characteristics of countries was not due to the level of the wealth of a nation, nor the character of its labour market, nor the level of earnings but rather the benefit package was determined by the social expenditure and especially the share of its social expenditure going to families, as against the elderly.

Analyses of attitudes towards public policies for families suggests that, across and within EU member states, policy measures are more readily accepted if they are provided on a universal basis and are not seen as intrusive or prohibitive. Families want to maintain their autonomy and to be given greater freedom

of choice. They acknowledge their moral obligation to look after their relatives but do not want to feel compelled to do so by law. (Hantrais, 2004.)

7.3. Ageing policy praxis and reforms

Ageing population will increase significantly in the forthcoming decades. The proportion of people over 60 years old is expected to grow by 50 % over the next 30 years. In an exercise of species-specific life expectancy (male=90; female=95) and zero net migration with a TFR of 1.3, elderly of 60 years and over would account even for 46 percent of the total population in 2050 (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003).

The proportion of the population aged 64 years and more varied in DIALOG countries from 12 to 18 percent. Highest proportions were in Italy and Germany, the lowest in Cyprus and Poland. The proportion of aged population was increased since 1990 most rapidly (at least three percentage units) in Estonia, Italy, Slovenia and Romania. The slowest (less than one percentage) this increase had been in Austria, Switzerland, Cyprus and the Netherlands. These countries had been able to slow down the ageing of their population by the high rate of immigration.

According to the ageing thesis, the increase in the percentage of elderly in a population is associated with an increase in state support for the elderly, but a decrease in state support for families and children. In the period 1980-1995 changes in social expenditure for elderly/disabled services was much higher in the U.K., Germany, Italy and Sweden than total expenditures on families (Goldberg & Rosenthal, 2001). The only exception was France there they were equal.

There had been a tendency for early retirements on most DIALOG countries. The average age at retirement has been in each country lower than the legal age at retirement. For men it has been 59.8 years and for women 58.5 years. A gap between the legal age of retirement (that was on the average 64 years for men and 62 years for women) and the effective age at retirement was 4.2 years for men and 3.3 years for women.

The retirement period varied from 22 years to 28 years from country to country. Life expectancy was at birth in DIALOG countries 72.7 years for men and 79.7 years for women. Women live seven years longer than men do. The highest the life expectancy in birth was for women in Italy (82.5 years) and the lowest for men in Estonia (65.3 years).

There was also a lot of variation in labour force activity in the age group 55-64. The employment rate in the age group 55-59 varied among men from 44 percent (Slovenia) to 89 (Switzerland) and among women from 17 percent (Slovenia) to 66 (Switzerland). On the average, these rates were 62 percent for men and 38 percent for women. In the age group 60-64 the employment rate was quite low: Male employment rate was on the average 29 percent and it varied from 10 percent (Hungary) to 50 percent (Estonia, Cyprus). Female employment rate was equally 15 percent and it varied from 4 percent (Hungary) to 36 percent (Estonia). In some transition countries a long working career obviously substituted for the lacking social security for the retired.

The group of persons in the labour force aged 55 years and more has experienced the most significant decline in economic activity over recent decades. That change significantly affects the negative shifts between contributors and recipients of the pension systems. (Kotowska, 2003.) And more, population dejuvenation is often thought to lower society's dynamism, competitiveness and adaptability, to diminish its renewal of human resources, and to decrease its possibilities to provide social security and health care, and other social benefits (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003).

Switzerland and Finland were exceptional countries in their high female labour force participation rate. In Finland it was even as high as among males. In Cyprus and the Czech Republic male employment rate was even 40 percentage units, and in Austria, the Netherlands and Hungary 30 percentage units higher than the same rate for women. In these countries equal opportunities were obviously still missing in relation to pensions that are based on earnings in the labour force.

A concern about deteriorating levels of income support for the elderly, which was widely shared by the governments, has led to many policy initiatives aimed at improving social and private financial arrangements for retirement, increasing labour force participation of older workers and establishing a closer link between contributions and benefits. In the main emphasis has been placed on those initiatives, which remove incentives to early retirement. Two main strategies for a pension system reform, described here, are dealing with incentives to stay longer in the labour market. (Kotowska, 2003.)

This aim has been difficult to meet in praxis. Few employers are inclined to recruit older workers due to a perceived lack of appropriate skills, a truncated payback period on training, and rules governing company/occupational pension schemes. On the contrary, many employers prefer laying off older workers first when firms downsize their labour force instead of implementing programmes to retain and retrain them. (Kotowska, 2003; Taylor, 2002)

Taylor (2002) argues that comprehensive or strategies approaches to employment and retirement of older workers, which aim at integrating older workers in the labour market, as well as at closing down options to early exits, have been implemented only in a few countries (Austria, Finland and United Kingdom). In other European countries fragmented policies affecting older workers prevail. For example:

- Active labour market programmes targeting older workers (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Ireland, The Netherlands and United Kingdom);
- Wage subsidy schemes and other employment incentive schemes (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Spain and United Kingdom);
- Support to employers (for example, advice and guidance, training, employment placements - Denmark, Finland and United Kingdom);
- Age discrimination legislation, protection against dismissal, proscription of age bars in recruitment advertisements, and/or abolition of mandatory retirement (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Ireland, Spain and United Kingdom);
- Awareness raising campaigns among employers (Denmark, Finland, Germany, Netherlands and United Kingdom).

Pensions systems were basically built on the principal of the years of contribution to insurance. In addition there were basic pensions for older generations who had not chance to earn their pensions along the years in the labour force. In most cases the full pension could be earned after 40 years contributions in the labour force. In these cases the percentage of the pension out of the incomes, for example during the last ten years in the labour force, varied from 50 percent to 80 percent. The highest percentages (80 %) were found in Austria and Italy. In transition countries percentages were around 50 %.

The governments have established nursing allowances for domestic care to support family members to participate in long-term care of elderly relatives. This has been offered as alternative for expensive institutional care. This kind of support was provided in nine out of 15 countries. Transition countries had a history with emphasis in institutional care. Now there was also in Western Europe a movement towards increasing domestic care.

Evidence seems to suggest that many countries provide general leave to care for sick adult relatives, for example Germany, Austria and the Netherlands. In Finland and Belgium longer periods of time designated to care for older people, can be taken out of multi-purpose career break schemes. (Bettio & Plantenga, 2004.)

Several countries have taken the initiative in payment-for-care schemes. An interesting example is offered by Germany, which in 1995 introduced the Care Insurance Act. Since the introduction of this scheme, elderly and handicapped people in Germany have been entitled to receive either benefits in kind to some extent proportional to their care needs, or a cash benefit if care is ensured through the family of the person involved. (Bettio & Plantenga, 2004.)

Italy scores high on the index of informal care, whereas formal care arrangements for children and/or elderly persons are underdeveloped (with the exception of the public pension schemes). The well-known fact is that in southern welfare states, social transfers have been more frequently granted to older people, in the form of pensions, and consistently given priority over the provisions of services. (Bettio & Plantenga, 2004.)

In the Netherlands informal care is important. The specific element of this care regime is the major difference in the policy approach toward children and that toward elderly people. Whereas the care for children is to a large extent privatised, there is a much larger collective interference in services for elderly persons. The family is considered the “natural” provider for children, while the state is thought to be the steward for the elderly. (Bettio & Plantenga, 2004.)

The mainstream policy discourse is strongly focused on adaptation of social security systems in view of offsetting the negative consequences of population ageing (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003). The policies to lengthen the active years vary clearly between different DIALOG countries: for example, four countries reported that they had no reforms to keep elderly workers working longer.

Income transfer model countries were orienting themselves into lifting the average age at retirement in order to cut down the increasing costs of pension systems. Some components of pension system promoted to be privatised and the demand for the care of aged persons was partly individualised.

Imposed home care model countries had divided their ageing policies partly based on the state economy. The Czech Republic and Lithuania were following the Western model and trying to lift the age at retirement. On the other hand, Poland and Romania had improved the possibility of early retirement. This policy was aiming at reducing the high rate of unemployment. The pension system was moving at least in Hungary and Lithuania towards more individual system (based on individual contributions and payments as in Western European countries). At the same time there was some movements from institutional care towards home care, probably also imposed for economical reasons.

Governments in **Labour market countries** aimed at keeping a low profile in their ageing policy. Individual responsibility was promoted and regional activities were expected. **Day care model countries** were attempting to rise the age at retirement and to improve home care for aged. Supplementary pensions were increasing due to higher number of contributory years that are counted in.

Abramov and Maskova (2003) point to social and economic resources of today's and tomorrow's elderly. They are healthier, wealthier, better educated, have greater social capital and more years ahead of them than previous generations. To leave them inactive means also a gross loss of their human and social capital. Therefore, policies towards active ageing should be considered in terms of reducing

existing under-utilisation of productive capacity of older people as well. These kinds of reforms were only in the dawn in the DIALOG countries. However, several countries provided a specific university for elderly population. Austria and Finland seem to be countries with the most comprehensive active-ageing programs.

Gradual retirement is not yet very common. On the whole, the proportion of people working beyond the standard retirement age is very low in all European countries. Research shows that for a small minority of people only, retirement years are spent as years of active engagement in continuous labour market participation, active contribution to domestic tasks and provision of care for others, active participation in community life also by means of voluntary activities and active leisure. (Avramov & Maskova, 2003.)

In the absence of integrated public policies, it comes as no surprise that up to now only a small minority of people appear to pursue an active role in society either through paid work or other social activities after retirement. European societies have not so far been making use of the potential for work of elderly people above the age at statutory retirement and have even been encouraging the economic inactivity of elderly workers through early retirement schemes. (Avramov & Maskova, 2003.)

Many years of duty-free time at higher age, long after children have gained autonomy, can be seen as an obstacle to active ageing that inherently entails opening more options for working at higher ages, as well as creating opportunities for flexibility to drop in and out of work according to individual abilities and preferences also at higher age. (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003.)

The ageing population can increase the level of income by continuing work, part-time or full-time, beyond the current age at statutory retirement and continued economic activity is indeed found to be a buffer against poverty for those who have acquired poor insurance based benefits. (Avramov, 2002.) While the average age at retirement should be increased, the variation at retirement age should also be increased and flexibility in retirement schedules (part-time/full/time) should be introduced. It would also contribute to eliminating social exclusion of older adults who are now more and more excluded from work and social life as a whole. (Avramov & Cliquet, 2003.)

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Appendixes

Appendix 1. General attitudes on population and family issues in PPA2 surveys.

Note: PPA Survey data in the following tables refers to respondents aged 16/18-69 years.

Weighted data.

Table 1. Expectation of the population growth in the next twenty years, % (ci6).

		Larger	The same	Smaller			Larger	The same	Smaller
Belgium (Fl)	Total	46	23	31	Age	-34	46	19	35
						35-54	44	25	31
						55-	51	24	25
					Sex	Men	49	22	29
						Women	44	24	32
Czech R.	Total	19	28	53	Age	-34	22	29	49
						35-54	17	25	58
						55-	16	33	51
					Sex	Men	20	27	53
						Women	18	29	54
Cyprus	Total	31	39	31	Age	-34	31	41	29
						35-54	30	36	34
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	32	39	29
						Women	29	40	32
Lithuania	Total	7	14	80	Age	-34	8	16	76
						35-54	7	13	80
						55-	4	12	84
					Sex	Men	9	14	77
						Women	5	14	81
Hungary	Total	13	15	73	Age	-34	16	15	69
						35-54	9	13	77
						55-	13	16	72
					Sex	Men	13	16	71
						Women	12	13	75
Netherlands	Total	66	28	6	Age	-34	69	25	6
						35-54	63	31	6
						55-	65	29	6
					Sex	Men	69	26	6
						Women	63	31	6
Poland	Total	9	23	68	Age	-34	10	22	68
						35-54	9	23	68
						55-	7	27	67
					Sex	Men	10	26	64
						Women	8	21	71
Romania	Total	19	18	63	Age	-34	20	19	62
						35-54	17	18	65
						55-	21	19	61
					Sex	Men	20	17	63
						Women	18	20	63
Slovenia	Total	17	26	57	Age	-34	20	28	52
						35-54	15	24	61
						55-	17	29	54
					Sex	Men	19	29	52
						Women	15	24	61

Table 2. Preference of the population growth in the future (ci7).

		Increase	The same	Decrease			Increase	The same	Decrease
Belgium (Fl)	Total	35	49	16	Age	-34	30	47	23
						35-54	36	51	14
						55-	42	46	12
					Sex	Men	37	47	17
						Women	34	50	16
Czech R.	Total	55	40	5	Age	-34	47	45	8
						35-54	58	40	3
						55-	64	34	2
					Sex	Men	56	38	5
						Women	54	42	4
Estonia	Total	77	22	1	Age	-34	77	21	2
						35-54	78	21	1
						55-	76	23	1
					Sex	Men	75	23	2
						Women	78	21	1
Italy	Total	42	51	7	Age	-34	43	50	7
						35-54	41	52	7
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	42	50	9
						Women	42	52	6
Cyprus	Total	74	23	2	Age	-34	72	27	2
						35-54	78	19	3
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	75	23	3
						Women	74	24	2
Lithuania	Total	73	26	2	Age	-34	64	35	1
						35-54	74	24	2
						55-	83	16	2
					Sex	Men	69	29	2
						Women	76	23	1
Hungary	Total	76	22	2	Age	-34	69	29	2
						35-54	77	21	2
						55-	84	14	2
					Sex	Men	75	23	2
						Women	76	22	2
Netherlands	Total	9	62	29	Age	-34	9	63	28
						35-54	9	61	30
						55-	9	61	30
					Sex	Men	10	59	31
						Women	7	65	28
Poland	Total	39	51	10	Age	-34	37	51	12
						35-54	38	53	10
						55-	47	47	7
					Sex	Men	40	49	11
						Women	38	53	10
Romania	Total	73	22	5	Age	-34	66	28	6
						35-54	76	22	3
						55-	81	14	5
					Sex	Men	72	22	6
						Women	74	23	4
Slovenia	Total	62	35	3	Age	-34	59	38	4
						35-54	63	34	3
						55-	64	32	3
					Sex	Men	59	38	4
						Women	65	33	3
Finland	Total	40	58	2	Age	-34	34	64	3
						35-54	42	56	2
						55-	44	55	1
					Sex	Men	40	58	3
						Women	41	58	1

Table 3. Opinion of the declining proportion of the young in the future, (%) (ci8).

Good=Excellent, good; Bad=Bad, very bad

		Good	Neither	Bad			Good	Neither	Bad
Belgium (FI)	Total	10	35	55	Age	-34	6	34	60
						35-54	11	35	54
						55-	15	38	47
					Sex	Men	11	36	54
						Women	10	35	56
Czech R.	Total	4	21	75	Age	-34	2	25	72
						35-54	4	21	75
						55-	6	13	81
					Sex	Men	5	22	72
						Women	3	19	78
Germany	Total	2	14	84	Age	-34	3	16	81
						35-54	2	15	84
						55-	2	11	87
					Sex	Men	2	14	84
						Women	2	14	83
Italy	Total	2	9	89	Age	-34	2	9	89
						35-54	3	10	88
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	2	10	88
						Women	2	9	89
Cyprus	Total	4	10	87	Age	-34	3	9	87
						35-54	5	8	87
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	5	8	88
						Women	3	10	88
Lithuania	Total	1	9	90	Age	-34	2	13	85
						35-54	1	8	90
						55-	1	4	95
					Sex	Men	2	10	88
						Women	1	8	91
Hungary	Total	1	8	91	Age	-34	1	9	89
						35-54	1	7	92
						55-	1	6	93
					Sex	Men	1	9	90
						Women	1	7	91
Netherlands	Total	7	39	54	Age	-34	5	41	54
						35-54	9	40	51
						55-	7	36	57
					Sex	Men	8	39	54
						Women	7	40	53
Poland	Total	7	28	65	Age	-34	7	30	63
						35-54	7	27	66
						55-	5	28	67
					Sex	Men	8	26	66
						Women	6	30	64
Slovenia	Total	2	10	88	Age	-34	2	9	89
						35-54	2	10	88
						55-	4	9	87
					Sex	Men	2	10	87
						Women	2	9	89
Finland	Total	4	20	77	Age	-34	3	22	75
						35-54	3	18	79
						55-	6	20	74
					Sex	Men	5	19	76
						Women	3	20	77

Table 4. Opinion of the number of the foreigners living in the country, (%) (m4).

Good=Excellent, good; Bad=Bad, very bad

		Too many	Neither	Too few			Too many	Neither	Too few
Czech R.	Total	68	29	3	Age	-34	63	35	2
						35-54	69	28	4
						55-	74	23	3
					Sex	Men	70	26	4
						Women	65	33	2
Germany	Total	63	36	2	Age	-34	60	37	3
						35-54	62	37	2
						55-	67	32	1
					Sex	Men	62	36	3
						Women	63	36	1
Estonia	Total	62	37	1	Age	-34	56	41	2
						35-54	61	39	1
						55-	72	27	1
					Sex	Men	67	31	2
						Women	58	40	1
Hungary	Total	67	33	1	Age	-34	65	35	0
						35-54	68	32	0
						55-	68	32	1
					Sex	Men	63	37	1
						Women	70	29	0
Netherlands	Total	63	37	0	Age	-34	60	40	0
						35-54	60	40	1
						55-	72	28	0
					Sex	Men	63	37	1
						Women	62	37	0
Austria	Total	63	36	2	Age	-34	42	49	9
						35-54	47	46	7
						55-	48	48	4
					Sex	Men	42	49	9
						Women	50	46	7
Poland	Total	63	36	2	Age	-34	61	38	2
						35-54	64	35	2
						55-	66	32	2
					Sex	Men	63	35	2
						Women	62	36	2
Slovenia	Total	62	36	2	Age	-34	66	31	3
						35-54	59	40	1
						55-	64	36	0
					Sex	Men	63	36	2
						Women	62	37	2
Finland	Total	28	62	10	Age	-34	25	63	12
						35-54	28	62	10
						55-	31	63	7
					Sex	Men	31	58	10
						Women	24	67	9

Table 5. Opinion on the government responsibility regarding female labour force participation (ci1c).

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2); Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4)

		Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.	Mean			Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.
Czech R.	Total	44	51	5	2.68	Age	-34	41	53	6
							35-54	44	53	4
							55-	48	46	5
						Sex	Men	38	57	5
							Women	49	56	5
Germany	Total	79	18	3	2.09	Age	-34	78	20	3
							35-54	81	16	3
							55-	78	19	4
						Sex	Men	73	23	4
							Women	85	13	2
Cyprus	Total	54	42	4	2.47	Age	-34	54	41	5
							35-54	54	43	3
							55-	-	-	-
						Sex	Men	50	46	4
							Women	58	39	4
Lithuania	Total	36	58	6	2.81	Age	-34	37	56	8
							35-54	35	60	6
							55-	37	59	4
						Sex	Men	33	60	7
							Women	38	57	5
Hungary	Total	68	29	3	2.13	Age	-34	62	33	4
							35-54	70	27	3
							55-	72	26	2
						Sex	Men	64	32	4
							Women	72	26	3
Netherlands	Total	22	68	9	3.22	Age	-34	21	70	10
							35-54	25	67	8
							55-	20	68	12
						Sex	Men	19	70	11
							Women	26	67	8
Poland	Total	47	39	14	2.79	Age	-34	44	43	14
							35-54	49	38	13
							55-	50	35	15
						Sex	Men	45	41	14
							Women	49	38	14
Romania	Total	63	31	6	2.18	Age	-34	61	32	6
							35-54	66	29	6
							55-	62	34	4
						Sex	Men	61	33	6
							Women	66	30	5
Slovenia	Total	35	56	9	2.95	Age	-34	33	59	7
							35-54	35	55	11
							55-	37	56	8
						Sex	Men	34	57	8
							Women	35	56	10
Finland	Total	32	62	6	2.99	Age	-34	29	65	7
							35-54	34	60	6
							55-	34	62	4
						Sex	Men	28	65	8
							Women	37	59	4

Table 6. Opinion on the government responsibility regarding opportunities for women to combine a job with raising children (ci1d).

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2); Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4)

		Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.	Mean			Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.
Belgium (FI)	Total	72	25	3	2.08	Age	-34	78	19	3
							35-54	70	27	3
							55-	65	30	5
						Sex	Men	64	31	4
							Women	78	19	3
Czech R.	Total	48	47	5	2.61	Age	-34	46	48	6
							35-54	48	48	4
							55-	52	43	5
						Sex	Men	45	50	5
							Women	52	43	5
Germany	Total	83	15	2	1.96	Age	-34	83	15	2
							35-54	84	14	2
							55-	81	17	2
						Sex	Men	79	18	3
							Women	87	12	1
Cyprus	Total	57	38	5	2.43	Age	-34	55	39	6
							35-54	60	36	4
							55-	-	-	-
						Sex	Men	50	46	5
							Women	63	31	6
Lithuania	Total	57	42	2	2.23	Age	-34	57	41	2
							35-54	57	41	1
							55-	56	43	1
						Sex	Men	51	48	2
							Women	62	37	2
Hungary	Total	64	32	4	2.21	Age	-34	62	31	7
							35-54	63	34	4
							55-	67	31	2
						Sex	Men	60	34	6
							Women	67	30	3
Netherlands	Total	31	56	13	3.16	Age	-34	36	53	11
							35-54	31	57	12
							55-	23	61	16
						Sex	Men	26	59	15
							Women	36	54	19
Poland	Total	47	38	15	2.84	Age	-34	45	39	16
							35-54	49	37	14
							55-	48	38	15
						Sex	Men	46	39	15
							Women	48	37	15
Romania	Total	64	30	6	2.20	Age	-34	63	30	7
							35-54	65	29	6
							55-	64	32	4
						Sex	Men	63	30	7
							Women	65	30	5
Slovenia	Total	28	62	10	3.09	Age	-34	28	63	9
							35-54	26	58	11
							55-	34	62	8
						Sex	Men	29	61	10
							Women	27	64	9
Finland	Total	43	53	4	2.76	Age	-34	45	51	4
							35-54	44	52	4
							55-	40	56	4
						Sex	Men	35	60	5
							Women	52	46	3

Table 7. Opinion on the government responsibility regarding opportunities for men to combine a job with raising children (cile).

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2); Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4)

		Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.	Mean			Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.
Belgium (Fl)	Total	55	41	5	2.47	Age	-34	62	35	3
							35-54	53	42	5
							55-	48	45	6
						Sex	Men	53	42	5
							Women	56	39	5
Czech R.	Total	29	57	14	3.14	Age	-34	29	58	14
							35-54	30	57	14
							55-	29	57	14
						Sex	Men	26	59	15
							Women	32	55	13
Germany	Total	74	22	5	2.27	Age	-34	76	20	4
							35-54	75	21	4
							55-	69	25	6
						Sex	Men	69	26	5
							Women	78	18	4
Cyprus	Total	41	46	13	2.90	Age	-34	42	45	12
							35-54	38	47	15
							55-	-	-	-
						Sex	Men	35	50	14
							Women	46	43	12
Lithuania	Total	41	55	4	2.70	Age	-34	43	54	3
							35-54	38	56	6
							55-	42	55	4
						Sex	Men	39	57	5
							Women	42	54	4
Hungary	Total	42	44	13	2.81	Age	-34	43	42	15
							35-54	41	46	13
							55-	43	45	12
						Sex	Men	43	42	15
							Women	42	46	12
Netherlands	Total	27	59	14	3.26	Age	-34	34	55	11
							35-54	27	59	14
							55-	18	63	19
						Sex	Men	23	61	16
							Women	32	56	12
Poland	Total	34	44	22	3.19	Age	-34	35	43	22
							35-54	33	45	21
							55-	33	44	23
						Sex	Men	32	46	23
							Women	35	44	22
Romania	Total	51	37	12	2.61	Age	-34	52	35	13
							35-54	50	37	13
							55-	51	40	10
						Sex	Men	50	36	14
							Women	52	38	11
Slovenia	Total	27	66	7	3.03	Age	-34	28	66	6
							35-54	26	67	7
							55-	28	65	7
						Sex	Men	27	66	7
							Women	27	66	6
Finland	Total	39	56	5	2.85	Age	-34	40	55	5
							35-54	39	57	4
							55-	37	57	6
						Sex	Men	33	60	6
							Women	45	52	3

Table 8. Opinion on recent government attention to poor families (ci2a).

		Less	Equal	More			Less	Equal	More
Czech R.	Total	40	45	15	Age	-34	35	51	14
						35-54	43	43	13
						55-	41	40	19
					Sex	Men	38	46	16
						Women	41	45	14
Germany	Total	43	46	11	Age	-34	41	48	11
						35-54	44	45	11
						55-	45	44	12
					Sex	Men	42	45	13
						Women	44	46	10
Lithuania	Total	54	36	10	Age	-34	46	41	13
						35-54	56	35	10
						55-	62	31	7
					Sex	Men	55	36	8
						Women	53	36	12
Hungary	Total	51	27	22	Age	-34	42	33	25
						35-54	56	24	20
						55-	55	25	20
					Sex	Men	51	29	20
						Women	51	26	23
Netherlands	Total	31	52	18	Age	-34	28	52	20
						35-54	30	53	17
						55-	38	48	14
					Sex	Men	26	56	18
						Women	36	48	17
Austria	Total	37	43	20	Age	-34	31	47	22
						35-54	39	42	19
						55-	40	40	20
					Sex	Men	36	43	21
						Women	37	43	20
Poland	Total	68	23	9	Age	-34	66	24	10
						35-54	69	23	9
						55-	67	23	10
					Sex	Men	67	24	9
						Women	68	22	10
Romania	Total	63	23	14	Age	-34	65	23	13
						35-54	61	23	16
						55-	61	25	14
					Sex	Men	62	24	13
						Women	63	23	14
Slovenia	Total	52	34	14	Age	-34	43	43	14
						35-54	55	31	14
						55-	57	27	16
					Sex	Men	51	36	13
						Women	52	33	15

Table 9. Opinion on recent government attention to families with small children (ci2b).

		Less	Equal	More			Less	Equal	More
Czech R.	Total	36	45	19	Age	-34	35	46	20
						35-54	39	46	15
						55-	34	42	24
					Sex	Men	35	47	19
						Women	38	43	19
Germany	Total	31	43	26	Age	-34	33	45	22
						35-54	31	42	28
						55-	30	43	27
					Sex	Men	31	42	27
						Women	32	44	24
Cyprus	Total	11	67	22	Age	-34	10	70	20
						35-54	12	63	25
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	13	67	21
						Women	9	67	24
Lithuania	Total	51	40	10	Age	-34	43	45	12
						35-54	55	36	10
						55-	55	38	6
					Sex	Men	51	39	10
						Women	51	40	10
Hungary	Total	39	29	33	Age	-34	34	32	33
						35-54	42	28	31
						55-	40	26	34
					Sex	Men	38	31	31
						Women	39	27	34
Netherlands	Total	21	61	18	Age	-34	21	60	19
						35-54	22	60	17
						55-	19	65	16
					Sex	Men	22	61	17
						Women	20	61	19
Austria	Total	18	36	47	Age	-34	16	33	51
						35-54	20	36	43
						55-	15	39	46
					Sex	Men	17	36	47
						Women	19	35	46
Poland	Total	61	29	10	Age	-34	61	30	9
						35-54	60	30	10
						55-	61	28	11
					Sex	Men	61	30	10
						Women	61	29	10
Romania	Total	56	29	15	Age	-34	55	30	14
						35-54	57	27	16
						55-	54	30	16
					Sex	Men	56	28	16
						Women	55	30	15
Slovenia	Total	39	42	20	Age	-34	32	47	21
						35-54	43	39	18
						55-	39	39	22
					Sex	Men	37	44	19
						Women	40	40	21

Table 10. Opinion on recent government attention to problems of working mothers (ci2c).

		Less	Equal	More			Less	Equal	More
Czech R.	Total	44	48	9	Age	-34	42	51	7
						35-54	44	48	8
						55-	46	41	13
					Sex	Men	43	50	7
						Women	45	45	10
Germany	Total	42	48	11	Age	-34	40	50	10
						35-54	43	46	12
						55-	40	50	10
					Sex	Men	38	51	11
						Women	45	45	11
Cyprus	Total	12	68	20	Age	-34	12	70	18
						35-54	12	65	23
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	13	67	19
						Women	11	69	21
Lithuania	Total	50	45	5	Age	-34	43	52	6
						35-54	52	43	5
						55-	57	41	3
					Sex	Men	48	47	5
						Women	52	44	5
Hungary	Total	51	36	13	Age	-34	46	42	13
						35-54	54	33	13
						55-	52	32	16
					Sex	Men	49	38	14
						Women	53	34	13
Netherlands	Total	20	46	34	Age	-34	19	45	36
						35-54	19	46	35
						55-	22	48	30
					Sex	Men	18	47	35
						Women	22	45	33
Austria	Total	25	43	32	Age	-34	23	45	33
						35-54	27	42	31
						55-	24	43	33
					Sex	Men	23	44	33
						Women	26	43	31
Poland	Total	63	29	9	Age	-34	63	29	8
						35-54	63	29	8
						55-	63	26	12
					Sex	Men	63	29	9
						Women	63	29	8
Romania	Total	56	30	14	Age	-34	58	28	13
						35-54	53	32	15
						55-	55	31	14
					Sex	Men	57	31	12
						Women	54	30	14
Slovenia	Total	52	37	11	Age	-34	40	45	15
						35-54	57	34	9
						55-	61	29	10
					Sex	Men	49	40	11
						Women	54	34	12

Table 11. Opinion on recent government attention to child care facilities (ci2d).

		Less	Equal	More			Less	Equal	More
Czech R.	Total	36	57	8	Age	-34	31	61	9
						35-54	37	56	8
						55-	40	52	8
					Sex	Men	33	59	7
						Women	38	54	8
Germany	Total	45	40	15	Age	-34	44	42	14
						35-54	47	37	16
						55-	40	45	15
					Sex	Men	45	39	16
						Women	44	41	15
Cyprus	Total	9	61	30	Age	-34	8	62	29
						35-54	10	60	30
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	10	62	28
						Women	8	61	31
Lithuania	Total	50	40	10	Age	-34	43	41	16
						35-54	52	40	8
						55-	56	39	5
					Sex	Men	50	41	9
						Women	50	40	11
Hungary	Total	43	36	21	Age	-34	36	40	24
						35-54	49	33	18
						55-	44	35	21
					Sex	Men	42	38	20
						Women	44	34	22
Netherlands	Total	15	32	54	Age	-34	15	31	55
						35-54	14	32	55
						55-	17	34	50
					Sex	Men	14	32	55
						Women	16	32	52
Austria	Total	17	45	38	Age	-34	16	44	40
						35-54	19	45	36
						55-	16	47	38
					Sex	Men	15	48	37
						Women	19	42	38
Poland	Total	61	31	9	Age	-34	58	32	10
						35-54	63	30	7
						55-	64	29	8
					Sex	Men	60	31	9
						Women	62	30	8
Romania	Total	52	32	16	Age	-34	53	32	15
						35-54	51	31	18
						55-	54	31	15
					Sex	Men	56	30	14
						Women	49	33	18
Slovenia	Total	27	53	19	Age	-34	23	56	21
						35-54	30	54	16
						55-	30	45	25
					Sex	Men	29	54	18
						Women	26	53	21

Table 12. Opinion of the rising number and proportion of persons aged 65+ in the future (a1).

Good=Excellent, good; Bad=Bad, very bad

		Good	Neither	Bad			Good	Neither	Bad
Belgium (Fl)	Total	22	35	43	Age	-34	13	31	55
						35-54	22	38	40
						55-	34	34	32
					Sex	Men	21	34	45
						Women	22	36	42
Czech R.	Total	5	24	72	Age	-34	1	27	72
						35-54	5	21	74
						55-	9	23	69
					Sex	Men	5	24	71
						Women	4	23	73
Germany	Total	7	22	72	Age	-34	4	22	74
						35-54	5	23	71
						55-	12	19	69
					Sex	Men	6	21	73
						Women	7	23	70
Estonia	Total	5	25	70	Age	-34	4	24	72
						35-54	6	24	70
						55-	5	30	65
					Sex	Men	4	25	71
						Women	6	26	69
Italy	Total	23	19	58	Age	-34	20	20	60
						35-54	25	18	57
						55-	-	-	-
					Sex	Men	23	18	59
						Women	23	20	58
Lithuania	Total	4	24	72	Age	-34	3	32	66
						35-54	4	23	74
						55-	7	16	77
					Sex	Men	3	21	75
						Women	5	26	69
Poland	Total	6	29	65	Age	-34	6	31	63
						35-54	6	27	67
						55-	7	27	66
					Sex	Men	6	28	66
						Women	6	29	64
Romania	Total	5	23	72	Age	-34	5	26	69
						35-54	4	21	75
						55-	6	23	71
					Sex	Men	5	21	74
						Women	5	25	70
Slovenia	Total	17	27	57	Age	-34	10	30	60
						35-54	19	25	56
						55-	25	24	51
					Sex	Men	19	25	56
						Women	15	28	57

Table 13. Opinion on the government responsibility regarding looking after the elderly (ci1a).

Quite responsible=Completely or quite responsible (1 and 2); Responsible=Responsible, slightly responsible (3 and 4)

		Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.	Mean			Quite resp.	Resp.	Not resp.
Belgium (FI)	Total	88	11	1	1.74					
						Age	-34	86	13	1
							35-54	89	10	1
							55-	87	11	2
						Sex	Men	86	13	1
							Women	89	9	1
Czech R.	Total	70	29	1	2.11		-34	67	32	1
						Age	35-54	71	29	0
							55-	72	26	2
						Sex	Men	70	28	2
							Women	70	30	0
Germany	Total	88	11	1	1.83		-34	86	13	1
						Age	35-54	89	10	2
							55-	88	11	1
						Sex	Men	86	13	2
							Women	90	9	1
Cyprus	Total	65	34	2	2.20		-34	64	34	2
						Age	35-54	66	32	2
							55-	-	-	-
						Sex	Men	55	45	1
							Women	54	45	1
Lithuania	Total	54	45	1	2.27		-34	52	46	2
						Age	35-54	51	48	1
							55-	63	38	0
						Sex	Men	55	45	1
							Women	54	45	1
Hungary	Total	62	37	2	2.22		-34	59	39	1
						Age	35-54	61	38	2
							55-	66	31	4
						Sex	Men	63	35	2
							Women	60	38	2
Netherlands	Total	66	33	1	2.27		-34	60	39	1
						Age	35-54	70	29	1
							55-	67	32	1
						Sex	Men	62	37	1
							Women	70	29	1
Poland	Total	54	42	5	2.54		-34	51	44	5
						Age	35-54	55	41	4
							55-	57	37	7
						Sex	Men	53	42	5
							Women	54	41	6
Romania	Total	75	22	3	1.86		-34	73	24	3
						Age	35-54	75	21	4
							55-	79	20	2
						Sex	Men	76	21	3
							Women	75	23	3
Slovenia	Total	43	54	4	2.72		-34	41	57	3
						Age	35-54	42	54	4
							55-	49	47	4
						Sex	Men	44	51	4
							Women	41	56	3
Finland	Total	79	21	0	1.99		-34	76	23	0
						Age	35-54	80	20	0
							55-	78	21	1
						Sex	Men	77	23	0
							Women	80	20	0

Table 14. Opinion on recent government attention to care for the aged (ci2e).

		Less	Equal	More			Less	Equal	More
Czech R.	Total	29	54	17	Age	-34	22	59	19
						35-54	30	53	17
						55-	36	49	15
					Sex	Men	29	53	18
						Women	28	57	16
Germany	Total	39	50	11	Age	-34	36	54	11
						35-54	41	48	11
						55-	38	51	11
					Sex	Men	39	51	10
						Women	38	50	12
Lithuania	Total	46	45	9	Age	-34	41	48	12
						35-54	46	46	8
						55-	54	40	6
					Sex	Men	49	44	7
						Women	44	46	10
Hungary	Total	45	35	20	Age	-34	36	40	24
						35-54	47	36	18
						55-	54	28	18
					Sex	Men	44	37	19
						Women	45	34	21
Netherlands	Total	38	45	18	Age	-34	30	46	25
						35-54	38	47	16
						55-	49	38	13
					Sex	Men	38	44	18
						Women	37	45	18
Austria	Total	27	50	23	Age	-34	26	52	22
						35-54	28	49	24
						55-	25	51	23
					Sex	Men	27	50	23
						Women	26	51	24
Poland	Total	56	35	9	Age	-34	54	39	8
						35-54	56	35	9
						55-	61	27	11
					Sex	Men	55	36	9
						Women	56	35	9
Romania	Total	54	30	16	Age	-34	52	33	15
						35-54	52	30	18
						55-	59	26	14
					Sex	Men	56	29	16
						Women	52	32	16
Slovenia	Total	28	53	19	Age	-34	21	58	21
						35-54	29	55	17
						55-	36	40	24
					Sex	Men	29	53	18
						Women	26	54	21

Appendix 2. Maternity grants and child/family allowances in DIALOG countries.

Country	Maternity grant	Child allowance/family allowance
Belgium (Flanders)	<p>Eligibility: Salaried persons, self-employed persons and civil servants are all entitled to a maternity grant.</p> <p>Amount: The amount depends on the child's rank in the family. For the first child (rank 1), the fee amounts to 964.40 €, for the other children 725.61 € (amounts on 1st June 2001). A multiple birth: rank 1 for all these children.</p>	<p>Eligibility: Salaried persons or social insurance beneficiaries with one or more children. Families not covered above are eligible for means-tested allowances. Child must be under age 18 (age 21 if disabled or 25 if a full-time student or seeking employment. Income limit for means-tested allowances (June 2001): a yearly income of 1,2813.8 € for families with one child, increasing by 20% for each additional child. there are three possibilities for supplementary allowances: age allowance, social allowance and allowance for disabled children aged up to 21 years</p> <p>Amount: The ordinary family benefit is determined by the rank of the child. The amounts (valid on 1st of June 2001) are the following: - rank 1: 71.20 € per month for salaried persons and 36.19 € per month for self-employed persons - rank 2, 131.73 € per month - rank 3 and following 196.65 € per month</p>
The Czech Republic	<p>Eligibility: Every mother is entitled to the birth grant.</p> <p>Amount: Birth grant is five times the living minimum of children (which is 1,690 CZK =53 €).</p>	<p>Eligibility: Paid for each dependent child up to age 26 if a student.</p> <p>Amount: The current system was implemented in 1995. Since this both the entitlement to child allowance and the amount of child allowance are related to the living minimum. It is a means-tested benefit free from tax.</p>
Germany	<p>Eligibility: Insured persons, who are not entitled to maternity allowance, are entitled.</p> <p>Amount: Fixed grant of 77 €</p>	<p>Eligibility: The child must be under age of 18 (under 21 if unemployed; under 27 if in education, if no apprenticeship is available, or if carrying out a voluntary service, income no more than 7.188 €)</p> <p>Amount: 1st - 3rd child: 154 €, subsequent children: 179 €; no change with age of the child. For children above 18 years of age, the amount of the child benefit depends on their income.</p>
Estonia	<p>Eligibility: All mothers, resident in Estonia</p> <p>Amount: First child 3,750 kroons (≈240 €), following parities 3,000 kroons.</p>	<p>Eligibility: Paid for each child until age 16, for students until age 19.</p> <p>Amount: First child: 150 kroons; all other parities: 300 kroons.</p>
Italy	<p>Eligibility: At national level in 2004 has been introduced a maternity grant for mother delivering/adopting a child of 2nd and other order.</p> <p>Amount: 1,000 €.</p>	<p>Eligibility: Mainly dependent employed/retired workers, unemployed. Special family benefit system for self-employed and for pensioners of the special system.</p> <p>Amount: means-tested; it varies depending upon the size and income of the family from 10.33 € to 965.26 € for those that have up to seven children.</p>
Cyprus	<p>Eligibility: The benefit is provided to entitled insured pregnant women for 16 weeks.</p> <p>Amount: The maximum amount is CP 285 (≈495 €) per week.</p>	<p>Eligibility: The objective of the child benefit scheme is to provide income support for large families (with at least four dependent children).</p> <p>Amount: The child benefit scheme provides tax benefits, cash free. In 2001 a sum of CP 30,74 (≈53 €) was paid each month for each child.</p>
Lithuania	<p>Eligibility: A universal single-time benefit, entitled to permanent residents of the country.</p> <p>Amount: Equal to 6 times the minimum standard of living (MSL) (750 Lt ≈ 217 EUR)</p>	<p>Eligibility: For each child at the age from 1 to 3 years, i.e. upon the expiry of parental allowance until the child becomes one year of age (0-3 years if not insured).</p> <p>Amount: A child (family) allowance equals 0.75 MSL (93.75 Lt ≈ 27 EUR)</p>

Appendix 2. Maternity grants and child/family allowances in DIALOG countries.

Country	Maternity grant	Child allowance/family allowance
Hungary	<p>Eligibility: The maternity grant means three different benefits historically, one created after another. <i>Maternal aid</i> -> 1993; 1993 -> <i>expectancy allowance</i> (universal) [a means against abortion]; 1996-> <i>maternity assistance</i>: a universal lump sum.</p> <p>Amount: 150 % of the minimal old age pension.</p>	<p>Eligibility: 1990-1995: universal, 1996-1998: income-tested, 1998-2002: "school-tested". Family must include one or more children under age 16 (age 20 if enrolled in a primary or secondary school) or disabled. From 2001 the 'regular child protecting support' was called 'supplementary family allowance' and indeed it can be seen as such a benefit, a family allowance supplement given only to poor families</p> <p>Amount: The real value of family allowance deeply decreased in the '90s, in lack of indexation, so its real value in 2000 was only 38 % of the 1990 real value. For the first child, 3,800 forints (≈ 15 €) a month; for two children, 4,700 forints a month per child; and for three or more children, 5,400 forints a month per child. The amounts grow in the case of a single parent/disabled child. The amount of the supplementary family allowance is 20 % of the prevailing minimal old age pension.</p>
Netherlands	-	<p>Eligibility: Insured parent that care for or bring up children under the age of 18.</p> <p>Amount: The amount of child benefit depends on the age of the child and the size of the family. The latter does not apply with regard to children born in 1995 or after. The benefit varies between 176.62 € (for 1st child 0-5 years old born in 1995 or after) and 328.74 € (for 6th child aged 12-17). Double amounts are payable for invalid children or students in certain cases.</p>
Austria	Abolished in 1996.	<p>Eligibility: Paid for under 18-year old children and for children until the age of 26, if they study at a university or if they are on vocational training.</p> <p>Amount: Below the age of 3 years: 105.4 €, below the age of 10 years: 112.7 €, below the age of 19 years: 130.9 €, from age 19 on: 152.7 € For handicapped children: additionally 138.3 € Entitlement for two children: additionally 12.8 € per month From the 3rd child on: 25.5 € per child and month</p>
Poland	Abolished in 2002.	<p>Eligibility: Many changes in respect to the entitlement criteria, amount of allowance, income testing. Fixed amount was replaced by price indexing, universal allowance for each child was changed into allowance dependent on the number of children. The recent reform of 2003 came into force in 2004. The family allowance is granted to the person whose income per family member does not exceed 50% of the average remuneration in the national economy. A child aged up to 16, or up to 20 if the child is continuing his or her education (the age was lowering from 24 to 20 years in 1992).</p> <p>Amount: According to the 1997 change the basic allowance applies to the first and second child, and at an increased level in the case of the third and every subsequent child. The amount of the allowance accounts for 16% minimum wage in the case of one or two children, 26% in the case of three children and 38% in the case of four.</p>
Romania	<p>Eligibility: Every expectant mother resident.</p> <p>Amount: The amount is periodically revised based on the inflation and other economic indicators. It was about 4 millions ROL in 2003 ($\approx 106,5$€).</p>	<p>Eligibility: A tax free and universal benefit. The level decreased dramatically during 12 years of transition, although represents one of the most important instruments in fighting the poverty.</p> <p>Amount: After a rapid decrease until 1996, an insufficient revival in 1997 was followed by a continuous decline until 2000, when the lowest level since it began was reached. If before 1989, the child allowance was about 10% of the average wage, it now represents barely 3% of a substantially lower wage</p>

Appendix 2. Maternity grants and child/family allowances in DIALOG countries.

Country	Maternity grant	Child allowance/family allowance
Switzerland	<p>Eligibility: There exists no federal scheme on birth allowances. 10 cantons provide a birth allowance.</p> <p>Amount: varies between CHF 600 and CHF 1,500 per birth, depending on the canton. 5 of these 10 cantons pay a welcome allowance for the child placed to be adopted.</p>	<p>Eligibility: <i>At a federal level:</i> Child benefits for those employed in agriculture and small-scale farmers, insofar as their net income does not exceed 30,000 Sfr. per year. Supplementary domestic benefits for those employed in agriculture. <i>At cantonal level:</i> In most cantons, only employees are entitled to benefits.</p> <p>Amount: <i>At cantonal level:</i> Child benefits vary from 150 Sfr. to 344 Sfr. per child and per month, depending on the canton. In addition, in some cantons provide adoption allowances, education allowances (from 180 Sfr. to 444 Sfr.) and domestic allowance (312 Sfr.).</p>
Slovenia	<p>Eligibility: Universal benefit. Either mother or father has permanent residence in Slovenia.</p> <p>Amount: Granted either in-kind or in cash. In 2000, the cash benefit amounted to some 29,400 SIT (143 €). It represented the average cost of goods included in the three alternative kits. However, if bought at market prices, these goods would have cost about 40 % more.</p>	<p>Eligibility: During the 1990s the child benefit has changed several times. The last change before the survey was made in May 1999:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A lower income ceiling: 99 % of the national average income per family member, down from 110 %; - Differentiated benefit levels depending on whether the child was the first, second, third or subsequent in a family; - Higher benefit levels (by 38 % on average), particularly for children in families with the lowest income and increasing numbers of children; - Considerably larger differences among benefits at different income levels <p>Amount: There are eight income brackets. Child benefit level depends on the birth order of the child (1st, 2nd, 3rd and subsequent). From May 1999 to April 2001 the benefit varied between 13 € (Income per family member as a percentage of the average wage 75-99 %, 1st child) and 90 € (Income per family member as a percentage of the average wage <15 %, child 3+).</p>
Finland	<p>Eligibility: Every expectant mother, resident in Finland, is entitled to maternity grant.</p> <p>Amount: Mothers can choose between a maternity package containing child care items and a cash benefit of 140 euros. Compensation for the costs arising from pregnancy, child birth and medical care is also available, though not for hospital charges.</p>	<p>Eligibility: Paid for each under 17-year old child in family who are living in Finland..</p> <p>Amount:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1st child: 90 euros 2nd child: 110.50 euros 3rd child: 131.00 euros 4th child: 151.50 euros 5th+ child: 172.00 euros <p>Single parents get a supplement of 33.60 euros for each child. Free from tax.</p>

Appendix 3. Childcare in crèches (nurseries) and kindergartens in DIALOG countries.

Childcare in crèches/nurseries and kindergartens

Belgium (Flanders)

Organising childcare

Childcare (and pre-school education) is administrated separately in the French and the Flemish communities. Kind und Gezin is the public agency responsible for organising/overseeing childcare in Flanders. It supervises childcare policies, arrangements, subsidies and inspections. Local government authorities and not-for-profit agencies participate in the provision of childcare. The most prevalent form of organised care for children under 2.5 years is in family day care home. Since April 2003, a first step in regulating the informal childcare in families is undertaken with a basic social security system. Pre-school education is under the authority of the ministry of Education in the Flemish community and is available to all children from 2.5 to 6 years. Hours are from 8:30 AM to 3:30 PM, and after school services are available. Pre-and after school care is organised at the level of municipalities at regulated fees. Next to that, there is an informal supply of pre-and after- school care by most schools.

Availability

There is still shortage of places in formal childcare for the 0-3 years old. The Flemish government engages in creating more places since the beginning of the 90ies. On the contrary, participation to pre-school education (for 2.5-6 years old) is nearly universal.

Costs

Charges are income-related in “Kind and Gezin” supervised arrangements and otherwise non-regulated and non-subsidised.

The Czech Republic

Organising childcare

Since 1990 there has been a shift from nursery provision to parental leave for children under 3 years. In the State expenditures on child-care facilities declined dramatically in the 1990s while fees for their use substantially have increased. In the Czech Republic the management of pre-school facilities was transferred to municipalities. But municipalities struggled with financial problems and tended to limit economically unprofitable facilities. Kindergartens seem to have been much less affected by transition policies. Kindergartens offer full-day pre-school education for three to six year old children. Today they are under supervision of municipalities.

Availability

Access to kindergarten is a subjective right for a child of age 5. In the Czech Republic about 92 percent of the children aged 3-5 years are still enrolled in kindergartens. Nurseries in the Czech Republic have practically ceased to exist.

Costs

The costs of kindergarten place are 300 CZK (=10 €) per month plus food costs.

Germany

Organising childcare

Differing systems in the West and in the East. The institutional care outside the family is much more common in the East. Especially in the West the part of children who are cared for institutionally is far below European level. Childcare for infants is mainly provided by the families themselves, further consolidated by the regulations of parental leave, which can be taken to a maximum of 3 years. Pre-school education is offered in kindergartens and similar institutions. The costs depend on the single institution.

Availability

In 1996 a legal entitlement for a kindergarten place for every child between 3 and 6 was introduced. However, up to now, it isn't fully achieved, as there are still regions short of places. The proportion of children in kindergarten is higher now (though still in the middle range in European comparison) and it will increase with the decreasing number of children. However, most of the places are only part-time which makes it hard for parents/mothers to work. In Eastern Germany the situation is better, but with the decreasing number of children a further reduction of the supply is possible.

Costs

Childcare is paid by the parents and differs between the providers, sometimes it is income dependent or decreases for the second child, but this depends on the institutions, i.e. there are no general regulations. In Eastern Germany the situation is better, but with the decreasing number of children a further reduction of the supply is possible.

Estonia

Organising childcare

Because of a low quality of service, particularly with respect to baby nurseries, the 1990s marked the decrease in the number of day care facilities. The parental leave lasts until the child is 3 years old. The system consists mainly of kindergartens. Pre-school education does represent a strictly formalised system but kindergartens have programmes to prepare children for primary school free of charge. Also, there are classes at schools, which provide paid education for pre-schoolers (preparation to primary school).

Availability

According to statistics, 80 % of children aged 3-6 are enrolled in kindergartens. The percentage has been increasing following the decrease in the early 1990s. The system of baby nurseries has virtually disappeared.

Italy

Organising childcare

Municipalities run the public crèches, while kindergartens are run at both local and central level (municipalities and the government). Moreover, childcare services are also provided by the private sector. The childcare systems are evolving slowly over time and continue to do little to promote the attractiveness of full-time work for mothers. The rigidity and lack of publicly-funded child care are somewhat compensated for by a substantial family support system: at the end of '90 almost half of the children aged less than 3 years old were cared by grandparents while about 17 % by mothers who did not work.

Availability

Municipalities' crèches are open to all. However, as applications for entry outnumber the places available, priority criteria are applied. In general, priority is given to low-income families, disabled children, children of one-parent families and those with parents who both work. The public child care system for children aged 1 to 3 years provides services which are of small help to couples and, in particular, to married women. While the quality of publicly provided child care services is very high in many Italian regions, they have a limited number of slots available and the opening hours do not assure a compatibility with full-time employment and do not fully enable the participation of women in the labour market. A remarkable difference exists between the availability of childcare for small children and for children between the age 3 and 5 years. The proportion of children older than 3 attending kindergarten is traditionally relatively high (more than 90 %) and the availability of kindergarten is quite homogenous.

Costs

While the public childcare for children aged below 3 years is quite expensive, for the older ones it is highly subsidised and parents are asked to contribute solely to sustain the meals costs.

Cyprus

Organising childcare

In public kindergartens children of 4 years and 8 months to 5 years and 8 months of age are accepted. If there are vacant places these may be filled with children of a younger age (3 years old). Community Kindergartens operate only in cases where the public kindergarten classes available do not meet the needs of all the children in the community. They are not profitable organisations. They have qualified personnel. Children of 3 years - 5 years and 8 months of age are accepted. Private Kindergartens are established and set in operation by individuals in the private sector. The Department of Social Welfare Services is responsible for the supervision of day-care programmes for children at pre-school age.

Availability

Roughly about 50 % of the cohort at pre-primary education age attended kindergartens or day nurseries in 1999/2000.

Percentage of children in Pre-Primary Education (including Day Nursery schools and kindergartens:
Public Schools 18.5%, Communal Schools 7.4 %, Private Schools 21,7 %

Lithuania

Organising childcare

Within the last fifteen years the childcare system has been developing in a rather controversial manner. From the Soviet period up to now the ideology of the child care system has been changing significantly:

1. During the Soviet time pre-school institutions were attributed a highly important role in ensuring a full employment for women; besides, in developing the day care system, attention was mostly paid to the quantity aspect of the system.
2. In the early 1990s, the basic responsibility for the care of the pre-school children was placed on the mother; pre-school institutions were only playing an auxiliary role, besides, quite a lot of them were closed.

3. Since the mid-1990s, pre-school institutions have been increasingly attributed a more important role in the care and upbringing of small children and in providing a chance for the parents to reconcile domestic responsibilities and professional activeness; in the development of the day care system the quality of services has been becoming more important. Municipalities have been responsible for the development of day care services since 1994. Funding differences between different regions/municipalities predetermine significant regional differences in the development of day care services.

Availability

The available forms of services are distributed unevenly in urban and rural areas, and for the children of different ages, besides considerable differences are observed between different regions of the country. There has been an increasing need not only for constant care but also for a short time or casual care for the child at home until the age of one year, for a short-time (several hours) care, for parental consulting, for the evaluation of the child's schooling maturity, etc. However, the public institutions are not ready to provide such services, while the private institutions to provide the services in question are still very few. The nanny services have been developed insufficiently, too.

Costs

Only the children from socially disadvantaged families are entitled to free day care services, and in the public institutions alone. In the day care system, children aged 6-7 years are offered a pre-school education programme intended to prepare the children for school. The programme is implemented both in pre-school institutions and at schools.

Hungary

Organising childcare

There are several kindergartens and day nurseries (or crèches) in Hungary at present that help the parents with under school-aged children to reconcile family- and working life. Unlike kindergartens, day nurseries do not belong to the educational system; they are not under the supervision of the Ministry of Education; rather the Ministry of Healthcare supervises them. Day nurseries are for the daytime care of children under 3. The last year of kindergarten is meant to be a preparation year for entering school, and so this year is compulsory, while the others are not.

Availability

About two third of the costs of day nurseries is covered by the local government. That is why day nurseries are rare in villages (and also rare in smaller towns): local governments there have often not enough money to maintain them.

Costs

The parents have to pay only for the meals.

The Netherlands

Organising childcare

Until halfway of the eighties childcare was mainly an issue between employers and employees. This changed when the lack of childcare facilities proved to be an important impediment for women to return to the workforce after childbirth. The relevance of childcare facilities for the labour force participation

of women became an important argument in the discussions. Since then the role of the government has increased. In 1989 the government introduced a regulation promoting childcare. This resulted in an important increase of the number of childcare services and childcare places. The number of formal childcare places has increased from 30,000 in 1990 to 172,000 in 2002, which were used by app. 300,000 children. In the Netherlands there are 3 types of childcare: the formal (paid) childcare, the informal paid childcare and the informal unpaid childcare. It has been estimated that the informal paid childcare is (in fte's) 25 % larger than both the formal childcare and the informal unpaid childcare.

Availability

In 2001, informal childcare (paid or unpaid) was the most important form of childcare: for more than two thirds of the children (0-12 years) who used childcare, informal childcare was used. Especially for the youngest group (0-1) but also the other pre-schoolers (2-3) informal childcare is very important. Children aged 4 have a right to pre-school education; 98 % of the 4-years-old participate in pre-school education (which is part of the education sector).

Costs

Costs of childcare are divided by (local) government, employers and parents. Payments vary with income and the rank of the child. Maximum recommended payment for parents for five days childcare per week is 500 euro per month where family income is 2,343 euro per month or more. Minimum recommended parental contribution is 46 euro per month for five days childcare a week, where the family income is 765 euro or less. There are special subsidies for single parents.

Austria

Organising childcare

In Austria public, private, commercial and non-profit organisations provide institutional childcare. The single federal states are responsible for public childcare, which is why the situation in administration and legislation is very heterogeneous. From a legal point of view one has to distinguish between day-care centres (crèches, kindergartens, nursery centres) and other forms of child care such as day-care-mothers, child care groups etc.

Day-care centres predominantly take care of school children. The government of Austria as well as the federal provinces and communities are responsible for the upkeep of public childcare facilities.

Day-care mothers are in most cases employed by organisations for day-care mothers or welfare organisations, some work on a freelance basis. These children are in most cases between 1 and 3 years of age. The duration and cost for this type of care differ individually. The "corporate day-care mother/father" represents a new service. This possibility is particularly interesting for smaller firms that are subject to seasonal fluctuations (e.g. tourism) and for smaller companies where the establishment of a company-owned kindergarten would be too expensive. Child groups are mainly for children aged 1-6. Pre-school education in Austria is only provided for children not mature for entering school.

Availability

There are also many regional differences in the offer of childcare facilities. In some regions there are very good provisions of childcare and in some regions there is a lack of children in the single groups; in others there is lack of childcare facilities. Also the quality and the opening hours vary very strongly.

10 % of the under 3, 73 % of the 3- under 6 and 16 % of the 6 to 15-year-old children in Austria claimed external child care in 2002.

Costs

The costs of external childcare vary strongly.

Poland

Organising childcare

The childcare system before 1989 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 the new arrangement, the childcare institutions could be public or non-public. Nurseries are 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 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. In the years 1990-1999 the number of kindergartens declined by 1/3 and the number of nurseries by 2/3. Local authorities have moved some costs of running the public childcare institutions (ca. 30-40 %) on parents.

Availability

The number of places in the public institutions has dropped in the 1990s. The decrease was particularly sharp in the case of nurseries. The number of places per 100 children up to 3 dropped from 10.4 in 1990 to 4.5 in 2001 and the percentage of children attending nurseries dropped in this period from 4.2 to 2.0 percent. Although the number of places decreased also in kindergartens, this drop was balanced by the parallel decrease in fertility. If in 1990 there were 72.8 places in the kindergartens per 100 children aged 3-6, in 2001 this number amounted to 82.3. Also the percentage of children attending kindergartens rose – from 32.8 to 38.9. In the same period the public expenditures on nurseries dropped from 0.4 to 0.04 % of GDP and on kindergartens from 0.46 to 0.4 % of GDP.

Costs

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. In 2001 the basic fee for one child in public kindergartens amounted for 38 % of the minimal wage and 19% of women's average wage, for two children – 76 % and 37 % respectively.

Romania

Organising day care

The communist regime was very friendly with women and families with children as the demand of labour market was very high. Services serving pre-school children – crèches, nurseries, kindergartens – steadily degraded after 1989, while parental costs rose continually. Nurseries were neglected as a consequence of the extension of maternity leave until the child reaches two year of old. The nurseries and crèches system was decentralised and nowadays they are Child Protection Directories responsibility at local and county level.

Availability

The childcare system in Romania doesn't offer too many possibilities to parents with under school-aged children to balance family and working responsibilities. Parents can choose to place their child in crèches and kindergartens.

The proportion of private kindergartens in total number is very low, around 1 % in 2002.

Costs

The system has a very low financial support from the state or other public funds. Parents receive costs deduction for pre-school childcare based on their monthly income.

Switzerland

Organising childcare

Child-care of small children under three years of age is highly individualised. Playing-groups, crèches etc., which are subsidised by the municipalities, are mostly income-related. Pre-school (kindergartens) starts between the ages of 3 to 5, dependent on cantonal laws. The duration varies between 1 and three years. Average weekly hours in kindergartens vary between 10 and 35 hours.

Costs

There exist marked differences in the available institutions, their costs and the institutional arrangement between cantons and municipalities.

Availability

In 1991 only 14 % of households with children below age 15 regularly used institutional childcare arrangements. The proportion increased to about 30 % in 2004

Slovenia

Organising childcare

Even during the hardest transition years, Slovenia has managed to retain most of its advantages and achievements in pre-school childcare attained in the socialist period. In the 1990s changes were gradually introduced. The first private day-care centres were already established in 1991.

Availability

The existing child-care facilities (most of them being public day-care centres) almost fully meet the demand for pre-school childcare. In the school year 2000/2001, 56.6 % of pre-school children over age one were included in organised childcare, 91.3 % of them in programmes lasting 6-9 hours per day. Grouped by age, the share of children aged 1-2 attending day-care centres' programmes was 29.1 %, while it was 70.9 % for those aged 3-6.

Costs

In the beginning of 1990s, parent fees covered, on average, 20%-25 % of current costs. In 1998, after the currently valid regulation was applied, parents paid 31.4 % of costs of full-day programs and 29.6 % of part-time programs of pre-school childcare. The eligibility to a subsidised parent fee covers all children included in a pre-school programme. However, the rules concerning parent fees (and consequently public subsidy) are valid only for childcare centres that perform public service; "pure" private providers (6 out

of 13 private child-care centres in 1999) may charge parents as they wish. If more than one child from a family attends the subsidised child-care programme, the fee for older children is decreased by one income group. Families that are receiving social assistance are exempt from paying fees altogether (i.e. enjoy a 100 % subsidy). Pre-school educational programme in a year prior to the start of schooling was free of charge for all children who started 8-year elementary schooling at the age of seven. Starting with the school year 1999/2000, pre-school preparatory classes were gradually integrated into primary education, i.e. former pre-school classes became first classes of a 9-year elementary school.

Finland

Organising childcare

There are several child care arrangements in Finland at present that help the parents with under school-aged children to reconcile family- and working life. Parents in Finland can choose to place their child in a day care centre run by the municipality or in municipal family day care. Parents are also provided with the possibility to look after their under 3-year old child while receiving child home care allowance. Since 1990 all Finnish parents have then had unconditional entitlement to day care for their children under the age of three either in a day care place provided by the municipality or by receiving child home care allowance if they care for their child at home.

Availability

In 1996, the subjective right to day care was extended to all children below school age. Pre-school education in Finland is mainly intended for 6-year olds. Since 2001, local authorities have been obliged to arrange pre-school education free of charge. In 2002 32 % of children under school age were in municipal day care place, 37 % of them in home care (parent on parental leave/child home care leave), 16 % in municipal family day care, 4 % in private day care, and 11 % in other form of care.

Costs

Municipal day care fees are income –related and the maximum fee for the first child is 200 €/month, for the second child 180 €/month, and 40 €/month for every subsequent child. Day care places offer full day care and provide meals. Finnish parents can also choose a private day care allowance for under school aged child and make their own arrangements for childcare. Private day care allowance is paid for the private carer.

Appendix 4. Policies related to unemployment, basic social security and atypical work in DIA-LOG countries, around 2000.

Country	Ue-rate	Unemployment policies	Basic social security	Part-time work Atypical work	Policies related to atypical work
Belgium (Fl)	Females 8.7 % Males 6.7 % Total 7.6 %	Unemployment benefit: 60-44 % of previous earnings, dependent on hh composition, and duration of the ue-period. Job search benefit: Varying amount, for a young person seeking for a job without previous qualifying employment history. Special program for elderly unemployed.	Minimum income varies according to hh composition. Single person 595 €/mth, couple 793 €/mth etc.	Part-time employment: Females 41.0 %, Males 5.0 %. Temporary work: 1.9 % of employed (men more than women)	Policies: to diminish long-term unemployment by making temporary contracts more attractive for employers.
Switzerland	Females 2.6 % Males 2.3 %	Unemployment benefit: 70 % of previous earnings, 80 % if dependants, or very low earnings, or disabled Duration: 150 days, increases if elderly unemployed	No	Part-time employment: Females 55.3 % Males 10.3 %	No particular policies concerning atypical work.
Czech R.	Females 9.4 % Males 6.4 %	Policies: reductions in duration and income compensation during late 1990s Unemployment benefit: 50-40 % of previous earnings, with a ceiling. Minimum 2.5*subsistence minimum Duration: 6 mths	Some social assistance, needs tested (a subsistence minimum is defined). Limited amounts.	Part-time employment Females 20-39 yrs: 7.7 %	No particular stipulation on part-time employment or atypical work.
Germany	Females 8 % Males 9 %	Policy during late 1990s: Conditions more rigid, employment encouraged Unemployment benefit: 67% net earnings (when children) (insured employees) 60% net earnings (without children) (insured employees) Duration: 12 months Unemployment assistance: 57-53 % of net earnings with a ceiling (chl/without chl.) for persons who have received ue-benefit previous year. Duration unlimited, must be applied annually. Special programs for elderly unemployed.	Social help: needs assessment, limited amounts.	Part-time employment Females 25-45 yrs: 29 % Males 25-45 yrs: 3 %	Policy during late 1990s: To simplify regulations related to atypical work. In 2001 a law regulating part-time work and temporary work, employers must accept request for part time work. Special regulations for less 15h/w jobs: no taxes or other deductions to be paid.
Estonia	Females 9.9 % Males 10.1 %	Unemployment benefit: 50-40 % of previous earnings Duration: 180-360 days depending on previous employment history Unemployment allowance: Flat rate benefits 400 EK/mth, for persons not qualified for earnings related benefit. Duration: 270 days.	Subsistence benefit, means tested basic income support. 500 EK/mth-400 EK/mth /person depending on hh composition	Part-time employment Females 20-39 yrs: 8.5 % Males 20-39 yrs: 5.4 %	No particular stipulation concerning part-time or atypical work.

Appendix 4. Policies related to unemployment, basic social security and atypical work in DIA-LOG countries, around 2000.

Country	Ue-rate	Unemployment policies	Basic social security	Part-time work Atypical work	Policies related to atypical work
Italy	Females 12.4 % Males 7.0 %	Policy during late 1990s: tackle youth unemployment. Establishment of various job placement services (labour force office, ue-offices). Unemployment benefit: 40 % of salary (construction workers 80 %), entitlement only to insurance covered employees of private enterprises. Duration: 180 days. Special program for elderly unemployed. Mobility allowance: benefit for 12 months, from a special ue-fund (?).	Experiment in 39 municipalities with minimum insertion income (personalised program and income supplement), after 2004 in the whole country.	Part-time employment: Females 16.5% Males 3.7 % Total 9.7 % Temporary contracts 9.7% (part-time 3 %)	Policy: legislation concerning atypical contracts (2003), increasing flexibility of the labour market, specific work categories (job sharing, out-sourcing, staff leasing etc.) Increase in atypical work and part-time work. Regulations concerning part-time work since 1984.
Cyprus	Females 3.6% Males 2.6% Total 3.2%	Unemployment benefit: 60% of average weekly social insurance contribution	Some social assistance needs tested. Limited amount.	Part-time employment: Females 11.3% Males 4.0%. Temporary work: 10.8% women, total 7.0%	Legislation on part-time work guarantees the same benefits (proport.) as for full-time employed.
Lithuania	Females 14.7% Males 19.9	Unemployment benefit: Amount determined on basis on the insurance record and ue-reasons. Duration: 6 months. Special program for elderly unemployed	Low income families and individual can receive some social assistance, means and needs tested	Part-time employment: 9.9, % Women 11.5%, Men 8.2%	Policies: improve labour relations and their legal base, attempts to encourage more flexible work forms. Atypical work rare.
Hungary	Females 4.7% Males 7.8%	Policy during late 1990s: Reductions in duration and benefit rates. Unemployment benefit: 65% previous earnings, ceiling 2*minimum old-age pension. Duration: max 270 days. Special program for elderly unemployed.	Regular social aid for active age non-employed. Benefit: 70% of minimum old age pension (income tested). Duration: 2 years after ue-benefit. Tied to ability/willingness to take part in public service work. Local governments give special needs tested assistance, very limited amounts.	No data	Policy: government intends to raise atypical work. Currently very rare.

Appendix 4. Policies related to unemployment, basic social security and atypical work in DIA-LOG countries, around 2000.

Country	Ue-rate	Unemployment policies	Basic social security	Part-time work Atypical work	Policies related to atypical work
Netherlands	Females 3.6% Males 2.8%	Unemployment benefit: 70 % previous earnings Duration: dependent on previous working history, from 6 mths to 5 years Basic benefit: 70 % of minimum wage. Basic benefit for persons with a shorter work history. Duration 6 mths Follow-up benefit: 70 % of minimum wage. For persons with ue-benefit qualifying employment history, paid after period of earnings-related ue-benefit. Duration 2 years. Special program for elderly unemployed.	Social assistance to ensure basic income level, means-tested. Person must actively seek for a job. 50-100 % of minimum wage depending on the hh composition. Individual assessment.	Part-time employment: Females 20-39 yrs: 62.8 % Males 20-39 yrs: 15.0 %	Policies: improvement in legislation concerning part-time work during late 1990s.
Austria	Females 3. % Males 3.7%	Policies: restrictions in duration of ue-benefit period Unemployment benefit: 55 % of previous earnings, with a ceiling. Duration: 20 weeks, dependent on employment history. Emergency benefit: Average 520 €/mth, hh income and need for benefit is assessed. Duration: 52 weeks Special programs for elderly unemployed.	Family transfer can be paid in addition to ue-benefits. 0.97e/dependent person/day. A supplementation transfer is paid for persons, who do not reach the compensation supplement level, individual assessment.	Part-time employment: Females 20-39 yrs: 30.1% Males 3.2 % Atypical work: 2.8 % of employed	Legislation encouraging firms to provide atypical employment (max 12h/week, low salary) and employees to accept it: no taxes, no additional fees.
Poland	Females 19.6 % Males 17.0 %	Policy: to increase employment rate among both young and the old. Unemployment benefit: Flat rate 476.7 PLN/mth, increases/decreases with very long/very short employment history Duration: 6 mths, duration is longer if serious ue in the area, if partner also ue. Special program for elderly unemployed.	Social assistance provided, needs and means tested. Limited amount. Granted temporary allowance for very low-income single parents, for 36 mths.	Part-time employment: Females 10.0 % Males 5.3%	No special regulations on part-time work.

Appendix 4. Policies related to unemployment, basic social security and atypical work in DIA-LOG countries, around 2000.

Country	Ue-rate	Unemployment policies	Basic social security	Part-time work Atypical work	Policies related to atypical work
Romania	Females 7.7 % Males 8.9 %	Unemployment benefit: Flat rate, 75 % minimum wage, dependent on age, and empl. history Duration: max 270 days depending on previous insurance period. Unemployment aid: 60 % of minimum wage Duration: after ue-benefit period, for max 18 mths Compensatory allowance: Net monthly wage Duration: 6 or 12 months, depending on previous employment. For persons affected by massive lay-offs, to start an enterprise of own.	Minimum guaranteed income, for very low-income families.	Part-time employment : Females 10.9 % Males 13.0 %	No data.
Slovenia	Females 7.2% Males 6.8%	Policies during late 1990s: reductions in level of compensation/duration of the ue-benefit Unemployment benefit: 70 % (3 mths), 60 % (4+) of previous earnings Duration: 12 mths Unemployment assistance: 80 % of minimum wage, income and family assets tested Duration: 15 months, after the period of ue-benefit	Minimum basic income, during 1990s to cover only costs of low nutrition. In 2001, the amount of minimum basic income was raised.	Part-time employment : Females 6.0% Males 2.7%. Temporary jobs 12% of employment Males 13%, and Females 15 %.	Atypical work contracts are increasing constantly during late 1990s.
Finland	Females 8.0 % Males 8.4 %	Polices: to tackle still very large unemployment, esp. ue of the young. Ue-security system was tightened. Unemployment benefit: Duration: 500 days Basic unemployment benefit: for persons not eligible to earnings related benefit, or persons after the period of earnings related benefit. Labour market subsidy: Special ue-scheme for young unemployed. Special program for elderly unemployed.	Basic income benefit. Universal means-tested benefit paid to persons not receiving ue-benefit, or study grant.	Part-time employment : Females 17.2 %, Males 7.8 %. Temporary contracts: 16 % among both employed men and women	Policies: flexibility of labour market increased (temporary contracts increased, out-sourcing, staff-hiring etc.) Part-time and temporary work regulations further developed in order to secure those working part time/ in temporary jobs.

Appendix 5. Gender policies in DIALOG countries.

Gender and work

Belgium (Flanders)

Gender pay gap: 89 %

Employment rate: (20-64) F 63.0 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39) M 3.8%, F 31.1 %

Legislation

A law of 1999 predicts the equal treatment of men and women regarding labour conditions. This law is as well the legal base for equal payment of men and women. Next to this law, the anti-discrimination law of 2002 determines that each form of direct or indirect discrimination is forbidden in cases related to the delivery of goods and services, labour market relations, and each form of normal performance of an economic, social, cultural or political activity.

Measures to promote women's labour force participation

Family policy schemes, especially the system of time-credit and day care arrangements can be seen as a means to promote women's labour force participation.

The Czech Republic

Gender pay gap: 73 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 80.5 % F 62.2 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39): M 0.9%, F 7.7 %

Legislation

The preparation for the Czech Republic's entry to the EU has increased interest in equal opportunities for men and women.

Employer is obliged to allow shorter or otherwise amended working hours to a pregnant woman or a woman looking after a child up to fifteen years of age if she so requires.

Other

It is currently not very attractive for women to be employed under circumstances that would allow them to manage their family and professional roles together, i.e. part-time work or other than the traditional fixed-term or open-ended contracts. Part time work is usually financially unfavourable.

Germany

Gender pay gap: 79 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 76% F 62 %

Part-time employment rate: (25-45): M 3 % F 29 %

Legislation

In 1994 after the Unification article 3 was amended by introducing positive action as a binding task for the state to establish equality, i.e. the text of the article reads now “the state ensures the implementation of equality for women and men and takes action to abolish existing discrimination”. Nevertheless gender policy is only partly policy of the state, a lot of laws and programs are at the responsibility of the Länder (Federal States). The principle equal pay for equal work is included in the German legislation, in accordance with the government now tries to install the programme of equal pay for equivalent work.

Measures to promote women’s labour force participation

The regulations concerning parental leave, especially the possibilities to work part-time, are designed to encourage women to re-enter the labour market. The programmes concerning the expansion of childcare facilities do have the same purpose. The Federal Institute for employment offers courses especially for women re-entering the labour market.

Estonia

Gender pay gap: 76 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 74.5% F 65.3 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39) M 5.4%, F 8.5 %

Legislation

The law on gender equality was passed by the parliament in 2004.

Other

Estonia has featured high levels of female labour force participation throughout the 20th century. In the 1990s, females experienced relatively greater decrease in labour force participation compared to males.

Italy

Gender pay gap: 85 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 73.0% F 43.8 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39): M 5.4 % F 16.0 %; The percentage of women part-timers substantially increased in the ‘90s while the growth among men workers was lower.

Legislation

In the 10 years period 1990-2000, three new laws relevant to gender equality and equal opportunities were introduced. In 1991 a new law on positive action was introduced set to reinforce the provisions on equal treatment and introducing new promotional measures. In 1992 a law supporting and promoting female entrepreneurship was implemented and in 2000 a new law to support maternity and paternity and to reconcile work and family was introduced. The latter is quite innovative; it enlarges the parent’s eligibility to use parental leave in order to care for their children. The law also reinforces the rights for fathers to look after their children, and last but not least supporting actions aimed at experimenting new forms of flexibility at work and the diffusion of best practices were introduced. Article 37 of the Constitution provides for gender equality at work specifying that working women are entitled to equal rights and, for comparable jobs, to have the same salary as men. Basic principles related to work/family reconciliation are

set in the Italian Constitution, which states that “Working conditions have to be such as to allow women to fulfil their essential family duties and ensure an adequate protection of mothers and children.”

Other

Though in Italy the legal framework is well advanced, strong resistance is encountered in applying these principles. Women face difficulties in having recognised their skills and merit in working life as well as in finding a fair division of tasks with men in childrearing and housework.

Cyprus

Gender pay gap: 74 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 86.8 %, F 62.2 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39) M 3.6 %, F 6.6 %

Measures to promote women’s labour force participation

In Cyprus, women have traditionally been - and still are - the main care providers in the family. New family structures, the weakening of family ties and the increasing participation of women in the labour market, however, have created a need for new types of formal care. Measures on reconciliation of work and family life are already incorporated in legislation and programs of the Social Welfare Services. Emphasis is laid on women who are still the main carers of dependent family members. In order to encourage women’s participation in the workforce, the Social Welfare Services promote the development of a wide range of family services by the non-governmental sector, which may deliver services more efficiently and effectively on a local level. Currently, the National Development Plan 1999-2003 postulates as major objectives the need for further increase of female participation levels, a more balanced representation of women and men in all sectors and occupations, and further narrowing of the gap between men’s and women’s earnings

Other

Government’s policy on gender equality gives special emphasis to raising women’s employment rate both in view of labour shortages and as part of a longstanding policy for full utilisation of human capital given that Cyprus is a small economy with limited natural resources. The last two decades have witnessed a significant improvement of the role and status of women in the labour market. During the period 1992-2002, the female employment rate increased by almost 10 percentage points, reaching a level of 59 % in 2002 from 49.4 % in 1992.

Lithuania

Gender pay gap: 84 %

Employment rate: (15-64) M 58.5 % F 55.9 %

Legislation

The main document adopted in the aspect of gender equality is the Law on Equal Opportunities, passed on 1 December 1998 and enforced on 1 March 1999. The Law obligates all bodies of state power and administration to draw up and implement the programmes aimed at ensuring equal opportunities for women and men to cover all spheres of activity; the institutions of education and science are tasked with

guaranteeing equal rights for women and men, and the employers are also obligated to ensure equal treatment of women and men at work.

Measures to promote women's labour force participation

-The Programme for the Advancement of Women of Lithuania, approved by the Government in 1996, established long-term objectives of gender equality in nine critical areas.

-The gender aspect has been successfully integrated into the Programme of Increasing Employment of the Republic of Lithuania for 2001–2004 approved by the Government in 2001. It also provides for measures facilitating work and family reconciliation.

Other

Female unemployment rate has been lower than male for several years now, but the difference is not large and in recent years the gap between male and female unemployment has been gradually closing. Part-time employment is not very common in Lithuania and compared to Western European countries, part-time employment rate is actually very low. Part-time work, flexible working hours and other flexible working forms are still underdeveloped.

Hungary

Gender pay gap: 80 %

Employment rate: (20-64): M 63.1 % F 51.4 %

Measures to promote women's labour force participation

Family policy schemes, especially those concerning family leave and day care arrangements can be seen as a means to promote women's labour force participation.

The Netherlands

Gender pay gap: 81 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 84.0 % F 65.6 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39): M 15.0 % F 62.8 %

Legislation

According to the cabinet: Although "... formal equal rights for men and women have now nearly been realised, [...] equal opportunities are not yet taken for granted in practice". Institutional and social-cultural barriers have to be removed. In 2000 the cabinet presented the Medium Term Policy Plan. The objectives proposed in the plan cover a period of ten years. The main objective is "realising a sustainable situation in which as many people as possible can combine economic independence with responsibility for care in the course of their lives. In order to achieve this, further progress must be made in the following fields:

-Promotion of labour market participation and the economic independence of women (= earning an income from labour of at least 70% of the net minimum wage).

-Promoting the share of men in responsibility for care.

-Improving the possibilities to combine work and care throughout the life cycle of men and women."

Measures to promote women's labour force participation

Examples:

- 2002 the Mixed Project was launched. The Mixed project focuses on companies and organisations, and on their female employees, their managers and their human resources personnel.
- Family policy schemes, especially those concerning family leave and day care arrangements can be seen as a mean to promote women's labour force participation
- Legislation regarding working hours can be considered to be an instrument to promote the labour force participation of women.

Austria

Gender pay gap: 80 %

Employment rate: (20-64): M 78.5 %, F 59.0 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39): M 3.2 %, F 30.1 %

Legislation

- Austrian federal act on equal treatment (1993) arranges the equal treatment of men and women in the area of civil service. It contains an obligation for the employer to increase the women quota in all areas of the civil service. As an objective target women's share in all employees should be at least 40 %.
- The act on equal treatment for the private sector (1979) prescribes the equal pay for both sexes. Until now the real situation underachieves the act, because there are still only few women working in top positions and in typical male trades. This is one of the reasons why women in Austria actually draw an average income which is only 2/3 of the average male income

Measures to promote women's labour force participation

Since 1998 in all federal states of Austria contentions for women and family friendly enterprises are carried out every year.

Poland

Gender pay gap: 82 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 65.4 % F 52.2 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39) M 5.3 % F 10.0 %

Legislation

Problems concerning gender equality and gender roles were not highly prioritised by the Polish government. In general, the legal system in Poland provides equal treatment for women and men as citizens (the Constitution), parents (the Family Code), in access to work, professional training, and working conditions (the Constitution, the Labour Code, the Act on Employment and Counteraction against Unemployment). The main issue was to strengthen existing law regulations by additional rules to make them more efficient in counteracting discrimination and to extend equal treatment in other domains. Since the mid-1990s some amendments have slowly been introduced. It seems that the EU pressure to implement anti-discrimination law affected not only revisions of law in 2001 and later. In November 2001 the Government Office

of the Plenipotentiary for the Equal Status of Women and Men has been established. Its responsibilities include, among other, implementation of new regulations concerning equal rights of man and woman and monitoring the state activities in this field.

Other

The transition from the job-rights to the job-search economy has dramatically changed conditions of the labour market participation and revealed gender inequalities. While both men and women suffered losses due to rising unemployment, women experience more difficulties in terms of unemployment risk (incidence, duration, recurrent unemployment). There are disadvantages in pay and promotion – gender pay gap is about 20 %, and “glass ceiling” is showed in studies on that subject. And employed and unemployed women are, on average, better educated than men.

Rising labour market competition has been accompanied by unfortunate changes in the institutional environment, which make more difficult for women to be flexible and mobile. Under the reduced state support to the family (both in terms of income and provision of services), underdeveloped flexible work patterns and discriminatory practices it has become more difficult to combine paid work with family duties. That high structural conflict coexists with a high cultural conflict. Despite the social acceptance for the dual breadwinner model that with double burden of females still prevails and the women’s role is perceived as that of wife and mother by a considerable part of the population.

The gender inequalities and their determinants have been increasingly recognised in the public debate due to research and activities of non-governmental organisations. It seems that labour market discrimination against women contributed to the gradually growing knowledge on the gender issue. Also the pension reform of 1999 raises a question about gender differences in work careers, wages and age at retirement and their effects for future old-age pensions.

Romania

Gender pay gap: 82.3 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 70.9 % F 57.1 %

Part-time employment rate: (no age-groups specified) M 13.0 % F 10.9 %

Legislation

Promotion of gender equality, equal opportunities and treatment did not constitute a priority for any of the governments of the last decade, although the necessary conditions for improving the legislation have been created through the ratification of the Revised European Social Charter and the adoption of the National Action Plan for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in 2000.

The aim of the Act on Equal Opportunities Between Women and Men (2002) is to prevent discrimination on the basis of sex and to promote equality between women and men. This Act is the only legal text that explicitly provides for the principle of equal pay for work of equal value.

Other

Nowadays, many women have to work as a result of low family or personal incomes (the necessity of a second income). The Labour Code provides for the principle of equality between men women with regard to access to the workplace, promotion and vocational training, as well as in terms of social protection.

The right to parental leave is not part of a complex program measures explicitly intended to reconcile professional and family life and there are no measures to guarantee the professional reintegration of employed parents who interrupt their activities to raise young children, although there is legally provided. Working mothers are encouraged by the maternity and child protection policy to raise their children at home and not to count on the private or public childcare services.

Switzerland

Gender pay gap: 93.0 % (differences in hourly wages)

Employment rate: (15-64) M 86.2 % F 71.6 %

Part-time employment rate: (no age-groups specified): M 10.3 % F 55.3 %

Legislation

The Federal Constitution of the Swiss Confederation contains provisions dealing with gender equality in the workplace. Article 2(3) underlines that the Swiss Confederation seeks to ensure the greatest possible equality of opportunities between female and male citizens. The Constitution also provides that no one may be discriminated against, inter alia, because of gender (article 8(2)). Furthermore, the main provision concerning equal employment opportunity is article 8(3), which provides that men and women have equal rights. The law is solicitous for their legal and actual equal standing, especially in the family, their upbringing and work. Men and women have a claim to equal pay for work of equal value.

Slovenia

Gender pay gap: 88 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 72.8 % F 64.1 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39) M 2.7 % F 6.0 %

Legislation

Women in Slovenia formally have equal rights and opportunities in the labour market as men. Slovenian legislation incorporates all principles of international conventions on women's rights. Slovenia has been a country with a high female activity rate, and particularly high female employment rate, for more than fifty years. The majority of women are employed full-time. It also applies to women with small children; typically, after the maternity and parental leave, women return to their full-time jobs, which surely is related with the length of this leave.

Other

The issue of gender equality is gaining in importance. The stress is on: a) alleviation of horizontal gender segregation in both management and politics, and b) a more equal division of household duties and tasks related to children. Namely, due to the characteristics of the former socialist political system, active female role in the labour market and equal opportunities in education have been a common sense.

Finland

Gender pay gap: 82 %

Employment rate: (20-64) M 74.4 % F 70.4 %

Part-time employment rate: (20-39) M 7.2 % F 18.8 %

Legislation

The aim of the Equality Act is to prevent discrimination on the basis of sex and to promote equality between women and men, and, for this purpose, to improve the status of women, particularly in working life. This Act demands, for example, an even distribution of male and female members in state and municipal bodies. Promotion of reconciliation of work and family life is included to it.

Measures to promote women's labour force participation

Family policy schemes, especially those concerning family leave and day care arrangements can be seen as means to promote women's labour force participation.

Appendix 6. Pension systems in DIALOG countries.

Pension systems

Belgium (Flanders)

A pay-as-you-go-system. Pensions are earnings related. Coverage: Employed persons, there is a special system for self-employed persons and public employees.

The legal retirement age: Age 65 with 45 years of coverage for both men and women, to be phased in by 2009 (pension reform 1997). In the interim, the retirement age for women is age of 62 years (2002), rising to age of 65 (2009).

Full pension: Coverage for women: 42 years in 2002, rising to 45 years in 2009, men 45 years of coverage. The full pension is 60 % of average lifetime earnings (75 % for a married couple) up to a maximum of 38,678.50 € a year.

Early retirement: Age 60 (men and women) with 30 years of covered employment.

Minimum pension: (valid 01/06/2003): 832 € a month for a single person insured during the full qualifying period; 1,040 € a month for a married couple. For workers with at least 2/3 of insurance required for the full pension, the minimum pension is proportionately reduced.

Maximum pension: (valid 01/06/2003): 1,420 € a month for a single person insured during the full qualifying period; 1,775 € a month for a married couple

The Czech Republic

A, Compulsory pension insurance (“first pillar”): for citizens of the Czech Republic older than 18 who fulfil criteria of health insurance; employees, persons gainfully employed and persons voluntarily participating in insurance. Persons without any participation in employment are covered from social funds.

B, Supplementary pension insurance (“third pillar”): conceived as individual savings and is based on capital financing with the possibility of support from the state (a contribution) and the employer (contribution to the employee’s supplementary insurance usually determined in collective agreements). On average the paid contributions are so far considered to be very low.

This system currently provides pensions at the amount of 44 % of average gross income, resp. 57 % of average net income

Legal retirement age (standard pension): The age limit for pension eligibility gradually increases: at 2002 the limit was 55 to 61 years for women (according to the number of children) and 61 for men. In 2004 the limits are 57- 61 for women and 62 for men. At least 25 years of insurance or the age of 65 years and at least 15 years of insurance is required.

Basic pension: flat rate 1,310CZK (42 €) per month.

Full pension: 1.5 % per year of contribution, min 25 years.

Up to 7,100 CZK (229 €) 100 %; 7,100-16,800 CZK (229-539 €) 30 %; over 16,800 CZK (538€-) 10 %.

Early retirement: In 2002 the conditions were: in the case of temporarily reduced pension legal retirement age minus 2 years, or minus 5 years in the case of full disability. (Temporarily reduced pension ceased to exist in 2003, from 2006 abolished). In the case of permanently reduced pension at least 25 years of insurance; no more than 3 years left to reach retirement age.

Minimum pension: 4,100 CZK (2002) (»132 €)

Maximum pension: No.

Germany

Determining factor: amount of employment income insured through contributions during the entire insured life. Coverage: Employed persons (including apprentices), certain self-employed persons, persons caring for a child under age 3, recipients of social benefits (such as unemployment benefits), conscripts or persons doing community service instead of military service, and voluntary care workers. Special systems for certain self-employed persons, miners, public employees (supplementary insurance), and farmers. Voluntary affiliation for all others aged 16 or older who are currently exempt from compulsory insurance, including German citizens residing abroad and resident foreigners.

Legal retirement age: Age 65 with 5 years of contributions.

Calculation: Personal Earnings Points (Individual annual earnings divided by the average earnings of all contributors) x pension type factor x Current pension value.

Early retirement is possible from age 63 with 35 years of coverage; from age 60 with 15 years of contributions and unemployed 1 year after age 58 and 6 months or in part-time work for older employees for at least 24 months before age 60; from age 60 for women if they have 10 years of compulsory contributions after age 40; from age 60 for severely disabled individuals with a minimum of 35 years of coverage. Some of the age limits for early pensions are recently increased. (Even after the increase of the age limits of the pensions can be claimed after the completion of the age of 60 or 63 respectively with the acceptance of pensions reductions.)

Partial retirement is available for pensioners under age 65 with partial cessation of employment; if earnings are less than 325 a month, full pension is paid; if earnings are above that amount, partial pension is paid at 2/3, 1/2, or 1/3 depending on the individual's earnings level.

Minimum & maximum pension: No.

Estonia

Three pillars:

- 1) State pension scheme; covers all resident population, including also those with no employment record.
- 2) Compulsory (for cohorts currently entering the working age) insurance pension scheme.
- 3) Voluntary insurance pension scheme.

Legal retirement age (standard pension): 63 years for both sexes, 15 years of pensionable service required.

Basic pension: EEL 410 (26 €) per month.

Full pension: In 2003, the average monthly pension was about 37,3 % of the average monthly net wage.

Early retirement: three years less standard retirement age

Minimum pension: National old age pensions for persons who lack the required insurance period the pension is paid at minimum flat rate of 931 kroons (>60 €).

Maximum pension: None

Italy

Legal retirement age: men: 65 years; women: 60 years. For those with a disability of at least 80% and for the blind: men: 60 years; women: 55 years. Coverage: employed persons (including domestic employees).

The old-age pension is divided into three categories of entitlement:

Category 1: New entrants to the labour force as of 1996. Age 57 with 5 years of contributions. Retirement is necessary. The pension benefit must not be less than the social allowance plus 20 %. There is no entitlement to a pension below this level, unless the insured is aged 65 or older or has 40 years of contributions.

Category 2: Insured persons with less than 18 years of contributions as of December 31, 1995. As of January 1, 2001, age 65 (men) and age 60 (women) with 20 years of contributions in 2001. Retirement is necessary.

Category 3: Insured persons with more than 18 years of contributions as of December 31, 1995. Same conditions as Category 2 except that 15 years of contributions are necessary prior to 1992.

Determining factor of pension: Reference earnings and length of insurance.

$2 \% \times n \times S$ (up to 36,093 €); $0.9 \% \times n \times S$ (earnings over 68,577 €), n =number of years of insurance (max 40), S =reference earnings (average of salaries in the last 5 years); Ceiling: 36,093 €.

Early retirement pension: at the age of 57 with 35 years of contributions or with 40 years of contributions regardless of age. Pensions awarded to employees of companies in economic difficulties: early retirement is possible at the latest 5 years before normal retiring age. Special conditions for employees with an early start of working life (minimum 52 contribution weeks in the age of 14 - 19 years), for employees exposed to arduous work, for “mobile” workers (whose job normally involves working in different unpredictable places) and for manual workers and assimilated persons.

Minimum pension: Annual amount 5,104.97 € (>425 €/month). The old-age pension is brought up to the amount of the minimum pension if the annual taxable income of the pensioner is less than 2 times the minimum pension. If the person is married, the old age pension is brought up to the minimum amount if the annual taxable income is less than 20,419.88 €, 4 times the minimum pension.

Maximum pension: None.

Cyprus

The pension system consists of a basic part and a supplementary earnings-related part.

The insured person should work at least three years before the retirement age and should pay to the Social Insurance at least the minimum amount. Coverage: all persons gainfully employed in Cyprus.

Basic pension: 60 % of the average lower part of insurable earnings, increased by 1/3, 1/6 and 1/6 for the first, second or third dependant respectively. In the case of a married female beneficiary, the increase for her dependent children in any event is equal to 1/6th of the basic pension for each child (maximum of two dependent children).

Full pension: 1.5 % of the total amount of paid and credited insurable earnings over claimants whole career.

Supplementary Pension: 1.5 % of the total amount of paid and credited insurable earnings in the upper part of insurable earnings over claimant's whole career, which is converted into a weekly amount by dividing by 52.

The legal retirement age: The aim of this scheme is to provide pensions to persons who complete the age of 65 (it was recently reduced from 68).

Early retirement: People who complete the age of 63 are allowed to receive pension if the insurance period is equal to at least 70 percent of the total (completed) insurance period.

Minimum pension: CP 149. 89 (»260 €)

Maximum pension: CP 620. 44 (»1,070 €)

Lithuania

In 1990-1991 a reform of the social security system was started in Lithuania (a separate budget of state social insurance was set up based on the pay-as-you-go principle), however the actual pension reform was only started in 1995 (through the increased retirement age). Regardless of the fact that the Law on Pension Funds was already passed in 1999, in year 2001 the pension system of Lithuania was composed of **a single level:** elderly people were only awarded an old-age state social insurance pension - a basic pension (Government-approved uniform amount for all recipients) and **supplementary pension** (depending on former wages and the insurance period).

At present, a several level pension system is in place in Lithuania:

- Pensions funded from current contributions and/or taxes (State Social Insurance pension);
- Pensions of voluntary accumulation (with life insurance companies or pension funds).

Programme types:

1) National old age pension (State Social Insurance old age pension); 2) Social assistance pension (means tested); 3) State special pensions (granted for the merits). The number of persons reaching the retirement age who, due to a non-participation in social insurance scheme, have been denied a right to the old age pension, has been growing (4,346 persons in 2002).

The legal retirement age:

for men 61 years 6 months, for women 57 years 6 months. The new pensionable ages: 62.5 years for men, (reached in 2003) and 60 years for women (will be reached in 2006).

Full pension: The coverage in 2001 was for women 27 years, and for men 30 years.

Early pension: The law of early retirement came into force only in 2004. The minimum years of coverage for old age pension: 15 years.

Minimum pension: 138 Lt (40 €). The basic pension makes 18,3 % of an average salary.

Maximum pension: In 2001, 1.6 % of the old age pensioners were paid 600 Lt (174 €) and over.

Hungary

Social insurance and private insurance systems: (Persons who became insured before June 30, 1998, or who became insured after this date but before reaching the age of 42, can choose between the social insurance system or the mixed system of social insurance and private insurance.)

The legal retirement age: From the mid-1990s official retirement age (55 for women, 60 for men that far) has been gradually raised in the next ten years to a unified 62 years for both men and women.

Full pension: Old-age pension (**social insurance**): Equal to 43 % of pensionable net earnings since January 1, 1988, with 15 years of coverage. The value of the pension is raised by 2% for each additional year up to 63 % for 25 years; thereafter by 1 % each year up to 74% for 36 years and by 1.5 % for each further year of service over 36 years.

Old-age pension (**private insurance**): Insured's contributions plus accrued interest. At retirement, the insured purchases an annuity; a lump-sum payment is available for 15 years of contributions.

Early pension: The employee might sign an agreement with the employer, that he or she would like to become a pensioner five years earlier than it was the official retirement age, if he or she has got enough working years.

Minimum pension: 16,600 HUF in PPA year, 2000 (»67 €).

Maximum pension: No.

The Netherlands

(1) The basic state old age pension (AOW): Anyone aged between 15 and 64 who is resident or working in the Netherlands builds up entitlements to AOW that is financed by a pay-as-you-go system. Determining factor: length of insured periods, family status.

(2) Employment-related supplementary pensions: The representatives of employers and employees have made collective pension arrangements for almost all workers. Determining factor: period of contribution in the pension build-up, percentage of yearly pension build-up, pensionable salary (last earned annual salary or mean salary deducted by an AOW-franchise).

(3) Supplementary personal pensions: (including those for civil servants and teachers) are funded systems.

The legal retirement age: 65

Basic pension: In case of having full entitlement to the state old age pension, a single person received 869.24 euro gross per month. Both partners in a couple are independently entitled to a pension of 589.07 euro gross per month. In addition, a 'holiday allowance' amounting to 62.08 euro gross per month for couples (each partner 31.04 euro), 43.45 euro for single persons and 55.87 euro for one-parent family is paid

Full pension: The principle is that everyone should have the opportunity to build up an adequate pension. This means that in 40 years' time people must be able to build up a pension provision of 70 percent of their final salary – including the basic old age pension and the supplementary pension in the second pillar. The government does try to ensure that all citizens are able to build up adequate supplementary pensions and that their entitlements are safeguarded. Furthermore, the government offers tax relief on supplementary pension provision (in both the second and third pillars).

Minimum benefit: The basic old age pension: The entitlement to AOW does not depend on premiums paid during the working life and is not means-tested in relation to income or assets. The net amount of the AOW is linked to the net statutory minimum wage.

Maximum benefit: None.

Austria

The public pension (**the “first pillar”**) is by far the most important part of the Austrian pension system, but there are attempts to give more importance to funded systems. The system is based on a pay-as-you-go-system.

The second pillar of the system (a reform in 2002): all employees have a possibility of an additional pension provision within the company. The employer pays 1.53 % of the employee's gross-income to some certified pension fund. Each employee has the possibility to get his capital investments paid back by instalment when retiring.

The third pillar: life insurances and pension funding systems voluntarily contracted by the individuals. Contributions are deductible from income tax.

Legal retirement age: (“normal“ retirement): men: 65 years, women: 60 years.

Full pension: The calculation period has been “the best 15 years” from which a fixed share (80 %) will be received later on. The calculation period has been risen to 40 years in 2004.

Early retirement: Under certain conditions possible. Women have to be at least 56.5 years, for men the minimum age is 61.5 years.

Different possibilities of early retirement:

- 35 years compulsory insurance or 37.5 years of insurance (abolished in 2004, no longer possible from 2014 onwards.)
- “A gliding retirement”: a reduced working time. Abolished in 2004.
- Because of unemployment. (Abolished in 2004, no longer possible from 2009 onwards.)
- Because of health reasons

Minimum pension: 613.14 €, 874.76 € for couples

Maximum pension: 80 % of the maximum assessment amount. In 2004 it was 2,410,58 €/month

Poland

The pension system reformed of 1999 resulted in two parallel schemes for employees and self-employed – **the old PAYGO scheme** for those born before 1 January 1949 and **the two-pillar defined contribution system** (both of them is entirely based on individual accounts as opposite to the old system). Persons born after 31 December 1968 join automatically the new system, those born between 31 December 1948 and 1 January 1969 could choose between the two-pillar system and the transition version with only one individual account

Legal retirement age: 65 for men, 60 for women,

Calculation:

The old age benefit in the old system: according to the formula: 24 % of the average national salary plus 1.3 % of the worker's earnings base times the number of contribution years plus 0.7 % of the worker's earnings base times the number of credit years. The earnings base for pension purposes equates to the average monthly earnings from 10 consecutive years chosen by the applicant from among 20 years prior to the year of pension application. Credit years may not exceed 1/3 of contribution years. The retirement age is 65 (men) or 60 (women) and insured for 25 years (men) or 20 years (women). Determining factors: average national salary, length of time insured, earnings level

The old age benefit formula in the new system: the actualised sum of contributions paid to the system divided by the life expectancy at retirement. Retirement age 65 (men) or 60 (women). Persons employed in special conditions will be granted the right to early retirement under a special law. Determining factors: total contributions, the life expectancy of retirement

Early pension is only possible for people in certain occupations.

Minimum pension: 530.26 PLN (»126 €) net a month (as of June 2001)

Maximum pension: 250 % of the average national salary (in 2001 it was 2,061.85 PLN »490 €).

Romania

Public pension system: **earnings-related pensions**. Determining factor: Length of time insured and level of earned income

Legal age at retirement: \geq 60-years-old for women and 65 for men. The standard age is going to be reached in 13 years since the law was passed. Currently the age is 57 for women and 62 for men.

Calculation: by multiplying the average insured monthly salary divided by the monthly national average wage by the point value of pension at the date of retirement. Average earnings over any 5 consecutive years in the last 10 years of economic activity. The minimum contribution period is 15 year both for men and women, but it will be reached in 13 years, currently been 10 years. The full contribution period is 30 years for women and 35 for men, but it will be reached in 13 years, currently been 25 years for women and 30 for men.

Early retirement: The most 5 years before legal retirement age and for a contribution period of 40 years for women and 45 years for men. The pension is reduced.

Neither minimum nor maximum pension.

Switzerland

The pension system of Switzerland consists of three pillars: **the old age and survivor pensions, disability pensions and the occupational pension system**. All persons domiciled in Switzerland or those who are gainfully employed there are benefited. Swiss citizens and citizens of EU countries who live in a country may join voluntarily if they have been insured for at least 5 years without interruption.

Legal retirement age: 65 (men) and 63 (women). The age requirement for women will be 64 in 2005.

Calculation: A full pension requires that contributions be made in all years from age 21. A partial pension is payable for shorter insurance periods; however, at least 1 year's contribution is required in order to make a claim for any pension. Persons who are unemployed as of July 1997 are insured for disability and survivors' benefits. The self-employed may insure on a voluntary basis. The base pension in the old age pension scheme: If average annual income is less than or equal to 37,080 francs, flat amount of 9,146 francs a year plus a variable amount calculated by multiplying annual income by 13/600; if average annual income is above 37,080 francs, flat amount of 12,854 francs a year plus a variable amount calculated by multiplying average annual income by 8/600. **Mandatory occupational pension** is payable at age 65 (men) or age 63 (women). It covers employees whose earnings exceed 24,720 francs annually (maximum old-age base pension for single person): Annual payment of 7.2 % of accumulated funds in personal account, with interest.

Minimum and maximum old-age base pensions are 1,030 francs (»681 €) and 2,060 francs (»1,363 €) a month, respectively. Combined individual pensions of a couple cannot exceed 150 % of maximum old-age base pension of 3,090 francs a month. Partial pension: Percentage of full pension according to relationship between the insured's years of contributions and those of their age group. Dependent supplement: Each child under age 18 (25 if student), 40 % of pension.

Slovenia

A three-pillar system where the dominant role is still played by the first, public pillar, which covers the risks of old, age, disability and survivors. All employees and self-employed persons are part of the system. Other persons, who do not have an active status in the labour market, can join the system voluntarily. Determining factors: previous earnings, length of insurance or pension qualifying period, gender of the recipient, age at retirement before or after full retirement age.

The second pillar was first introduced in 1992. However, in 2000 there were only 739 individual contracts. One could say that the second pillar was reintroduced in 2000 when collective and individual voluntary supplementary pension schemes were introduced by the new pension act, accompanied by a very favourable tax treatment.

The third pension pillar consists of voluntary individual savings for old age, mostly in the form of life insurance administered by insurance companies.

The 1999 act also introduced the national pension, which is in fact a form of income-tested benefit. It is granted to a person who is not receiving any pension and has income below the minimum income level. Disability pensions are disbursements for disabled insured persons who have completely withdrawn from labour force.

Legal retirement age:

63 for men and 61 for women (phased in until 2008 for men and until 2017 for women); in 2000 they were 58 and 53 years, respectively. Since 2000: “Maluses” or penalties for retirement prior to full pensionable age. Bonuses for late retirement, i.e. retirement after full pensionable age

Calculation: 35-38 % of the Pension Rating Basis for 15 insurance years + 1.5 % increase for each additional year of qualifying period, no upper maximum %. (For 40 years of qualifying period: 72,5 %; gradual lowering from 85 % for 40 years for men and 35 years for women; 0.5 % from 2001 onwards).

Early retirement:

No special provisions, but certain categories of workers can obtain a pension without deductions for retirement before full pensionable age.

Minimum pension: 35 % of the minimum pension base. Minimum pension base is set nominally, but effectively at approx. 64 % of national net wage. Minimum pension amounts to some 120 euro.

Maximum pension: Maximum pension base is 4 times the minimum pension base (=480 €)

Finland

1) Universal (national) pensions (income-tested): All Finnish citizens residing in Finland after age 16 for at least 3 years as well as citizens of other countries residing in Finland for 5 years or more are entitled to national pension. National pension is intended to secure the basic livelihood of pensioners whose other pension income is small or non-existent. National Pension Insurance includes, in addition to the national old age, disability and unemployment pensions, the pensioners’ housing and care allowances and the regular and additional front-veterans’ supplements.

2) Employment pensions: All regular employees aged 14 or older. No lower limit of earnings or duration.

Legal retirement age: Aged 65 or older

Early old-age pension: Aged 60 to 64. The pension is permanently reduced by 0.5 % per month the pension is taken early.

Full pension: The target is 60 % of pensionable salary after 40 years. The accrual rate is 1.5 % of reference earnings per year, increased to 2.5 % after the age of 60. Pensionable salary is based on the earnings of the last 10 years. No ceiling for reference earnings. The amount of pension is increased by 1 % per month beyond the age of 65.

Minimum pension: Full amount between 411.75 € and 487.60 € per month according to marital status and municipality.

Maximum pension: No.

