



Work and Care: Key Findings and Policy Recommendations from European Research on Reconciling Work and Care for Parents with Dependent Children

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Work and Care: Policy Recommendations from European Research on Reconciling Work and Care for Parents with Dependent Children

1. Context

1.1 Introduction and Background

In this paper we review the main conclusions and policy recommendations from research carried out in the first decade of the 21st Century into how parents with dependent children reconcile work and paid employment. In doing so we are drawing on the recommendations made by the leading European expert researchers on this policy issue. The review enables us to provide evidenced informed public policy recommendation to the UK Government to improve the lives of parents with young children and enable the realisation of key policy objectives. One key finding from the research is that government policies can shape the ways in which parents combine work and care.

Policies to enable parents with young children to reconcile work and care are high on the political agenda in the UK but there is a long way to go before the state recognises that supporting families is a public issue and there is an urgent need to move to a positive model of care. Long gone are the days when mothers withdrew from the labour market on the birth of their first child and devoted themselves to child care and domestic work while fathers worked to support their families (the Male Breadwinner Model). The majority of women with children, including those with pre-school children are in paid employment. According to a recent study by the UK Department for Work and Pensions around three-quarters of all mothers return to work within 18 months of giving birth. However, the UK is very far from having an ‘individualised worker model’¹, women generally work shorter hours than men, are more likely to work part-time and on average earn less. Even in dual full-time earner families’ women still do the bulk of childcare and domestic labour and women have to juggle paid work with a second shift of care and domestic work. Policies have been more to do with encouraging mothers to work than promoting the welfare of families or promoting equal opportunities for women.

In line with EU policies the UK Government is concerned to encourage women to be active in the labour market and to promote the individualised worker model. Concerns about an ageing population and competitiveness in the world markets drive governments to encourage women into the labour market. Employers are at the same time concerned about attracting and retaining skilled employees including women. The majority of women wish to have paid employment and many want to combine a career with having a family, something that men have always been able to do. Furthermore, dual-earner families are increasingly seen as the norm in the UK as elsewhere in Europe. However, parents also say they would

¹ A model where men and women, mothers and fathers both, have a lifelong commitment to the labour market and social security benefits are earned as individual entitlements. Women’s continuing disadvantage on the labour market combined with part-time work means that they have a reduced entitlement to benefits including unemployment benefit and retirement pensions.

like to spend time with their families and to have a satisfying life. Generally parents are less stratified with the time they have for family than with the hours they work in paid employment.

Figure 1: Workcare Regimes

| Work-care Regime | Spending on Childcare | Key Feature ¹ |
|--------------------------------|--|--|
| Extensive Family Policy | Sweden (3.1%) ² , Denmark (3.9%), Belgium (2%), France (2.5%) | High level state childcare 0-3 years, with generous payment of parental leave. High proportion of mothers work long part-time. |
| Short leave, Part-time | UK (1.7%), Netherlands (1.2%) | Relatively short period of poorly paid parental leave, low provision of public childcare 0 – 3 years and high proportion of mothers working part-time. |
| Long Leave Part-time | Germany (2.9%), Austria (3.0%) Luxembourg (3.9%) | Long period of relatively well-paid parental leave followed by mothers who do return to the labour market working part-time. |
| Family care | Estonia (1.7%), Slovenia (2.0%), Spain (0.7%), Latvia (1.2%), Greece (1.7%), Italy (1.2%), Portugal (1.3%) | Period of parental leave varies but is badly paid. Mothers generally withdraw from the labour market and do not return when their children get older, apart from Portugal where a high proportion of mothers work full-time. |
| Extended Parental Leave | Hungary (2.5%), Poland (0.9%). Czech Republic (1.6%), Lithuania (1.1%), Finland (2.9%) ³ . | Long period of parental leave with women returning to full-time employment when they have exhausted their entitlement to leave. |

(Source: Workcare Project)

1. Pt work is less than 30 hours a week. In Scandinavia pt is generally relatively secure long pt. In the UK, Germany and Austria women often work short pt in relatively insecure jobs. In the Netherlands pt jobs are relatively secure.
2. % GDP spent on Family Policy. Source Eurostat 2006
3. Finland deviates somewhat as the high level of state provision for 0 -3 year olds means that mothers have a choice as to whether to take leave or return to employment.

British governments have accepted over the last 10 years that the state has a legitimate role in supporting parents with young children to combine work and care. The issue is how to ensure that parents are not only able to combine work and care but also have a good quality of life. Subjective well-being is seen as important by the British Government and developing policies to improve subjective well-being is a political priority. Having a satisfactory work-life balance improves subjective satisfaction with life in general. A key question remains as to who should be responsible for providing the necessary support that dual earning families require if they are to combine work and care and enjoy a good quality of life. What is the role of government? What is the role of employers? What should parents be expected to do for themselves? Furthermore should mothers and fathers have an equal right to pursue full time careers and who is protecting the rights of children? The answers to these questions help frame policy and policy options pursued by governments. Governments across Europe, faced with the same dilemmas have come

up with different answers. These can be typified into five Work-care Regimes (Figure 1). The question is what policies and provision best supports dual working parents and what lessons can the British Government learn from other countries? How can the government provide support which enables parents to balance their caring responsibilities with paid employment and supports mothers and fathers equally?

1.2. Methodology

In preparation for this paper we carried out an extensive literature search. Our intention was not to find publications reporting on all the research that has been carried out on work and care in Europe, but rather to find reports and articles that summarised the main findings from research that has been carried out in recent years funded by the European Union under its Framework Programmes for Socio-economic Sciences and Humanities. We supplemented the reports and articles we found by reports on research on work and care by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, the European Industrial Relations Observatory, the European Network of Economic and Policy Research Institutes, and in the UK research funded by the European Social Fund and the UK Department for Work and Pensions.

In reviewing the literature we looked specifically at research findings that focused on enabling mothers and fathers to reconcile work and care. This included work that considered the experiences of working parents as well as more descriptive research and analysis of quantitative data. In reviewing the research we constructed a matrix of findings and one of policy recommendations. The findings of all the research we reviewed were generally comparable and the policy recommendations similar. The findings and policy recommendations can be categorised under four main headings: parents, gender, employment and equal opportunities; entitlement to leave; flexible working; and, parental leave. We use these headings to structure our report.

In the report we do not give references for most of the findings as they are common across many of the sources, however, where there are unique finding we reference these and we also give the source for data used in figures and tables and any material that is directly copied.

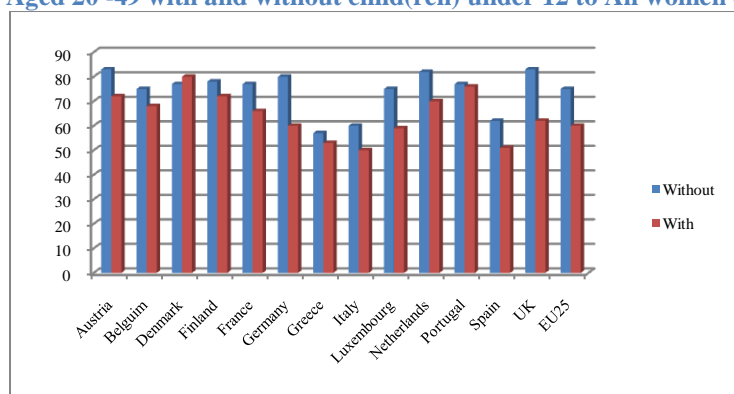
Most of the research covers more than one European country but there is little research that includes former communist countries in Eastern Europe. Also much of the research is quantitative, frequently drawing on European surveys. The Workcare project is one of the few exceptions in that it included Eastern European countries and carried out qualitative work in six countries (UK, Denmark, Austria, Italy, Portugal, Poland and Hungary) (in-depth interviews with parents) as well as quantitative work using a number of cross-European data sets. Policies that are highlighted as supporting work and care are generally found in Western European countries. The general consensus is that the familial polices found in Sothern Europe have failed either to substantially increase the numbers of mothers working or encourage higher fertility rates.

The appendix includes a full list of the materials that we have consulted.

1.3. Changing patterns of Employment in Europe

In line with the general trend across Europe employment rates for women, including those with dependent children have been increasing in the UK, especially for women of child bearing age and older women. There has also been an increase in the proportion of women who have children that are in paid employment across Europe although women without children are still more likely to be employed than those with dependent children across the EU (Figure 2). A notable exception is Denmark where mothers are more likely to be employed than women without children under 12 years. The gap in UK employment rates is larger in the UK than in other countries with a higher proportion of non-mothers working and around the EU average for working mothers. Not only are more women, including mothers, in employment but increasingly it is seen as the norm for women including mothers to have paid employment. The ‘dual earner family’ is increasingly seen as the norm in European countries, even in those where a ‘family model’ previously prevailed. However, significant variations continue to exist not only in the proportion of ‘dual earner families’ but in the division of labour between mothers and fathers in ‘dual earner families’. In a ‘dual earner family’ the father generally works full-time but mothers may work short-part-time, long-part-time or full-time. The pattern not only varies across countries but also by age of the youngest child within countries.

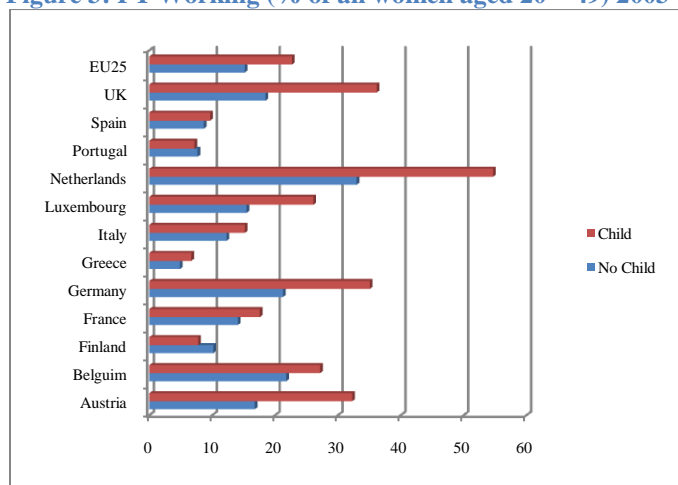
Figure 2: Women’s Employment Rates, With and Without Children (Ratio of Employed women Aged 20 -49 with and without child(ren) under 12 to All women of that Age (%))



(Source: Eurostat (2005) ‘Reconciling Work and Family Life in the EU in 2003’ *News Release 49/2005*, pp2-3, Luxembourg: Eurostat)

One of the ways in which parents’ manage to combine care and paid employment is by one partner, almost invariably the mother, working part-time. Women are more likely than men to work part-time and in a number of countries mothers are more likely to work part-time than women without young children. In the EU15 mothers are more likely to work part-time in all countries except Portugal and Finland. In a number of countries, most notably the UK, the Netherlands, Belgium Germany and Austria not only do a higher than average proportion of mothers work part-time but so do all women aged 20-49 years (Figure 3). As we will discuss further below working part-time work is one strategy mothers use to reconcile work and care but it can disadvantage them in the labour market and restrict their rights to employment benefits and pensions.

Figure 3: PT Working (% of all women aged 20 – 49) 2003



(Source: Eurostat (2005) 'Reconciling Work and Family Life in the EU in 2003' *News Release 49/2005*, pp2-3, Luxembourg: Eurostat)

1.4 Drivers of Family Policy

1.4.1 Europe

Changes in the European Welfare Policy, including policies to support work-life balance have been driven by the policy priority of economic competitiveness on the world market. The policy priorities are activating as many adults, including mothers, as possible to be active in the labour market, encouraging the increased flexibility of the labour market and raising the skills level of the workforce. At the same time there has been a decline in fertility, and a concern about an ageing population and how the increasing numbers of elderly people can be supported.

At the same time changes in family form and the contribution that men and women make to the family has made work-life balance an issue for parents. Family forms have become more fluid and there is movement in and out of marriage and cohabitation. Family has become a risk for women rather than the protection from risk it used to provide. There has also been a change in the contribution that men and women make to the family. Married women including mothers are increasingly in paid employment especially in Western Europe, although they often work part time. At the same time fathers have become more involved with their families but not noticeably increased the amount of time they put into child care and domestic work. In most, including the UK, but not all EU countries fathers continue to work long hours, often longer than are worked by men who do not have dependent children.

1.4.2 The UK

The expansion of women's employment increased rapidly in the UK in the 1980s and had reached the Lisbon target of 60 per cent by the early 1990s. Further increases in women's employment have come from more women with dependent children entering the labour market. The expansion of women's paid employment occurred in the absence of statutory programmes to support the reconciliation of family life

and paid employment. However, as we saw in Figure 3 a significant proportion of women work part-time in the UK and mothers with dependent children are even more likely to do so. In the UK there is a strong relationship between the age of the youngest child and the likelihood of the mother being employed. Mothers are more likely to be employed the older the youngest dependent child (Figure 4).

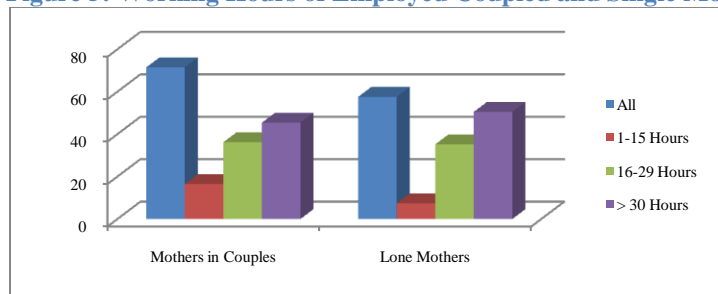
Figure 4: Employment Rates (%) of Women and Mothers in UK 2007



(Source: ONS (2007), *Labour Force Survey 2007*, London: ONS)

Lone mothers are less likely to be in paid employment than partnered mothers but those who are in employment are more likely to work full-time than partnered women (Figure 5). There has, however, been a sharp increase in the numbers of lone mothers in employment since 1999 in response to policies aimed at encouraging them to work so as to reduce child poverty.

Figure 5: Working Hours of Employed Coupled and Single Mothers UK 2007

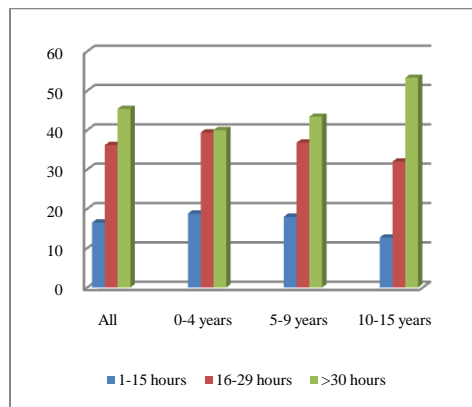


(Source: ONS (2007), *Labour Force Survey 2007*, London: ONS)

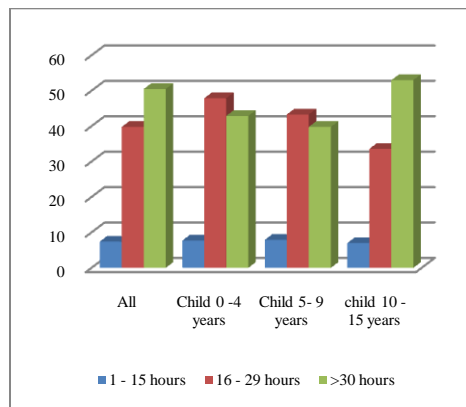
The age of the youngest child has a strong influence on the hours that mothers work. As the youngest child gets older mothers are more likely to work full-time, especially when the youngest child is 10 years and over. However, lone mothers are much less likely than partnered mothers to work short part-time (Figure 5). The hours that fathers work are much the same as for all men, although there is a tendency in the UK for fathers to work longer than average and unsocial hours (evening, weekends and shifts).

Figure 6: Working Hours of Employment of Mothers in UK 2007 Children Ages 0 – 15 Years

Partnered mother



Lone mother



(Source: ONS (2007), *Labour Force Survey 2007*, London: ONS)

1.5 European Family Policy

EU policy is concerned to encourage as many people of working age as possible to be in the workforce, women as well as men. The Lisbon Agenda (2000) set a target of 60 per cent participation rates for women by 2010. The concern to raise employment rates has been accompanied by a concern to increase fertility rates. These two policy objectives may seem to be in contradiction. However, many of the EU countries that have high employment rates for women also have relatively high fertility rates while those that have low participation of women in the labour market tend to have low fertility rates.

While the core goals of economic growth and competitiveness remain central to European policy it is possible to see a shift in social policy. The first is from a concern with promoting equal opportunities between men and women to providing opportunities for mothers to engage in paid work. The second has been a shift away from long parental leave which enables labour market exit (usually by women) to the provision of childcare services, which are likely to promote labour market attachment. However, the policies are ultimately aimed more at economic growth and competitiveness and encouraging fertility than family welfare.

A key element of European policy has been flexicurity, a combination of easy hiring and firing rules cushioned by high unemployment benefits and a pro-active labour market policy. In 2003 the European Social Models were classified into four groups: the Mediterranean Model (Italy, Spain, Greece); the Continental Model (France, Germany, Luxembourg); the Anglo-Saxon model (Ireland, UK, Portugal); and, the Nordic Model (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Netherlands, Austria). Of these models the Scandinavian was seen as the one that was successful at both creating jobs and preventing poverty and it did so through flexicurity policies. This approach is based on social dialogue between employer's organisations and trade unions and balances flexibility with security. Flexicurity is about workers making successful transitions into and out of employment. It combines more freedom for firms to recruit or

dismiss with firms becoming more flexible. Security includes employment rights, the rights to benefits during periods of unemployment and training opportunities for workers. The policy is seen as important in facilitating work-life balance and enabling the reconciliation of paid employment and care. In 2007 the EU Council of ministers adopted eight common principles on flexicurity (EurAcitv 29/11/07 and EurAcitv 05/12/07) and in 2008 the Council adopted conclusions that indicated that flexicurity could be beneficial in times of economic crisis. However, flexicurity does not address gender equality in the workplace but focuses on increasing employment. Thus men and women are treated as if the individualised worker model already exists. It is therefore unlikely to address the issue of the quality of jobs occupied by women.

1.6: UK Family policy

UK policy for supporting working families, generally referred to as family policy, remains neo-liberal with a strong emphasis on means testing and setting minimalist standards. Policy has also had multiple goals and rarely been directed explicitly to supporting families in reconciling work and care. Although some policies, such as increasing support for childcare for working parents, have been aimed at encouraging more mothers, especially lone mothers and mothers with children under four to work, even here an equally important goal has been reducing child poverty. Early year's education policy is more concerned with improving the cognitive development of children and provides little support to working parents. Promoting flexible working is as much to do with modernising working practices as it is about promoting a balance between work and home and enabling more mothers to work.

Figure 7: Parental Leave in the UK

- Statutory maternity leave – 52 weeks, statutory maternity pay (SMP) is for 39 weeks of leave. Does not have to be repaid if do not return to work Also employer schemes. SMP is 90% of average weekly earnings for first 6 weeks with no upper limit and whichever is lower of £124.88 a week or 90% of average earnings for 33 weeks. Can work for up to 10 days for normal employer without losing the benefit.
- Statutory paternity leave – one or two weeks leave taken within 56 days of birth. From April 2011 Fathers can take any maternity leave not taken by the mother including receiving the balance of SMP due if the mother returns to work after 20 weeks.
- Statutory paternity pay – paid for up to two consecutive weeks - £124.88 a week or 90% of average weekly earnings if lower.
- Flexible working – parents with child under 6 years can ask to work flexibly. Not a legal entitlement. Reduce hours, flexi-time, annualised hours, compressed hours, staggered hours, job sharing, and home working.
- Parental leave – up to 13 weeks unpaid leave for each child up to 5th birthday. Also right to reasonable amount of emergency leave.

Polices have provided two main types of support: statutory rights to parental leave (Figure 7); and, help with the cost of childcare (Figure 8). The latter includes the rights of parents with a child under six years to request certain flexible working arrangements, but employers do not have to agree to the request.

Parental leave, which parents can request to look after a child under five years, is unpaid and therefore not an option that many parents can afford to take. From 2010 the number of years contributions required to receive a full basic state pension has been reduced to 30 years. Those caring for a child can build up entitlement through weekly career's credits.

There is no coherent accessible, available and affordable childcare system. Rather it is delivered through a mixed economy of care which has perpetuated a system that is too expensive for many parents to afford. In 2004 the cost of childcare for a two parent, two-child family in the UK after subsidies and tax concessions was 32.7 per cent of net income, the highest cost of 13 Western European countries and the US (Lewis 2009, P93). The only country that came close to the UK was Ireland. Even in the US with a privatised system of childcare the cost is only just over half the UK cost. Working parents are generally expected to make their own arrangements for childcare although there is means tested support for working parents with meeting costs and tax concession to incentivise employers making provision or subsidising the costs. Provision for flexible working that supports working parents has been left to the employer's discretion. Early years' education is more concerned with investment in human capital than supporting working parents and there is little provision of out-of-school-care.

Figure 8: Help with Childcare in the UK

- **Child benefit** – universal benefit for all children under 16 year and those 16-20 in FE or on approved training course.
- **Child tax credit** – means tested benefit paid for children under 16 year and those 16-20 in FE or on approved training course – maximum income £58K or £66 if child under 1 year.
- **Early years' education** – all 3-4 year olds are entitled to 2.5 hours a day or 12.5 a week for 38 weeks a year. Provided by approved day nurseries, playgroups, nursery classes, nursery schools, child minders who are part of an accredited scheme.
- **Working tax credit** – lone parents, dual working parents working at least 16 hours a week for children under 16 years. Means tested benefit that can cover up-to 80 percent of the cost of childcare.
- **Employer supported childcare** - benefit does not pay tax/NI on amount and employer does not pay NI. Can be in place of salary or in addition to salary. Includes workplace childcare (must be registered), childcare vouchers, employer-contracted childcare (employer pays provider directly). All costs using employer provided childcare exempt from tax and NI. Do not have to pay tax and NI on up-to £55 a week of directly contracted childcare or vouchers. Both parents can claim directly contributed childcare or vouchers for the same child. Vouchers can be saved up and used during holidays. Worth about £1K a year..
- **Optional 5 – 11 year olds** – extended services in schools – generally open from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. and may open later in the evening and at weekends. After-school clubs usually run 3.30 – 6 p.m. term time. Holiday play schemes may be run by schools as part of extended services.

UK family policy provides limited support to working parents and reinforces a one-and-a-half earner model. This is in line with the pattern of working that was established before Family Policy was on the political agenda in the UK. Whether this is the pattern of working that mothers and fathers would like remains a debated point, not least because choices are constrained by the support services available, cultural attitudes to men's and women's roles and women's continuing disadvantage on the labour market.

1.7 Reconciling Competing Perspective

There are six perspectives that compete in terms of how work and care can be reconciled: government; employers; fathers; mothers; grandparents; and children. The priorities and objectives of these six groups of stakeholders are not invariably the same and may be in conflict.

1.7.1 Policy Makers

Policy makers have to justify policies to enable mothers and fathers to balance paid employment and care to an electorate and determine the priority for funding such policies in completion with other government priorities. They also have to decide what policies they want to introduce. In practice governments generally focus on social investment (child poverty, children's education, fertility and addressing the issue of an ageing population) and modernising work practices (labour market flexibility). The main focus is on paid work and increasing productivity and economic growth. Less attention is paid to care issues and closing the gender gap in employment and care.

1.7.2 Employers

Employers want to control absenteeism and employee turnover, retain valued workers and promote job commitment and performance. They may want to encourage employer driven flexibility (part-time working, unsocial hours, shift work, short term contracts) while resisting employee driven flexibility (job sharing, working at home, flexibility in start and finish times, reduced hours etc). Public sector and large employers are more likely to have family friendly policies than SMEs. However, there is a growing body of evidence that suggests that flexibility is good for business and can enhance workplace effectiveness as well as enhance work-life balance and the quality of life for employees thus making Britain a more family friendly place to work.

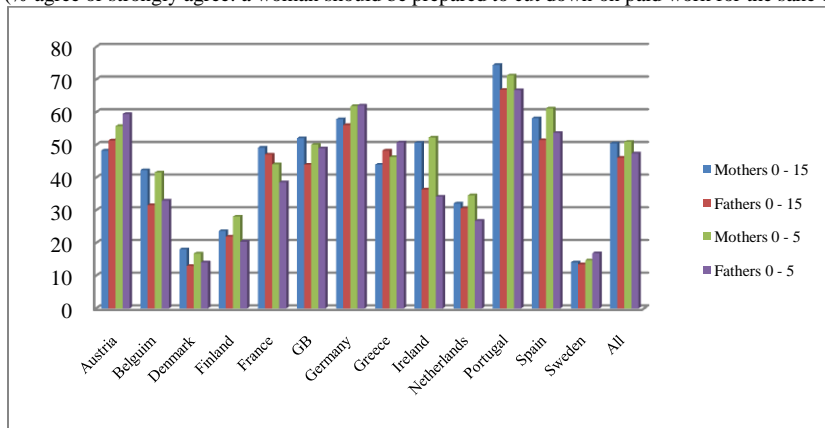
1.7.3 Parents

Parents seek to reduce stress and 'pressure' and more positively achieve a 'balance' between work and family life that is satisfying. However, mothers and fathers may not share identical views and their interests may be different. Attitudes to the extent to which mothers should be prepared to reduce their paid work for the sake of the family vary widely across Europe (Figure 9). On the whole mothers tend to think they should be prepared to do so more than fathers. What is noticeable, however, is that in Scandinavia where there is a strong commitment to gender equality and high quality affordable child care the numbers of mothers and fathers agreeing with the proposition is noticeably lower. This may be an

indication that parental attitudes are influenced by what services are available as much as by traditional gender ideologies.

Figure 9: Attitudes of Mothers and Father on Work and Care Priorities

(% agree or strongly agree: a woman should be prepared to cut down on paid work for the sake of the family)



(Source: European Social Survey Round 2: <http://ess.nsd.uib.no>)

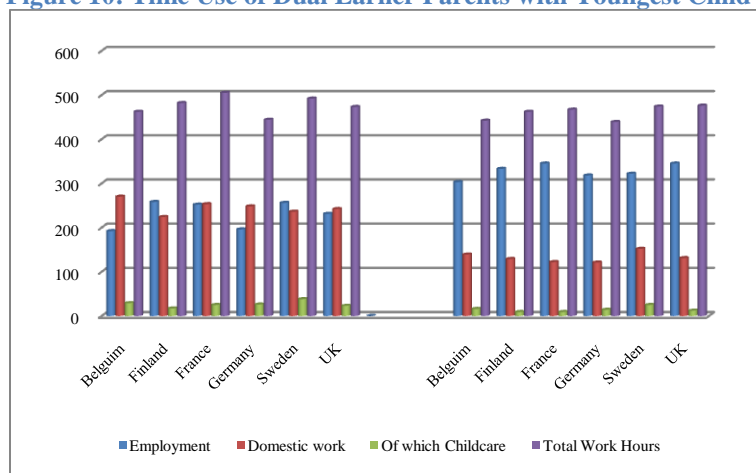
Mothers

If a gender perspective is taken women's attitudes may be shaped by their knowledge of the burden of child care and domestic work they are responsible for (Figures 10 and 11). While the quantitative data suggests that the average hours that mothers and fathers work are much the same qualitative research shows that fathers overestimate their contribution and mothers underestimate theirs to domestic and care work. Even in households where mothers and fathers both work full-time the contribution of fathers to domestic and care work is very limited. Furthermore, women tend to add paid employment to the work they are already responsible for in the domestic sphere. They are also influenced by the alternative of not having paid employment. Research as long ago as the 1970s demonstrated the long hours that wives put into domestic labour and childcare and drudgery and monotony of much of the work. Researchers pointed out that housework was more monotonous than assembly-line work and that many women looking after children under five were suffering from mild depression. It is notable that more recent qualitative research shows that mothers who do not have paid employment generally have regular activities they participate in outside the home including voluntary work.

Also if a life course perspective is taken then it is in the interest of mothers to retain a commitment to the labour market to secure their well-being in old age and in the event of their marriage/partnership dissolving. Intermittent labour market participation and working part-time has a negative impact on women's career development as well as reducing their entitlement to welfare benefits. However, even mothers who retain a commitment to the labour market may make 'choices' that are not in their long

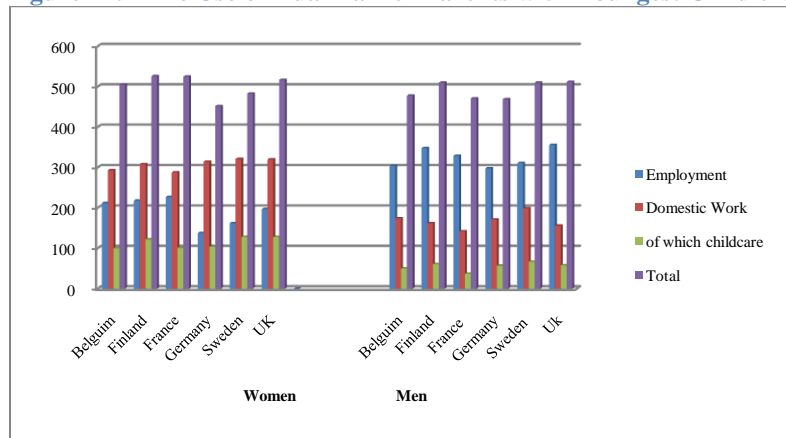
term interest such as working part-time, taking employment at a lower level to fit in with domestic commitments and not pursuing their career.

Figure 10: Time Use of Dual Earner Parents with Youngest Child 7 – 15 Years in Minutes A Day



(Source: Eurostat (2006) Comparable Time Use Statistics: Hetus Pocket book. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Country files at http://forum.europa.eu.int./Public/irc/dsis/tus/library?1=/comparable_statistics&vm=detailed&sb=Title)

Figure 11: Time Use of Dual Earner Parents with Youngest Child 0-6 Years in Minutes A Day



(Source: Eurostat (2006) Comparable Time Use Statistics: Hetus Pocket book. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Country files at http://forum.europa.eu.int./Public/irc/dsis/tus/library?1=/comparable_statistics&vm=detailed&sb=Title)

Fathers

Conversely fathers tend to see their careers as important. Fathers are much more likely than mothers to be mobile and to expect the family to move to accommodate their career moves. Mothers may agree to this but gendered power relations make it difficult for them to resist even if it has negative impact on their employment. Even in professional couples the man tends to move for upward mobility while the wife

looks for employment once the move has been agreed, so while professional men spiral up the career ladder married women tend to remain at the same level.

1.7.4 Children

The perspective of children is also important. Children need to be cared for and looked after. They have cognitive and social as well as physical needs. Governments have a legal responsibility to protect vulnerable children and the increased provision of pre-school education is aimed at building human capital. Parents are concerned that childcare should be of high quality and support the cognitive development of their children. Working parents may improve the living standard of their children but care needs to be taken that substitute care meets their social and developmental needs as appropriate to their age. This is especially important for babies and young children who need a high level of individual care. However, the research shows that children are unlikely to do well if their parents do not.

1.7.5 Informal Carers Especially Grandparents

A further group who should be considered stakeholders are informal carers and especially grandparents who provide a significant amount of childcare. In countries where there is limited childcare provision, especially for very young children grandmothers are frequently the main carer while in other countries grandparents provide childcare on a less regular basis including in emergencies. The high reliance that many working parents put on support from grandparents (more usually grandmothers) raises at least three issues. The first is the extent to which grandparents want to take on the role of substitute carers on a regular basis or take on the task because there is no alternative childcare available. The second is the extent to which grandparents are and will continue to be a reliable source of childcare support. The increase in the numbers of women working means that in the future grandmothers may be working and not available to provide childcare. Government policies to increase the retirement age in response to an ageing population may have a negative impact. The third is the extent to which governments recognise the important role that grandparents play and implement policies to support this such as allowing parents to use childcare vouchers to compensate a grandparent who provides care, early retirement schemes and giving pension credits to a grandparent who cares for a grandchild(ren).

2. Main Findings on Reconciling Work and Care

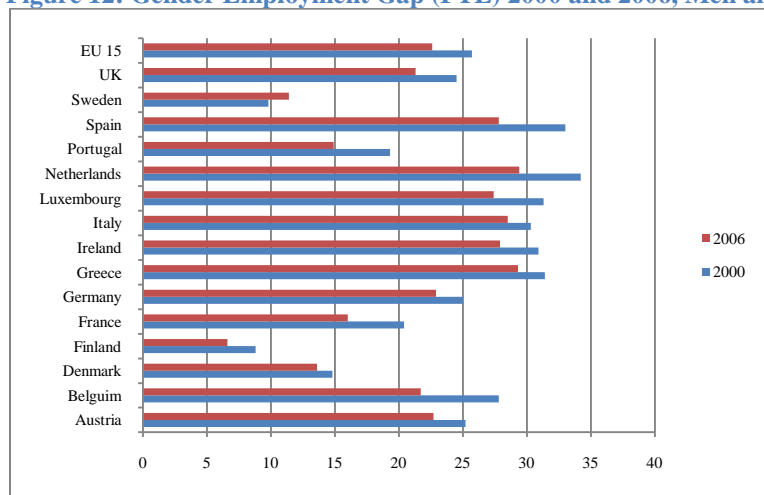
2.1. Parenthood, Gender, Employment and Equal Opportunities

Support for the single male breadwinner model is on the wane across Europe but women are still seen as mainly responsible for care and domestic work. It is still generally mothers who are left to manage the delicate balance of work and care and cope with family emergencies. Women also still carry much of the emotional burden and responsibility of organising and managing family life. Women are disadvantaged in the labour market compared to men and mothers compared to fathers. Men remain the ‘breadwinners’ despite changing gender roles and labour markets. They can generally earn more than women and it is difficult for men to take on non-traditional roles because of the attitudes of employers, fellow employees

and society more broadly. Government policies have rarely been directed to influencing the gendered division of care work. A notable exception to this is paternity leave but the research shows that men only take this when it is ‘lost’ if they do not take it and it is reasonably compensated, as for example in Sweden

One major conclusion that can be drawn from the research on work and care is that mothers are not able to genuinely make informed choices. There are four main reasons for this: firstly there is, in most countries, a lack of quality affordable child care especially for young children; secondly labour market segregation and segmentation mean that women, on average are able to earn less than men; thirdly cultural attitudes construct women as carers and make it difficult for men to take on caring roles; and, fourthly the ways in which structural inequalities and cultural attitudes enable fathers to provide little support with domestic work and childcare. Beyond this mothers may not be fully informed about the lifelong consequences of intermittent labour market participation and part –time work. The countries that have come closest to giving women the genuine right to choose are the Scandinavian ones but these countries have not achieved gender equality.

Figure 12: Gender Employment Gap (FTE) 2000 and 2006, Men and Women Aged 15 -64 Years



(Source: European Commission (2007) *Indicators for Monitoring the Employment Guidelines including Indicators for Additional Employment Analysis*, European compendium. Brussels: DG Employment, Social Affairs and Equalo Opportunities Tables 17.A1 and 17.A2)

There is a gender employment gap across Europe (Figure 12) although the gap is narrowing in virtually all countries². The gap is partly accounted for by the fact that even women in full-time employment work fewer hours than men in full-time employment. The gap is largest in those countries where women, especially mothers, traditionally withdraw from the labour market and do not return and lowest in those countries where the majority of women are in paid employment, although a significant proportion work long part-time. The large gap in the Netherlands is because of the high levels of short part-time

² Sweden is a notable and surprising exception here. The reason is because male employment has been increasing at a faster rate than female employment. Rather than there being a decline in female employment.

employment amongst married women. The gap in the UK as in the Netherland is mainly account for by women working shorter hours than men including a substantial proportion working part-time. The gender gap is not only in hours of employment but also in the quality of jobs that mothers take (poor career prospects, lack of access to training) and with poor pay because of their caring responsibilities. Interrupted work histories also disadvantage women on the labour market and a carer break may make re-entry difficult. Interrupted work histories and often being in poorly paid part time employment limits women's entitlements to welfare payments such as unemployment and retirement benefits.

Much family policy is based on the assumption that families have shared strategies for combining work and care and that women's orientation to work is formed early and is stable. However, the research challenges this in two ways and suggests that women's choices are constrained. Firstly it is argued that labour market choices influence women's decisions about paid employment and secondly that the parental choice model obscures the different interests and power of men and women in the home. Occupational segregation and the glass ceiling in employment means that women can generally earn less than men and cultural norms continue to see women as the natural carers. Employers and work colleagues are more often sympathetic to women taking maternity leave, childcare leave and working flexibly than they are to men taking parental leave or working flexibly to provide care for dependent children. Women have little bargaining power in getting men to do more in the home and this is the case even when women have high earnings or are mobile workers. Labour market and family policies tend to meet the needs of mothers as carers and enable them to shoulder their dual burden and often conflicting responsibilities they have as paid employees and care workers. However, most mothers are unable or unwilling to progress their careers because of caring responsibilities including women in professional and managerial occupations.

Fathers complain that they do not have enough time to spend with their children but continue to work long hours especially when they have young children. A noticeable exception is France where employment law strictly limits the hours of paid employment to a 35 hour week. Fathers are increasingly interested in their children's welfare but the actual time they spend on childcare is very limited even when their partner works full-time. They spend even less time doing domestic work.

2.2. Entitlement to Leave

As well as state provision for parental leave employers can also provide leave, paid and unpaid. This tends to be larger and public sector employers.

There are three types of leave that are available to parents. The first is maternity leave, the second is paternity leave and the third is parental leave. The length of leave entitlement and the amount of compensation paid to parents varies widely across the EU. Maternity leave is the leave that a mother is entitled to around the time of the birth of a child while parental leave is leave after the end of the

maternity leave period. Parental leave is often transferable, that is it can be taken by the mother or father but in practice fathers rarely take parental leave. Paternity leave is for fathers.

Employers are reluctant to recognise the needs of fathers and gender stereotyping by employers and work colleagues makes it difficult for fathers to take on caring roles. Daddy leave schemes have been introduced in most countries but few fathers exercise their right to take the leave. Poor compensation and the negative impact it will have on their careers are the main reasons. However, where paternal leave is lost if it is not taken (i.e. it is not transferable to the mother), as for example in Sweden, and there is good financial compensation fathers tend to take it. Fathers who take paternal leave provide more care for their children after the period of leave than fathers who do not take the leave.

In terms of the impact on women and employment maternity leave with a right to return to the same or similar employment is obviously important for mothers who wish to continue in employment. Most of the research we have reviewed, however, does not differentiate between maternity leave and parental leave (which is almost invariably taken by the mother) (see Figure 7 above). Policies that combine generous provision for parental leave with affordable high quality care options, as for example in Scandinavia, are supportive of mothers' employment. Those that provide poor childcare and generous entitlement to leave as, for example, in Germany and Austria, tend to perpetuate the 'male breadwinner model' or the 'one-and-a-half-earner household'. Where mothers have a choice the majority and especially the well-educated do not want to take a long leave or switch to part-time work because of the negative impact on their careers. Finland provides an example of a country where women can choose. There is high quality state provided affordable care for young children and well paid extended parental leave. This gives mothers the choice of an early return to the labour market or taking more extensive leave, up to three years.

2.3. Flexible Working and Flexicurity

Flexicurity has been seen as a policy which can support the reconciliation of work and care. Flexible working can be very important for important for dual earner families and self employment by one or both parents may be a positive or constrained choice. Part-time working has, for example, been especially important in the UK and the Netherlands in enabling mothers to combine work and care. However, in the Netherlands the Government has put in place legislation to ensure that part-time workers, even those working short part-time, have security and pro-rata pay and benefits, while this has not been the case in the UK. The narrow focus in the UK of flexible working time as a tool for work-family reconciliation for carers has produced a situation where mothers pay a high price. Flexible working hours are seen as mainly a 'women's issue' associated with the 'mummy track'. The gendering of flexibility threatens to exacerbate the patterns of gender segregation and unequal pay that already exist.

Flexible working arrangements can include, for example, part time work, flexible hours, job sharing, tele-working/working at home, term-time working, banking hours, and short-term contracts. Research

dedifferentiates between flexibility that supports combining paid employment and care and that which militates against it. Flexibility can be employer driven or employee driven and it is the latter that usually supports combining work and care. Indeed employer driven flexibility such as shift working, working unsocial hours and compulsory overtime working can have a negative impact on family life and on the ability of parents to juggle work and care. It is also important to consider the security of employment. Flexible employment may be insecure and this is especially the case for women and short part-time work often does not give access to full employment rights and employment related benefits (employer and/or state). The Netherlands is an notable example of a country that provides security for part-time workers and not only has a high proportion of women working part-time but also has the highest male part-time rate in Europe with around a fifth of men working part-time.

While flexible working arrangements may promote women's entry to the labour market they are often associated with poor conditions of employment, prospects and protection arrangements. Employees on flexible contracts are often excluded from training and development provision and from promotion opportunities. Part-time work has often been created especially to recruit and/or retain female workers and is seen as 'women's work'. Meanwhile the long hours culture ensures that there is an expectation that long hours are worked in particular jobs such as management which helps to preserve this area of employment as a largely male enclave.

Flexible working arrangements such as being able to vary start and finish times, work at home, bank hours, job share, work reduced hours reduce or take parental leave can be very important in enabling parents to combine work and care. However, employees are frequently unaware of their rights and managers are often no better informed. Even where parents are aware of their rights they often do not exercise them because of the negative attitudes of fellow employees and managers.

It is more acceptable for women to take up opportunities for flexibility than men and managers are also more prepared to consider requests from women than men. Parents in professional and managerial jobs are more able to work flexibly than those in routine non-manual and manual occupations. Professional workers can often work at home and start and finish times may not be as important. However, all parents and especially fathers are concerned that asking for flexible working arrangements will be seen as a lack of commitment and impact negatively on their career. Those in part-time employment may not be eligible for promotion and career breaks may also have a negative impact on being seen as meeting the criteria for promotion.

Regulatory frameworks are important in supporting parents in exercising their rights to flexible working. Where the rights are discretionary as in the UK employers are less likely to accede to request, employees are less likely to request flexible working and attitudes remain negative.

2.4. Childcare

Working parents tend to combine a number of sources of formal and informal childcare and there are a number of strategies that parents use to manage work and care (Figure 13). Parents tend to use a number of different carers and often have complex arrangements, especially for covering emergencies and for care during school holidays. Grandparents are especially important in providing care, either being the main carers or providing care on a less frequent basis.

Figure 13: Strategies for Managing Work and Care

Shift-parenting: parents arrange their employment hours so one is always available to look after their children. This is common in countries where there is limited childcare provision such as the UK, Austria, Poland and Italy

Flexible working: one or both parents were able to work flexibly to accommodate child care demands, This included self-employment. This was the most common strategy found in all the countries.

Formal care: found where there was affordable childcare that fitted with parents work patterns. Also used by middle class parents who could afford to pay for childcare. Found in all countries but for babies and very young children only the main strategy in Denmark.

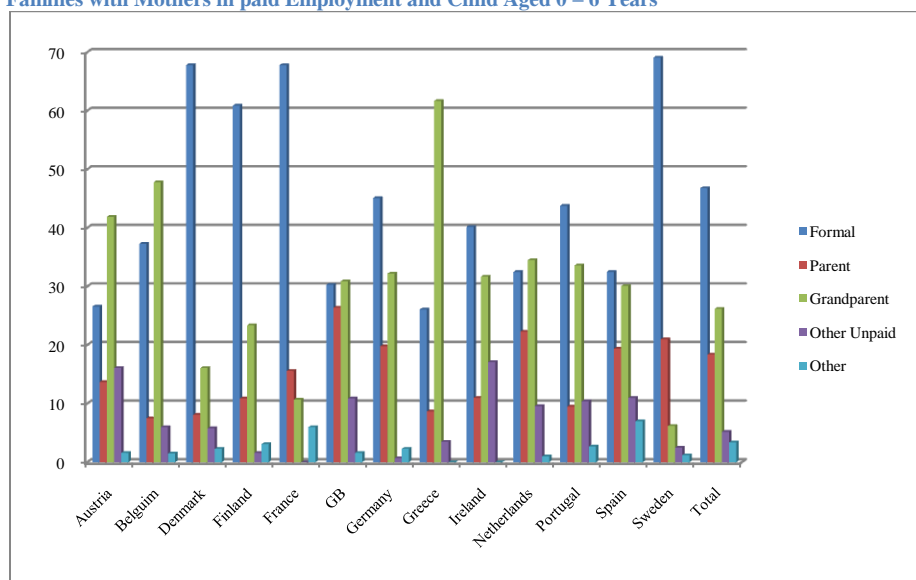
Informal care networks: as the main strategy grandparents and more rarely other relatives and friends provided substitute care in Southern and Eastern Europe. However, there was a heavy reliance on grandparents as occasional carers in all countries.

Self Reliance: older children were often considered able to look after themselves after school before parents returned from work.

(Source: Workcare Policy Briefing)

For mothers the availability of childcare is the overwhelming determinant of if they work and state child care provision seems to be preferred to financial benefits. As Figure 14 shows those countries that have a high proportion of mothers of young children in paid employment and working full-time or long-part-time also have a high use of formal childcare. In the UK grandparents are as often the carer as formal child care and nearly as many parents manage by shift-parenting. The latter is generally made possible by mothers working part-time, unsocial hours such as evening, night or weekend shifts. For mothers of young school aged children before and after school care and care in school holidays can be especially problematic.

Figure 14: Types of childcare Used for Youngest Child – Families with Mothers in paid Employment and Child Aged 0 – 6 Years



(Source: Adapted from Lewis *et al* 2008, Table 7))

Parents want affordable quality childcare that meets their needs in terms of opening times. Parents are also concerned about the quality of childcare and the cognitive and educational development of their children. They want childcare that is suited to the age of the child. One of the main issues in providing quality childcare is the low remuneration and poor status of childcare work which is seen as women’s work. Where childcare work is seen as a profession requiring education and training and is well remunerated as in Scandinavian countries the quality of childcare is much higher. After and out of school care which is provided by qualified teachers is more highly rated than that provided by care workers.

3. Policy Recommendations to the UK Government

3.1 The Role of Government

The Government has to decide what it wants to do and what its priorities are but also needs to recognise that dual-earner families are the norm and that policies to support work-life balance are a legitimate area for government intervention. Indeed if the Government wishes to achieve key policy objectives such as higher employment rates as a means to economic growth and competitiveness then support for parents to enable them to reconcile work and care is essential. However, the Government has to decide if it wants to support what families are doing/say they want to do or wishes to induce further change with policy.

All the research we have reviewed argues that children are a responsibility of society not a private responsibility of families. Ensuring the well-being of children is seen as a legitimate public concern and governments need to invest in supporting families to enable them to combine their responsibilities for care with paid employment. Beyond this governments need to promote equal rights for men and women and ensure that parents are able to exercise their rights to securer and flexible employment. In this way EU policy objectives will be achieved, including high levels of employment, the social inclusion of men and women and the avoidance of precariousness, equality of opportunity for men and women, and increased fertility rates. Parents will be empowered in developing a joint strategy and as individuals in taking controlled over their lives and making informed choices. Much of the research points to the Scandinavian model of care as coming closest to what will achieve these policy objectives.

3.2 The Role of Employers

The research also points to the importance of a partnership between the state, employer and self/family in providing support. Employers can do much to improve the working conditions of parents to better balance work and care, including ensuring that parents and managers are aware of their rights and establishing a normative environment where parents are able to exercise their rights without it having a negative impact on their career prospects. Employers can also enable all employees to benefit from training and promotion opportunities. The can offer incentives for line managers to develop ‘smart’ working and reductions in long working hours

3.3. The Role of Trade Unions

Trade Unions also have a role to play especially in prompting equal opportunity policies and ensuring that part-time workers are able to enjoy the same benefits as full-time workers. They can work with employers to develop training packages for managers so that they can effectively manage a modern workplace with more diversified working patterns linked with changes in work organisation.

3.4 The Capability Approach

In considering the issue of how parents can be supported a number of researchers have used capability framework to identify what institutional resources and societal resources support mothers and fathers in combining work and care. Such a framework also recognises that individual capabilities are important and indeed policies may be directed at building capabilities. What is evident from our review of the literature is that policy and culture influence the ways in which parents are able to combine work and care as well as individual capabilities. Governments can support the building of individual capabilities and put in place institutional support and regulatory frameworks that enable the reconciliation of work and care (Figure 15). Our review of the research suggests that in terms of person capabilities there is a need to empower women so that they are able to make informed choices. In terms of institutional resources we have pointed to the importance of gender equality legislation, state childcare provision, parental leave, employee driven flexibility and an organisational culture that supports mothers and fathers combining work and care. In terms of societal resources we have indicated that cultural attitudes are important as are

the availability of family and friends, and especially grandparents to provide care. We will now consider what the policy implications are for the UK Government and what can be learnt from elsewhere.

Figure 15: Capability Framework

| Individual Resources | Institutional Resources | Societal/Community Resources |
|---|---|---|
| Situated Agency Individual resources gender, ethnicity, age Human capital Income Partner's resources Social networks | Welfare Regime Benefits/services/EU/National Laws: antidiscrimination, job security, flexibility Labour markets Social quality of jobs Firm/organisational culture Union Strength | Norms Societal Community Family/friends Media/Public Debate Social Movements/ mobilization |

Policy recommendations that arise from the research can be grouped under the four headings we have used the structure the report, equal opportunities, parental leave, flexicurity and childcare. Choice requires equal support for work and care enabling a genuine choice for both men and women.

3.5 Equal Opportunities

- Gender equality in the workplace and labour market must be progressed and in particular attention paid to measures to reduce the gender-pay gap. Stronger equal opportunity policies as in the US should be introduced to achieve this. All relevant Government policies should be subject to a gender impact analysis.
- Policies should be informed by a life course perspective, for example by militating against the negative consequences for career and entitlement to social security benefits for women and men of taking periods outside the labour market or working flexibly to care. The framework for pensions and social security should recognise that the household (male) breadwinner model is outdated and take account of working –time adjustments and flexibility that occur across the life course.
- Legislation to enforce shorter working hours (as in France) to stop a long hour's culture amongst fathers and enable them to participate more in family life.
- The provision of paternity and other parental leave entitlements for fathers with adequate compensation to enable them to take it.
- Training for women on re-entry to enable them to resume their careers and compete for better quality jobs.
- Incentives for employers to encourage them to introduce family friendly policies and support men and women in taking their leave entitlement.
- Employers and TUs must support equal opportunity policies and promote a culture of equality in the workplace.

3.4 Parental Leave

- Well-paid adequate maternity and paternity leave are essential to support families. Such leave should be paid at least the level of the minimum wage. Men must be encouraged and supported in taking paternity leave which should not be 'lost' if it is not taken by the father.
- Parental leave (combined with child care support) should enable parents to make a genuine choice between returning to the labour market and taking a longer period of leave as the Finnish policy does.

3.5 Flexicurity

- Flexicurity is seen as a key aspect of European policy, but these policies must ensure flexibility and security for men and women. Not flexibility and security for men and flexibility *without* security for women.
- There should be a legal requirement for right to flexible working for all workers – flexicurity as for example in Sweden, Germany and the Netherlands. Flexible working should be turned from marginal to mainstream and its widespread use promoted for life-long learning as well as for caring and achieving a better work-life balance.
- Employees should be able to challenge an employer's business reasons as well as challenge on procedural grounds a refusal of a request to work flexibly. This would enable tribunals to require an employer to amend the terms of an employee's existing contract as in Germany and the Netherlands.
- There should be decent pay for part-time work as in the Netherlands and a right to request an increase in hours as well as a reduction. Employers should be required to undertake pay audits to ensure that they are not paying part-time workers at a lesser amount than full-time workers in equivalent jobs. And that pay is equitable between men and women
- Well-paid flexible parental leave including 'daddy' leave should be available to enable parents to combine work and care. There should be a legal entitlement to such leave as in Scandinavian countries.
- Flexicurity policies should enable mothers and fathers to work three quarters time to replace the model of fathers working full-time and mothers working half-time.
- Trade Unions need to make their members aware of their rights to ask for flexible working times and to fight for working times that suit the family obligations of their members
- Employers should be made aware of the benefits of flexicurity. They need to be aware of the need for flexibility of their employees with small children or others that have care responsibilities and the business case for flexibility policies for all employees.

3.6 Childcare

- Childcare ranked along four dimensions access, quality, resources and inclusive context. Importance of childcare service of high quality and adequately resourced.

- Substitute Care – child minders, nurseries, pre-school classes, school, after school and out of school provision should be affordable, professional, of high quality, adequate to meet the demand from all parents who want to access the services and the opening hours should be compatible with full-time employment as for example in Scandinavia. Class inequalities in access to affordable childcare need to be addressed.
- The entitlement to free childcare should be extended from 15 to 21 hours as part of a genuine offer to support a return to employment. Flexible paid parental leave should be introduced to bridge the gap between the end of Maternity/Paternity Leave and entitlement to free childcare. This would give parents (mothers) a genuine right to choose as in Finland.
- There should be a childcare policy for school aged children with adequate provision of out-of-school care. This should be provided free to the children of families on low incomes.
- Incentives for employers to provide pre-school and out-of-school child care should be realistic and employers made aware of the business case for making such provision.
- Policies must recognise that reliance on informal care is precarious and may cause difficulties for parents and employers. The importance of grandparents in providing care needs to be given greater recognition. An unintended consequence of encouraging older women to enter the labour market is likely to be a reduction in the availability of grandmothers to provide care, something they do in all countries at least in emergencies.
- Support should be provided to support informal carers meeting the needs, including the cognitive development needs of the child(ren) they care for and parents should be able to use subsidies for childcare to pay informal carers.
- The training qualifications required for early years child care should be upgraded and the remuneration of qualified care workers improved.

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| Coordinator Consortium | Institute for Advanced Studies (IHS), Austria University of Aberdeen(UNIABDN), Scotland , UK Roskilde University (UNIRUC), Denmark Vienna University of Economics and Business (WU Wien), Austria TARKI Social Research Institute(TARKI), Hungary University of Warsaw (UWAR), Poland University of Florence (UNIFI), Italy CIES-ISCTE (CIES-ISCTE), Portugal University of Brighton(UOB), England, UK |
| European Commission | Marc Goffart, DG Research |
| Duration & Budget | January 2010 – December 2011, 600,000 Euros |
| Funding Scheme | Seventh Framework Programme Theme 8 Socio-economic sciences and humanities (SSH) 8.1 Measures to support dissemination of research results |
| Website | www.workcaresynergies.eu |
| Coordinators | Dr Michaela Gstrein, gstrein@ihs.ac.at Dr Lillian Mateeva, mateeva@ihs.ac.at |

WORKCARE SYNERGIES is a support action with the aim of disseminating research findings of previous EU Framework Programme projects in the field of work-care. Our dissemination scheme is based on the concept of local key mediator teams, which are based in each of the seven countries where dissemination will take place. The mediator teams consist of local researchers, knowledge transfer and communication specialists. Local teams will implement local dissemination activities.

WORKCARE SYNERGIES will:

- collect, select and prepare relevant findings from different existing FP projects
- in the form of (theme-specific and target-group oriented) discussion materials
- and other dissemination tools (e.g. film, newsletter, folder, poster, homepage, etc.)
- to make existing research findings available
- to NGOs, policy makers, trade unions, labour representatives, regional organizations and services, companies, other local actors, interested parties, etc.

- in local dissemination events and
- summarize material and discussion results for publication.

What? The British team will “translate” (i.e. collect, summarize, make understandable and accessible) findings from existing research projects within the EU Framework Programmes and initiate their discussion in a local context.

Where? This British team will implement local dissemination activities in north of Britain. Locations of dissemination are Scotland (Edinburgh) and London.

Whom to reach? Through local events (1) in Scotland with the Grampian Research Network bringing together representatives from NGOs and local government officers (top/all levels) in the North of Scotland, who are normally out of the seminar/policy making loop due to their scattered and remote locations, (2) at the Scottish Government (top level) to bring together policy makers and members of Parliament in Scotland and (3) with policy makers (top/all levels) and NGOs through the Work Foundation in London. Through policy briefs: NGOs and policy makers (top/all levels) in Scotland and London. Through press: general public (e.g. newspapers). Through newsletter: all interested parties. Through panel discussions: exchange with user groups.

What will be disseminated?: We will disseminate research findings from the following projects:

- WORKCARE (2006-2009), a project on the social quality and changing relationships between work, care and welfare in Europe.
- HWF (2000-2003), a project on households, work and flexibility.
- CINEFOGO (2005-2009), a project on civil society and new forms of Governance in Europe.
- RECOWE (2006-2011), a project on reconciling work and welfare in Europe.
- EQUALSOC (2005-2010), a project on economic change, quality of life and social cohesion.

Links to EU Funded Research

BETWIXT, FP 4 (1998-2001)

Between Integration and Exclusion: A Comparative Study in Local Dynamics of Precarity and Resistance to exclusion in Urban Contexts,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/004_en.html,

http://cordis.europa.eu/search/index.cfm?fuseaction=lib.document&DOC_LANG_ID=EN&DOC_ID=70595561&pid=0&q=D6A7242FAF4F2B562806FB0098CBA5C6&type=sim;

http://cordis.europa.eu/search/index.cfm?fuseaction=proj.document&PJ_RCN=3892967&CFID=9436454&CFTOKEN=40542624&jsessionid=3c3080aa642408862019603c3517e5652186TR

CINEFOGO, FP6, NoE (2005-2009),

Civil Society and New Forms of Governance in Europe – The Making of European Citizenship,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/325_en.html, <http://www.cinefogo.org/>

EQUALSOC, FP6, NoE (2005-2010)

Economic Change, Quality of Life and Social Cohesion

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/332_en.html,

<http://www.equalsoc.org/>

HWF, FP5 (2000-2003)

Households, Work and Flexibility,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/057_en.html;

<http://www.hwf.at>

IFAC, FP6 (2006-2008)

Information for a choice: Empowering young women through learning for technical professions and science careers, Science and society,

<http://www.ifac-project.eu/>;

http://cordis.europa.eu/fetch?CALLER=FP6_PROJ&ACTION=D&DOC=1&CAT=PROJ&QUERY=012467c16d03:55ec:05ce7a3e&RCN=81260

IMISCOE, FP6, NoE (2004-2009)

International Migration Integration and Social Cohesion

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/219_en.html,

<http://www.imiscoe.org/>

MULTILINK, FP7 (2008-2011)

How demographic changes shape intergenerational solidarity, well-being, and social integration: a multilinks framework,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/417_en.html;

<http://www.multilinks-project.eu/info/workpackages>;

<http://multilinks-project.eu/info/papers>

MOCHO: Combining Work and Motherhood, FP5 (2001-2004)

The Rationale of Motherhood Choices: Influence of Employment Conditions and Public Policies,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/075_en.html

Meta-Analysis of Gender and Science Research, FP7 (2008-),

<http://www.genderandscience.org/web/index.php>;

Austrian country report: http://www.genderandscience.org/doc/CReport_Austria.pdf

QUALITY, FP6 (2006-2009)

Family, Work and Social Care in Europe

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/267_en.html

RECWOWE, FP6, NoE (2006-2011)

Reconciling Work and Welfare in Europe

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/336_en.html;

<http://www.recwowe.eu/>

SOCCARE FP5 (2000-2003)

Family, Work and Social Care in Europe

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/102_en.html,

<http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/sospol/soccare/>

The Gender Challenge in Research Funding. Assessing the European national scenes, FP7, Capacities,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/science-society/document_library/pdf_06/the-gender-challenge-in-research-funding-report_en.pdf

TRANSITIONS, FP5 (2003-2005)

Gender, parenthood and the changing European workplace: young adults negotiating the work-family boundary

[\[world.org/ProjectDetails.aspx?ProjectId=ee29a0fe4879480287671ca3bbe9aae3&SourceDatabaseId=9cd97ac2e51045e39c2ad6b86dce1ac2\]\(http://www.ist-world.org/ProjectDetails.aspx?ProjectId=ee29a0fe4879480287671ca3bbe9aae3&SourceDatabaseId=9cd97ac2e51045e39c2ad6b86dce1ac2\)](http://www.ist-</p>
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TRANSLAM, FP4 (1996-1999)

Social integration by Transitional Labour Markets: new pathways for labour market policy (This research was subsequently developed into TLM.net (see below)

http://cordis.europa.eu/search/index.cfm?fuseaction=acro.document&AC_LANG=EN&AC_RCN=1492101&pid=0&q=8550014896997D6B63BD5EE5685C7441&type=sim

TLM.net, FP5 (2002-2006)

Managing Social Risks Through Transitional Labour Markets

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/130_en.html

Women in European Universities, FP5, Training and Research Network (2000-2003)

<http://csn.uni-muenster.de/women-eu/>

WORKCARE, FP6 (2006-2009)

Social quality and the changing relationships between work, care and welfare in Europe,

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/232_en.html;

<http://www.abdn.ac.uk/socsci/research/nec/workcare/>

WORKS Changes in Work FP6 (2005-2009)

Work Organisation and Restructuring in a knowledge society

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/322_en.html,

<http://www.worksproject.be/>

WORKING AND MOTHERING, FP5 (1998-2001)

Working and Mothering: Social Practices and Social Policies

http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/projects/117_en.html