

**BALANCING WORK AND FAMILY IN ITALY:  
THE NEW MOTHERS' EMPLOYMENT DECISIONS AROUND CHILDBEARING**

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**Abstract**

Compared to other European countries, the Italian labour market stands out for the depressed level of female participation. According to a survey conducted in 1998 among European countries, such a level does not fully reflect the preferences of Italian women. In this paper we focus on the employment patterns of Italian mothers around childbirth. Our hypothesis is that the difficulties in reconciling work and family in presence of children are an important cause for the low female employment rate in Italy. As a matter of fact, data from the 2002 Italian Birth Sample Survey show that in the period around childbirth, the flow of women leaving the labour market outweighs the flow of women entering the market, contributing to keep the overall employment rate at a low level. The care-giving role played by elderly relatives, the availability of public care facilities and human capital variables are probably among the most important factors fostering the probability of entering and remaining in the labour market. Also the type of contract and the level of job protection employment play an important role. In particular, part-time contracts have a positive net effect on the employment rate. Such a result comes from two opposite trends. At one hand, shifting from full time to part-time may represent for mothers the only available alternative to unemployment. On the other side, our results show that for mothers working part-time during pregnancy the chance of unemployment and of resignation increases significantly.

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## 1. Introduction<sup>1</sup>

Despite an upward trend over the last years, the Italian female participation in the labour market is still one of the lowest in Europe. In 2001, Italy records a female employment rate equal to 41 per cent, about 14 points below the EU average (Eurostat, 2002).

From an economic perspective, a higher female labour market participation is desirable on several grounds.

The ongoing decline in working-age population because of low fertility rates will have considerable implications for the size of the labour force, economic output and productivity. Moreover the increase of the elderly share of the population will put the financial sustainability of social protection systems under pressure. Increasing employment amongst women and mothers could have important implications for future labour supply, health, education, retirement and public finances (OECD, 2001, 2002, 2003a, Burniaux *et al.*, 2003, Jaumotte 2003).

To the extent that female participation remains at a depressed level due to market failures and policy distortions, removing these barriers could lead to a higher level of welfare and to a lower degree of inequality (Jaumotte, 2003, Kamerman *et al.*, 2003, Pasqua, 2002). Moreover, transitions to non-employment are likely to cause a loss in human capital and future wages, and this effect is expected to be the larger, the longer time spent out of work (Gutiérrez-Domènech, 2003, Beblo and Wolf, 2002).

Balancing work and family life is, in turn, vital for increasing the employment rates of mothers. Mothers are likely to face great difficulties in entering paid employment unless there are incentives to encourage them, and unless relatives can ensure adequate care for their children. Government policies can play an important role in encouraging and

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equipping parents to move back into productive and fulfilling careers into paid employment when they are ready to do so (OECD, 2001).

Getting the work/family balance right is also important for longer-term trends in population and labour supply. In most OECD countries fertility rates are below replacement rates. With the exception of only a few countries, in past years the trend has been for successive cohorts of women entering the labour market to have higher employment rates but fewer children. While the reasons for this are still not clear, it seems plausible that improvements in the work/family balance could help to increase both employment and fertility rates (OECD, 2001, Del Boca 2000).

In this paper we examine the employment decisions of new mothers around childbearing. Our hypothesis is that difficulties in reconciling work and family life in the presence of children contribute to keep the female participation rate at a low level.

The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 describes some demographic and labour market indicators in a European perspective. Section 3 presents a brief review of the applied literature about female employment decisions. Section 4 follows with a description of the 2002 Italian Birth Sample Survey (IBSS) data. In Section 5 we study the determinants of mothers' probability not to work after about 18-21 months from childbirth. We next focus on working mothers examining their voluntary decision to leave the job after delivery. In Section 7 we briefly summarise and discuss some policy implications.

## **2. Female employment and fertility: some Italian peculiarities**

In this section we point out some peculiarities of the actual employment status of Italian women and mothers, in comparison with other European countries.

Such peculiarities can be summarised as follows: 1) a very low female participation rate; 2) the largest gender gap in Europe with the male participation rate; 3) very strong regional disparities between the Centre-North and the South; 4) a small incidence of part-time contracts; 5) a high negative effect of presence of children on female activity rates; 6) one of the lowest fertility rates in Europe, together with a recent sharp increase in the mother's age at the first child; 7) low availability of public child care services for children under 3; 8) reduced employer provision for child day-care.

Compared to other European countries, the most striking feature of the Italian labour market is the low level of female participation (tables A1, A2). In 2001, while male employment rate was about 68 per cent (only 5 points below the European average), just about 41 per cent of Italian women between 15 and 64 were employed, versus an average of about 60 per cent. Moreover, in Italy the long term female unemployment rate was about 8 per cent, twice the European average<sup>2</sup>. From 1995 to 2001 Italy experienced a significant increase in the female participation to labour market: in this period the working rate increased of about one point yearly. Nevertheless, the gap with Northern European countries only slightly reduced.

In Italy, the level of participation is very low at any age, but in particular for women under 24 (table A3). In this age class, only 22 per cent of women belong to the labour force (2001) and the unemployment rate is 32 per cent, twice the European average. Among other Mediterranean countries, only Greece has a similar youth employment rate while Spain and Portugal show higher percentages (27 and 38 per cent respectively).

Furthermore, Italian market presents large geographical disparities. While in the Northern regions the employment rate is close to the European average (in 2001 it was around 53 per cent), in the South and in the Islands it falls below half the average (about 26 per cent in 2001).

The low work-rate observed in Italy is associated with a high gender gap (table A7). Like Spain and Greece, Italy has one of the highest gap between male and female earners from work (about 30 per cent); at the opposite, in Finland, Denmark and Sweden the difference is negligible (below 10 per cent).

As to the flexibility of labour market, part-time contracts are mainly widespread in the North of Europe. In 2001, in the Netherlands about 71 per cent of female employment is part-time. In the UK and Germany the figure is about 40 per cent, while in Italy, only 16 per cent of women work with part-time contracts, only a half the European average (table A4). Even temporary contracts, more flexible from the firms' point of view, but less useful

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<sup>2</sup> The other Mediterranean countries have to cope with an analogous situation. Portugal probably represents the only exception scoring an employment rate around 61 per cent, and a long term employment rate below 2 per cent.

for mothers to reconcile work and family life, do not have a great diffusion in Italy. The gap with the other European countries is not as wide as for part-time: in 2001 around 12 per cent of women in working age had that type of contract, just two points below the average. However, in the last decade the use of both part-time and temporary contracts significantly increased, reflecting a significant increase of labour market flexibility.

In all European countries seems to be a large mismatch between the actual and the desired distribution of paid working hours between partners with young children. (Table A6). A survey carried out in EU countries in 1998, which examined the preferences of couples with children under 6, shows that only one in ten preferred the traditional male-breadwinner model, even though it presents a wide diffusion among countries. In most of them, the highest preference go to both partners working full time. In Italy, in 35 per cent of couples, both partners work, but more than 50 per cent would prefer such an employment situation. This difference is even wider in Spain and Greece, whereas it remains negligible in the United Kingdom, Portugal and Belgium. The female part-time participation is the most frequently preferred working arrangement for women in the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, the United Kingdom. Preferences for part-time work are lower in Southern European countries (Portugal, Greece, Spain and Italy). Nevertheless, in Italy preferences for part-time are well above the current level of part-time.

The presence of children broadly influences female employment patterns, consistently with the traditional model of specialisation of gender roles within the household (table A7). On average, the negative impact on women's employment is more visible when there is more than one child. In Italy, the employment rate of women of age 25-54 is 53 per cent of childless women and 42 per cent for mothers with two or more children. At the opposite, in Sweden, Denmark and Finland the presence of children does not affect the participation rates significantly. In Belgium and Denmark the employment rate for women with one child is even higher than for childless women.

A number of researches have emphasised a tendency for labour force participation of women to be lower in countries with lower fertility rates (Del Boca, 2003, Jaumotte, 2003, OECD 2003b). Northern European countries show indeed a higher number of children together with high female labour market participation, while Southern European countries are characterised by low levels both in fertility and in participation rates of women (fig. A1).

The low Italian female employment rate is associated with one of the lowest fertility rates in the world: in 2003, an average of 1.25 children was born per woman of fertile age (table A5). Since the early Seventies, fertility rates decreased in all Europe, though with different intensities across countries. The decreasing trend of fertility continued sharply particularly in some nations, nowadays reaching values close to 1.2 children per women in South Europe and to 1.6-1.7 in the Northern part of Europe. The decline in the employment rates in presence of children may suggest the difficulties mothers have to deal with in order to reconcile work and family. In such a context work/family reconciliation policies can play a crucial role.

The effectiveness of child care service represents a first important help for mothers. In all countries a remarkable difference exists between the availability of child care for children under 3 years of age and for children between 3 and 6 (table A8). Such a discrepancy is particularly strong in Italy, Greece and Spain, where the percentage of children under 3 using formal child care is below 7 per cent; in Sweden and Denmark it is 48 and 64 per cent respectively. On the contrary, the proportion of Italian children older than 3 in child care is relatively high (95 per cent), even relatively to Northern European countries.

Looking at maternity leave regulation, in Italy the maternity benefits and the length of maternity leave are quite generous and close to the European average.

A further important factor discriminating among countries is the firm's contribution to the reconciliation between work and family life. Overall, Austria and Germany show the highest proportion of women employees with a child under 15 reporting that extra-statutory family leave or child-care arrangements available in the companies where they work (table A9). The southern European countries present high percentages as well, while the Nordic countries, Ireland and UK are at the bottom. However, among the Southern European countries, Italy presents the lowest employer provision for child day-care<sup>3</sup>.

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<sup>3</sup> The high figures for the Netherlands reflect its system of partnership between parents, firms and the government in which firms are encouraged to buy places in privately-run child care centres, which they can provide to employees at reduced rates (Dobbelsteen *et al.*, 2000).

### **3. The main determinants of mothers' working status in the applied literature**

Work and family decisions are usually conditioned upon a broad set of factors. Preferences and social habits, flexibility of the labour market, informal helps, availability and prices of childcare are all elements that play a fundamental role in a mother's employment decision, especially in the very first years after childbearing.

We next present a short review of the main empirical results relating women's participation. For a more comprehensive review see, among others, Dex and Joshi (1999) and Jaumotte (2003).

A major aspect affecting employment patterns is women's human capital. A higher level of education is generally associated with a greater experience in the labour market, with higher wages and therefore with a greater work attachment (Bratti *et al.*, 2004, Dex *et al.*, 1998, Gutierrez-Domenech, 2003, Jaumotte, 2003). Also the family background may be an important determinant of the decision to participate in the labour market: for instance, the employment decisions of parents (mothers and mothers in law) was found to be a proxy for the couple's attitude towards women's work (Del Boca *et al.* 2000).

Cultural aspects may play an important role, too. The idea that young children suffer if their mother works is relatively widespread in many countries, and has an impact on the labour force participation of women at childbearing-age (Esveldt, 2003, OECD 2003b). Furthermore the traditional division of caring tasks among partners affects the time that mothers can spend working in the labour market and their employment decisions (Sleebos, 2003).

As to the labour market, the availability of part-time work opportunities tends to raise female participation (Addabbo, 2003, Bardasi and Gornik, 2000, Del Boca, 2000, 2002, Jaumotte, 2003). However, flexible contracts could increase occupational segregation by trapping atypical workers in low-paid positions with lower career opportunities, higher job insecurity, risk of social exclusion and risk of reinforcing the traditional gender distribution of total work (Addabbo, 2003). Moreover, Bratti, Del Bono and Vuri (2004) find that a higher degree of job stability and employment protection favours a stronger labour market attachment of new mothers. In particular, women with highly protected and stable jobs



(working in the public sector or in big private companies) have a much higher employment attachment than those who are less sheltered by the legislation.

Firms play a crucial role in the work/family reconciliation as well. Whatever public policy is undertaken, the detailed aspects of reconciliation are worked out at workplace level. In the worst cases, firms may discriminate against family members and deny them their rights under legislation. At the opposite, firms may decide to introduce favourable measures going beyond the existing legislation (OECD, 2001).

The female labour participation is also influenced by several forms of government support for families, such as: family taxation, parental leave, childcare subsidies and child benefits (Gutiérrez-Domènech, 2003, Palomba, 2003, OECD b, 2003).

Family taxation may represent an important leverage for helping mothers into paid employment. Lowering the marginal tax rate for second earners compared with single earners boosts female participation by increasing the return on married women's market work (Jaumotte, 2003).

Childcare subsidies in terms of places available and hours provided per day (which must be compatible with working hours) have a positive effect on women's labour supply (Chiuri, 2000, Del Boca, 1997, 2002, Del Boca *et al.*, 2000, 2004, Jaumotte, 2003, Gornick *et al.*, 1997). In Italy, the childcare system is characterised by extreme rigidity in the number of weekly hours available. This makes the service compatible with part-time work but not with full-time activities. Therefore the Italian child-care systems do not allow mothers to work on a full-time basis, and, since part-time opportunities are still very limited, this accounts for a very low participation rate of Italian women (Del Boca, 2000).

While childcare subsidies reduce the relative price of childcare and, therefore, increase the return to paid work, child benefits seem to reduce female participation due to an income effect and their lump-sum character (Jaumotte, 2003).

Various studies have shown that the provision of paid parental leave also tends to boost female labour participation, by helping women to reconcile work and family life (Ruhm 1998, Gupta and Smith 2002, Ronsen and Sundstöm 2002). However, taking parental leave for an extended period make it more difficult for women to return to work,

because it may deteriorate their labour market skills and damage future career paths and earnings (Jaumotte, 2003).

The support of relatives to the household is likely to affect the participation of mothers. Such a support may consist of financial transfers or time spent on child care or on house-work. Availability of family support – both in term of transfers and in the form of presence of relatives – increases both the probability of working and having children (Del Boca, 2000, Esveldt, 2003).

However, the presence of elderly relatives in the household may play a double role in explaining the work patterns of women: they can provide household services such as child care and domestic help, but they may also require unpaid help, discouraging the work participation of women (Marenzi and Pagani, 2003).

#### **4. The 2002 Italian Birth Sample Survey**

Our analysis uses data from the Italian Birth Sample Survey (IBSS), carried out for the first time between April and December 2002 by the Italian National Statistics Office, (ISTAT)<sup>4</sup>. The whole sample consists of 50,408 new births registered between the second half of 2000 and the first half of 2001, around 10 per cent of the total births in that period. Mothers were interviewed through a CATI technique in three waves, 18-21 months after delivery by a “short” questionnaire, containing the main socio-demographic information on the new born, the delivery and the parents. The results presented in the next sections are based on one third of the sample –16,789 mothers– interviewed with a “long” form, containing further sections about mothers’ working conditions before and after childbearing, the household composition, the formal and informal childcare networks and the division of household chores. Table A10 reports some descriptive statistics.

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<sup>4</sup> The Survey structure and main results are shown in Istat (2003, 2004a, 2004b,) and in Cnel-Istat (2003).

*Working status before childbirth* – Around 60 per cent of the IBSS new mothers were employed before childbirth, when they knew about pregnancy. This percentage is about 9 points higher than the one from the 2001 Labour Force Survey (LFS)<sup>5</sup>.

The IBSS average value presents a high variability across regions. The share of mothers working before childbirth was about 75 per cent in the Northern areas, 65 per cent in the Centre and 43 and 38 per cent respectively in the Islands and in the South (table A12). Such percentages are far above the corresponding ones resulting from the 2001 LFS (table A12). Some other differences between the two surveys emerge when looking at the composition of women employment. In particular, according to IBSS sample, only 8.6 of new mothers worked part-time before pregnancy, half the LFS figure (table A11). Moreover, in the IBSS data a higher share of them worked in the better protected public sector (17 per cent versus 14 per cent in the 2001 LFS)<sup>6</sup>.

All the above mentioned differences suggest that a selection process is probably at work, due to the correlation among fertility decisions and the current job status of women. As a matter of fact, it seems reasonable to assume that women with a higher degree of job instability prefer to postpone the event of having a baby. In our estimation we will try to control for such a selection process (section 5).

*Job transitions after delivery* – About 47 per cent of the IBSS new mothers were employed both before and after childbearing, showing a strong attachment to their job<sup>7</sup> (figure A2). At the opposite, 37 per cent of the new mothers remained out of the labour forces; 16 per cent had never experienced a job while 21 per cent had had at least a previous working experience. The remaining 16 per cent of new mothers changed their working status: 12 per cent lost the job around childbirth, while 4 per cent started working after delivery.

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<sup>5</sup> In the LFS the female employment rate is about 47 per cent between 15 and 49 years and 51 per cent between 20 and 40. A significant difference remains, even imposing on LFS data the same age structure of the IBSS.

<sup>6</sup> In particular the share of employed mothers in the IBSS is about 6 percentage points (pp) above the LFS one in the Northern regions; 10 pp in the Centre and more than 12 pp in South and Islands.

<sup>7</sup> About 42 per cent of new mothers maintained the same employer, while the remaining 5 per cent changed (Fig.A2).

The IBSS drop-out percentage is far above the one from the LFS: in the period 2001-2002, according to the Labour Force Survey, only about 6 per cent of women between 20 and 40 shifted to a non-employment status<sup>8</sup>. In both surveys, drop-out transitions increase for mothers working with temporary or without contract or working part-time during pregnancy. Nevertheless, for new mothers such percentages are significantly lower than those from labour force statistics.

In general, the balance resulting from flows of women entering the labour force and flows of women leaving it after childbirth is negative. A positive contribution is provided by part-time contracts: about 27 per cent of full time mothers shift to part-time, boosting the share of voluntary part-time from about 6 per cent to about 30 per cent. Part-time contracts probably represent the most attractive alternative to leaving the job. Unfortunately the opposite transition from part-time to full-time employment after childbirth only happens in less than 1 per cent of cases.

Among mothers still working after childbirth, the reconciliation between work and family life mainly relies on the help of grandparents. In 55 per cent of households, elderly provide a vital support in caring for children. Many families prefer to rely on the assistance of relatives. Moreover, the role played by relatives is particularly important for its characteristics of low cost associated to a high flexibility, features that are not always available in childcare services. Finally, grandparents may also provide a valuable support in carrying out house chores.

About 20 per of mothers use child care services (both public and privately run) and only 10 per cent use babysitters. According to the new mothers, the relatively limited use of childcare facilities depends on the cost (for private structures) and on the limited supply in terms of places available and of hours (in the case of public care).

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<sup>8</sup> In the LFS, the transitions are only available for a 1 year period.

## 5. The mothers' probability of not working 18-21 months after delivery

In this section we analyse the factors influencing the new mothers' risk of not working 18-21 months after delivery.<sup>9</sup>

The explanatory variables can be grouped in the following categories: 1) *mother's individual characteristics*, including age, nationality and level of education; 2) *spouse/live-in partner characteristics* (his employment position and level of education); 3) *composition of the household*, including the presence of grandparents contributing to caring for children<sup>10</sup>; 4) *mother's working status and attainment before childbirth*, such as the job position and the type of contract (part-time, full-time, fixed term); 5) *social services indicators* (the share of available places in nursery schools for children under 3, on a regional basis).

*Dealing with selection and endogeneity* – When studying the new mothers' employment patterns with the IBSS data, the main problem to deal with is the potential correlation between fertility and employment decisions. Such a correlation may cause both selection bias and endogeneity. In the IBSS, the employment patterns are observed only for mothers. The unavailability of a control group of women without children could result in biased estimates if a selection process underlying the fertility decision is at work and is ignored<sup>11</sup>. In order to test for selection we applied a procedure based on Heckman (1979),

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<sup>9</sup> The dependent variable is a dummy indicating whether the woman is inactive/unemployed. Unlike in the LF, in the IBSS the new mothers' employment status is stated by the women themselves. In addition, in the Labour Force Survey some more questions are devoted to reduce such general potential labour supply to people actively looking for a job in the preceding 60 days and really wishing to start working immediately. Therefore the two measures of unemployment could be quite different.

<sup>10</sup> Unfortunately the data do not permit to individuate the presence of elderly needing assistance. It is not therefore possible to distinguish and measure the twofold care-giving and care-demanding role of elderly persons.

<sup>11</sup> In the IBSS data, the sample selection problem could heavily bias the estimates of the new mothers' probability to work 18-21 months after the childbirth. Let's consider, for example, a very extreme situation in which women's working conditions are either fully protected (as in the public sector) or not protected at all (as in the case of fixed-term contract with a small private firm). If the degree of protection was the only determinant of having children –total sample selection– only women benefiting from a high degree of job protection would have a significant probability to have a child. As a consequence, the sample would be mainly composed of mothers working in protected sectors and most of them would retain their job after childbirth. Ignoring such a selection process, would probably lead to wrong conclusions (for example, according to the data, the employment protection legislation would hardly affect new mothers employment patterns). The existence of sample selection bias would therefore result in a unusually high share of mothers working in public sector or with an open end contract.

using external data to estimate the probability of having a child given a set of mother's characteristics (age, level of education, geographical area, marital status and partners' employment status). Therefore we tested the significance of the "inverse mills ratio" computed for the mothers in the sample, using as external data the Survey on Household Income and Wealth (Bank of Italy). The hypothesis of no selection was accepted with a significance level of 0.18<sup>12</sup>. The second potential estimation problem is the endogeneity of the variable discriminating whether mothers are at the first child or not. In order to test it we used a *bivariate probit* to jointly model the probability of working and the probability of a second (or higher order) birth. The estimated correlation among the errors of the two models was not significantly different from zero (p-value=0.85).

*The probability of not working* – In the IBSS, the time length of 18-21 months after childbirth is the only available period for studying mothers' employment patterns. However, this period is also the most informative, given the Italian maternity leave legislation – covering at most 12 months after delivery – and considering some other previous results about women career interruptions<sup>13</sup>.

The unconditional average probability for new mothers of not working after the delivery is about 49 per cent. As expected an increase in the age of the mother reduces this probability (see Table 1). By contrast, mothers under 24 seem to face greatest difficulties: their average probability of not working is about 70 per cent (21 points below the average).

The level of education plays an important role too. The higher it is, the smaller the probability of not working: on average, a mother with a university degree is about 7 percentage point more likely to work than a mother with compulsory education only. On

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<sup>12</sup> A similar resultsis presented in Bratti, Del Bono and Vuri (2004) . In order to test for selection into motherhood, the authors estimate a probit model with sample selection, where the selection equation is represented by the decision of having a first child and the main equation is represented by the employment equation . In none of the specifications of their model they found a significant correlation between the error terms of the employment and fertility equations..

<sup>13</sup> As documented in Solera (2003), Italian women are unlikely to experience a career break more than once in their lives, and this usually occurs in correspondence with the birth of the first child. Moreover, Bratti et. al (2004) analysing the new mothers' employment decisions during the 3-years period following the birth of the first child, found that the probabilities of employment are very similar in each tear of observation.

the other hand, neither the nationality of the mother<sup>14</sup> nor the educational level of the father are significant.

The risk of not working after birth is larger for first-time mothers and for mothers with a child under 3. Such a result may reflect the fact that mothers with at least one previous child (youngest over 3) are likely to have organised a network that enables them to keep working. Therefore the arrival of a new baby has a lower impact on their employment patterns.

The most important effect is due to the mother's employment status before childbirth. An inherited non working status is very persistent, almost completely persistent for housewives and students without any previous working experience<sup>15</sup>. Compared to those mothers, the chance to find a new job significantly increases for women with some past working experience before childbirth.

At the opposite, mothers with a high level of job attainment (managers and entrepreneurs) and mothers benefiting from the employment protection provided by the public sector show a high attachment to their profession. A possible explanation lays in the high implicit costs they would have to face if they had to leave their job. The importance of employment protection is also confirmed by the magnitude of the coefficients relating the type of contract. Working mothers with part-time or temporary contracts have a significantly higher probability of not working after childbirth compared to mothers with full time with a permanent position. The unemployment risk increases by 16 per cent in case of part-time and of 23 per cent for mothers working part-time and with a fixed-term contract.

The availability of nursery schools reduces the risk of not working by 25 per cent. The family network the new mother lives in has a great influence as well. The presence of grandparents who can take care of the child increases the probability of working by about 38 per cent. Of course, the presence of elderly relatives could imply that women have to

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<sup>14</sup> Probably both the unconditioned negative effect of a foreign nationality and the unconditioned positive effect of the fathers' education are captured in the estimations by the correlated mothers' education. See Fernandez (2001a, 2001b) about the sorting effect between spouses' incomes and education levels.

<sup>15</sup> For such groups, the estimated probabilities of not being working are around 95 per cent.

devote time for caring for residing and/or non residing elderly relatives. Although such an effect can not be estimated, previous research shows that the positive effect is larger than the negative one due to the need to care for the elderly (Marenzi and Pagani, 2003).

Table 1

**PROBABILITY OF NOT WORKING 18-21 MONTHS AFTER CHILDBIRTH**  
(marginal effects)

Variable	Marginal effect	95 per cent confidence interval <sup>(*)</sup>	
<b>Mother's personal characteristics</b>			
<b>Age at the birth</b> (reference: 14 – 24)			
25 – 29 .....	-1.1%	-3.3%	1.0%
30 –34 .....	-1.3%	-3.4%	0.9%
35 – 39 .....	-2.4%	-4.7%	0.0%
40 – 49 .....	-3.3%	-6.2%	-0.4%
<b>Education</b> (reference: compulsory or not formal schooling)			
High school .....	-2.5%	-3.8%	-1.1%
University degree .....	-6.9%	-9.6%	-4.3%
<b>Nationality</b> (reference: Italian)			
Foreign .....	0.0%	-1.8%	3.9%
<b>Children before pregnancy</b> (reference: childless)			
Youngest child 0-2 years old .....	-2.2%	-5.9%	1.3%
Youngest child 3-5 years old .....	-2.1%	-3.8%	-0.5%
Youngest child over 6 .....	-3.5%	-4.1%	-1.0%
<b>Employment status 6 months before childbirth</b> (reference: other inactive)			
Unemployed			
Housewife without working experience .....	33.7%	24.9%	42.5%
Housewife with working experience .....	12.1%	8.6%	15.6%
Student without working experience .....	47.5%	41.2%	53.7%
Student with working experience .....	7.9%	3.2%	12.7%
Employed in Private Sector			
Cadre or manager .....	-17.0%	-22.7%	-11.3%
Office worker or school teacher .....	-14.8%	-17.2%	-12.3%
Factory worker .....	-11.1%	-13.7%	-8.6%
Entrepreneur .....	-18.3%	-28.3%	-8.3%
Member of arts or professions .....	-17.9%	-22.1%	-13.6%
Sole proprietor and other self-employed.....	-13.9%	-16.8%	-11.0%
Employed in Public Sector .....	-24.2%	-27.8%	-20.6%
<b>Type of contract</b> (reference: permanent status, working full time/ inactive)			
Permanent status working part-time .....	16.2%	12.2%	20.3%
Fixed term contract working full-time .....	7.3%	4.9%	9.6%
Fixed term contract working part-time .....	22.9%	19.2%	26.7%
<b>Partner's personal characteristics</b>			
<b>Working status</b> (reference: Not employed/single mother)			
Office worker .....	3.7%	0.8%	6.6%
Cadre or manager .....	6.7%	2.8%	10.6%
Entrepreneur or Self-employed.....	5.6%	2.6%	8.6%
<b>Education</b> (reference: compulsory or not formal schooling)			
High school .....	-0.9%	-2.2%	0.5%
University degree .....	-2.0%	-4.6%	0.5%
<b>Principal residence by tenure</b> (reference: not rented)			
Rented or sublet.....	-1.5%	-3.1%	0.0%
<b>Childcare</b>			
Grandparents helping with child .....	-37.9%	-40.3%	-35.5%
Availability of nursery school .....	-24.7%	-27.8%	-21.7%
<b>Regional characteristics</b>			
Child Care system <sup>(**)</sup> .....	-0.4%	-0.5%	-0.2%
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.68		

<sup>(\*)</sup> Standard errors are computed taking into account the intra-class correlation among units belonging to the same municipality. <sup>(\*\*)</sup> Proportion of young children (0-2) using public child care.



## 6. The determinants of voluntary transition to non-employment after childbirth

In this section we focus on the determinants of mothers' voluntarily withdrawal from labour market. The sample consists of 9,833 mothers who were working before childbirth. The dependent variable is a dummy indicating whether the mother declared to have voluntarily left her job (and is not actually working after delivery). In the sample it happens in 14 per cent of cases. The decision to leave is mainly motivated by "the need to spend more time with children" (61 per cent) or by the "difficulties in reconciling work and family life" (20 per cent).

Table 2 summarises the results of the analysis. As to the employment status, employees show a higher propensity towards leaving their job than the self-employed. For entrepreneurs the probability of voluntary exits reduces by 12 per cent, while for factory workers increase by 5 per cent.

The degree of job stability and protection confirms its importance in helping mothers into paid employment. For mothers working in the public sector the average exit probability is 5 per cent (about one third of the overall mean). By contrast, in the sector of trade and services such a probability increases by 2 points. A stronger effect is produced by part-time contracts that increase the exit probability of 20 per cent on average<sup>16</sup>.

Among demographic characteristics, age and level of education show the strongest influence. For mothers under 24 the probability of leaving their job is 25 per cent (twice the average); the latter probability jumps to 53 per cent for those who can not benefit of any help from family or public services.

The level of education confirms its importance not only for entering the labour market, but also for deciding not to leave it after childbirth. For mothers with a university degree this risk decreases by about 6 per cent compared to mothers with lower education. As in the previous analysis, the probability of withdrawing is higher on average for first-time mothers and mothers with a previous child under 3.

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<sup>16</sup> At the opposite, fixed-term contracts don't seem to have an appreciable impact. This is not surprising because of the dependent variable. In the analysis, if the contract expires and it is not renewed, it is not classified as resignation.

The partner's working status has some influence on mothers' decisions. When the partner is a manager, an entrepreneur or a self-employed person the probability of voluntarily leaving increases in a range of about 2-3 per cent. Single mothers, *ceteris paribus*, are characterised by a higher probability of not leaving their job, probably because they cannot rely on the economic support of a spouse or a partner.

The presence of grandparents who can take care of the child and the availability of a nursery school significantly prevent mothers' withdrawal ; the exit probability decreases by about 23 and 16 per cent respectively. Moreover, the chance of leaving the labour market decreases in areas with a better supply of child care services.

Table 2

**PROBABILITY OF VOLUNTARY LEAVE AFTER CHILDBIRTH**  
(marginal effects)

Variable	Marginal effect	95 per cent Confidence interval <sup>(*)</sup>	
<b>Mother's personal characteristics (during pregnancy)</b>			
<b>Age</b> (reference: 14 – 24)			
25 – 29 .....	-1.6%	-4.1%	0.8%
30 –34 .....	-2.9%	-5.5%	-0.2%
35 – 39.....	-3.1%	-5.9%	-0.3%
40 – 49.....	-4.2%	-7.6%	-0.8%
<b>Education</b> (reference: compulsory or not formal schooling)			
High school .....	-2.9%	-4.8%	-1.0%
University degree .....	-5.4%	-8.4%	-2.4%
<b>Nationality</b> (reference: Italian)			
Foreign .....	1.9%	0.0%	3.8%
<b>Children (reference: childless)</b>			
Youngest child 0-2 years old .....	-2.2%	-6.3%	1.9%
Youngest child 3-5 years old .....	-2.1%	-4.5%	0.3%
Youngest child over 6 .....	-3.5%	-5.6%	-1.4%
<b>Employment status before childbirth</b>			
Employed in Private Sector (reference: Office worker)			
Cadre or manager .....	-1.5%	-8.4%	5.3%
Factory worker.....	4.8%	2.8%	6.9%
Entrepreneur .....	-12.2%	-14.3%	-10.1%
Member of arts or professions .....	-7.5%	-12.9%	-2.2%
Sole proprietor and other self-employed.....	-3.1%	-6.1%	-0.2%
Employed in Public Sector .....	-6.3%	-9.1%	-3.5%
Employed in services/ commerce sector.....	1.9%	0.0%	3.8%
<b>Type of contract</b> (reference: permanent status, working full time /inactive)			
Permanent status working part-time .....	19.5%	15.3%	23.7%
Fixed term contract working full-time .....	-1.0%	-3.4%	1.4%
Fixed term contract working part-time .....	10.2%	6.1%	14.2%
<b>Partner's personal characteristics</b>			
<b>Working status</b> (reference: Not employed/single mother)			
Office worker .....	5.3%	1.6%	9.0%
Cadre or manager .....	7.9%	2.7%	13.2%
Entrepreneur or Self-employed.....	8.5%	5.0%	12.1%
<b>Education</b> (reference: compulsory or not formal schooling)			
High school .....	-1.4%	-3.1%	0.3%
University degree .....	-2.5%	-5.8%	0.8%
<b>Principal residence by tenure</b> (reference: not rented)			

Rented or sublet .....	-1.6%	-3.5%	0.3%
<b>Childcare</b>			
Grandparents helping with child .....	-23.2%	-24.8%	-21.5%
Availability of nursery school .....	-16.1%	-17.4%	-14.9%
<b>Environmental characteristics</b>			
Child Care system <sup>(**)</sup> .....	-0.4%	-0.6%	-0.2%
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.40		

<sup>(\*)</sup> Standard errors are computed taking into account the intra-class correlation among units belonging to the same municipality. <sup>(\*\*)</sup> Proportion of young children (0-2) using public child care.

## 7. Concluding remarks and open issues for the policy

Among European countries, Italy stands out for combining one of the lowest female employment rates with one of the highest long term unemployment rate. Even the remarkable increase in female participation experienced since 1995 is insufficient to close the gap with other European countries, especially in the Southern regions. In this paper we focused on the employment patterns of Italian mothers around childbirth. Our results show that the difficulties in reconciling work and family are an important cause of the low female participation rate in Italy.

*Main findings.* In the two years period surrounding childbirth, 20 per cent of women working before pregnancy leave the labour market, while only a 4 per cent start working after delivery. Most of the drop-out probability –about 70 per cent– is due to voluntary leave, while one fourth comes from women without a contract, with a previous temporary job or because of firm’s bankruptcy.

Both the risk of not working and of voluntary leave after childbirth vary according to a similar set of characteristics. The care-giving role played by elderly relatives is probably one of the key factors fostering the probability of remaining in the labour market. A second important factor is the availability of public care facilities, that relieves from the burden of caring for the children.

The human capital variables have a significant influence on helping mothers into paid employment. As the education and the job attainment levels increase, the unemployment and voluntary exit probabilities fall, probably because of the high implicit costs mothers have to face leaving their job.

Work attachment also grows with the degree of job protection. For mothers working in the public sector the probability of not working after delivery decreases of about 25 per cent. At the opposite, for mothers with part-time and fixed term jobs, the probability increases by 23 per cent.

However, part-time contracts have a positive net effect on the employment rate. Nevertheless, some point are worth noting. At one hand, part-time contracts may represent for mothers the only available alternative to unemployment. In the sample about 25 per cent of women shifted form full time to part-time in order to conciliate family and work (and the share of voluntary part-time jumps from 6 per cent to 29 per cent after childbirth). By contrast, for mothers working part-time during pregnancy the probabilities of unemployment and of voluntary exit increase by 16 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. It is worth noting that for such mothers the unemployment risk is well above the chance of remaining into paid employment either with part-time or full-time contracts. A possible explanation lays in the fact that a part-time employment may also be an indicator of lower labour market attachment. Moreover, in most cases the low attractiveness of such jobs in terms of remuneration, working hours and self-fulfilment may convince mothers that is not convenient to stay in employment.

Lastly, mother's age plays an important role. In particular, mothers under 24 seem to face great difficulties in reconciling work and family. Their average probability of not working is about 70 per cent (the average is 49 per cent) and the probability of voluntarily leaving their job is about 25 per cent (twice the average); the latter probability jumps to 53 per cent for those who can not benefit of any help from family or public services.

*Some issues for the policy.* According to a survey conducted by the European Commission in 1998, the wide diffusion in Italy of the so called *bread-winner* model, which heavily transfers on the family all the labour market and social policy inefficiencies, does not fully reflect the preferences of Italian women. Indeed, it is likely to be caused by the existence of external difficulties mothers have to cope with. Even the increase in female participation Italy has been experiencing since 1995 is not sufficient to close the gap between actual and desired status.

Moreover, in the last decade women tend to experience many life events (such as the first working experience, the inclusion in a more stable and protected segment of the labour

market and the retirement) at a later stage of their life. As a consequence, the age at the first child tends to grow, reducing the probability of a second birth and raising many open issues for social policies.

*Which is the time horizon for new measures sustaining mothers' employment?* The time span of 2-3 years after childbirth is probably the most relevant. Previous researches show that Italian mothers are not likely to experience more than one career break in their life and our results prove that the probability of a drop-out during 2 years after delivery is very high. Moreover, around that time households are generally considering the possibility to have a second child.

*Which are the main inefficiencies of the Italian social policies for the family?* The inefficiencies of the Italian overall welfare policies apply. Namely, the absence of a general purpose protection network, together with peculiarities of specific sectors where the new mothers work. Overall, the analysis conveys the picture of a 'dual' labour market where at one side there is an extremely high degree of protection for, say, one third of women working in the public sector and in few large firms. In those sectors, mothers find it easier to combine career and family. On the other side, there is an almost complete absence of protection – excluding few months of income integration – for women not previously working, or working in the underground economy or with fixed-term contracts. In the period surrounding a childbirth, those mothers who are less sheltered by the legislation are more likely to withdraw from the labour market.

As to the child care services, our results point out the vital importance of the availability of nursery schools for babies below 3 years, the period when mothers' employment decisions (inclusion or exclusion) are made. In Italy the availability of such child-care arrangements is one of the lowest in Europe and it is unevenly distributed, with acceptable levels only in the Centre and the North. Even when public child-care are available, there are strong rigidities in the number of weekly hours available. This makes the service compatible with part-time work but not with full-time activities (or with works during the weekend, or with production shifts). The Italian excellent coverage of public child-care for babies above 3 is very positive from the educational point of view, but unfortunately does not help mothers employability.

*Can the market compensate for such public inefficiencies?* Our results indicate that, at present, the use of private services such as baby-sitting and private nursery schools, is very limited among households. Only 10 per cent of mothers use private nursery schools which are not always available and quite expensive. About the same figure uses baby-sitters, for which there is no official register; most of them are not qualified and often helping with household chores or taking care of elderly relatives.

*Is the “care-giving role” of the enlarged family positive?* As a substitute to social public policy for mothers, the care-giving role played by elderly relatives is probably the main help to remain active in the labour market. The fact that mothers heavily rely on the help provided by grandparents may create some concerns. From an education point of view, it could be preferable for children not to spend their whole time with relatives and to start interacting with other children since from an early age. Moreover, the retirement age postponement will reduce the supply of informal childcare.

*Which are the effects of the increasing labour market flexibility?* The positive effects of flexibility are twofold. The first consists in improving the probability to find the first job at an early age. This is an advantage since our results show that any past working experience can increase the chances of working after childbirth. The second consists in giving mothers in full-time jobs an alternative to unemployment. However our results suggest that part-time or other flexible contracts may have some drawbacks. In our view, flexibility could be mostly positive if the initial low paid and uncertain job constitutes a way to get better protected and appealing jobs. At the opposite, it becomes mostly negative if the segregation in the low-skilled and low-paid works, happens and is maintained around the age of 30, which is the average age at the first child. A high uncertainty about working and earnings conditions at that age is very likely to force mother to choose between family or work. According to our data, the risk of mothers’ segregation into low-paid and low-attractive jobs seems to be well grounded. About 27 per cent of full-time mothers shift to part-time after delivery and their probability of returning to full-time employment is around 1 per cent, while the probability of exiting labour market is around 70 per cent.

Therefore, part-time is an important instrument for helping mothers in the 2-3 years period around childbearing, but policy should aim at fostering better access to full-time jobs, or reduce the negative future career consequences of a period spent in part-time work.



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## Appendix A: Statistical tables

Table A1

**Trends of Female Labour Force Participation (1991-2001)**  
(percentages)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Employment rate (% population aged 15-64)										
Austria.....	..	..	..	58.9	59.1	58.4	58.6	58.8	59.6	59.6	60.1
Belgium.....	42.9	44.3	44.5	44.6	45.1	45.4	46.5	47.6	50.4	51.5	50.5
Denmark .....	69.9	69.8	68.2	66.9	66.7	67.4	69.1	70.2	71.1	71.6	72.0
Finland.....	68.3	63.7	59.5	58.7	59.0	59.4	60.3	61.2	63.4	64.3	65.4
France.....	51.4	51.4	51.5	51.6	52.1	52.2	52.4	53.0	53.9	55.1	56.1
Germany .....	..	55.9	55.1	55.1	55.3	55.3	55.3	55.8	57.1	57.9	58.8
Greece.....	35.4	36.2	36.6	37.3	38.1	38.7	39.3	40.2	40.6	41.2	40.9
Ireland.....	35.9	37.1	38.5	40.1	41.6	43.2	45.9	49.0	52.0	54.1	55.0
Italy.....	..	..	35.8	35.4	35.4	36.0	36.4	37.3	38.3	39.6	41.1
Luxembourg.....	44.0	45.7	44.8	44.4	42.6	43.8	45.3	46.2	48.6	50.1	50.9
Netherlands .....	48.9	51.1	51.9	52.9	53.6	55.3	57.4	59.5	61.5	63.5	65.2
Portugal .....	56.9	56.0	55.1	54.4	54.3	54.7	56.1	58.0	59.4	60.3	61.1
Spain.....	31.2	31.2	30.3	30.3	31.2	32.3	33.6	35.0	37.6	40.3	41.9
Sweden.....	77.2	74.4	70.5	69.1	69.2	68.3	66.6	66.6	68.4	69.1	70.4
United Kingdom.....	61.6	61.4	61.4	61.5	61.8	62.5	63.2	63.6	64.2	64.8	65.1
EU.....	50.2	49.8	49.3	49.3	49.7	50.1	50.6	51.5	52.8	54.0	54.9
	Activity rate (% population aged 15-64)										
Austria.....	..	..	..	61.4	61.8	61.2	61.5	61.6	62.1	62.1	62.5
Belgium.....	48.2	49.4	50.4	51.2	51.7	52.1	52.9	54.0	56.3	56.4	54.2
Denmark .....	78.9	78.9	77.6	74.7	74.0	74.2	74.7	75.6	76.1	75.6	75.9
Finland.....	72.0	70.5	69.6	69.0	69.5	69.8	69.4	69.6	71.1	71.9	72.4
France.....	58.1	58.5	59.2	59.8	60.3	60.8	61.1	61.2	61.8	62.2	62.3
Germany .....	..	61.0	60.8	61.3	61.3	61.4	61.8	62.2	62.9	63.2	63.8
Greece.....	40.7	41.8	42.5	43.4	44.6	45.8	46.6	48.6	49.7	49.7	48.7
Ireland.....	42.8	43.8	45.6	46.7	47.3	48.7	51.1	52.9	55.0	56.5	57.1
Italy.....	..	..	41.9	41.9	42.3	43.0	43.5	44.6	45.5	46.3	47.3
Luxembourg.....	45.0	47.1	46.4	46.4	44.6	45.9	47.1	48.1	50.3	51.6	52.0
Netherlands .....	54.0	55.4	56.3	57.6	58.6	60.0	61.6	63.0	64.4	66.0	67.1
Portugal .....	60.6	59.1	59.2	59.4	59.4	60.0	61.1	62.0	62.8	63.7	64.6
Spain.....	41.1	42.0	42.9	44.2	45.1	46.0	46.9	47.7	49.0	50.8	51.7
Sweden.....	79.3	77.8	75.9	74.8	75.0	74.8	73.3	72.2	73.3	72.9	73.4
United Kingdom.....	66.6	66.5	66.6	66.5	66.3	66.8	67.2	67.3	67.8	68.1	68.1
EU.....	55.8	55.9	56.1	56.5	56.8	57.3	57.8	58.4	59.2	59.8	60.2

Source: European Commission, 2002

.. data not available

Table A2

**Trends of Male Labour Force Participation (1991-2001)**  
(percentages)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Employment rate (% population aged 15-64)										
Austria.....	..	..	..	77.8	78.4	77.3	77.1	77.0	77.5	77.3	76.7
Belgium.....	68.7	68.2	67.1	66.7	67.0	66.9	67.1	67.1	68.1	69.5	69.1
Denmark .....	78.4	77.4	75.8	77.5	79.9	80.1	80.5	79.9	80.8	80.8	80.2
Finland.....	72.6	66.9	62.8	62.2	64.4	65.6	66.3	67.9	69.2	70.2	70.9
France .....	69.7	68.7	67.3	66.8	67.2	67.0	66.9	67.2	67.9	69.1	70.3
Germany .....	0.0	76.7	74.9	74.1	73.7	72.6	71.9	71.9	72.4	72.7	72.6
Greece.....	72.6	72.4	72.1	72.4	72.5	72.7	72.1	71.6	70.9	71.1	70.8
Ireland.....	66.5	65.1	64.8	65.9	67.1	67.5	69.0	72.0	74.5	76.2	76.4
Italy .....	..	..	68.7	67.2	66.4	66.4	66.2	66.6	67.1	67.9	68.5
Luxembourg .....	77.1	76.5	76.4	74.9	74.4	74.3	74.3	74.5	74.5	75.0	74.8
Netherlands.....	75.7	75.9	74.9	74.6	75.2	76.3	78.3	79.8	80.5	82.1	82.8
Portugal .....	79.9	77.6	74.9	73.1	71.6	71.5	72.5	75.6	75.8	76.5	76.9
Spain.....	67.7	65.1	61.2	60.1	60.9	61.6	63.0	65.3	67.9	69.7	70.9
Sweden.....	79.1	75.0	70.2	69.4	70.5	70.3	69.6	70.8	71.6	72.2	70.3
United Kingdom.....	78.5	75.9	74.5	74.7	75.2	75.6	76.7	77.4	77.7	78.1	78.3
EU.....	74.3	72.5	70.7	70.1	70.2	70.1	70.3	71.0	71.7	72.5	73.0
	Activity rate (% population aged 15-64)										
Austria.....	..	..	..	80.4	81.0	80.4	80.3	80.2	80.5	79.9	79.4
Belgium.....	72.2	72.0	71.8	72.3	72.5	72.4	72.5	72.8	73.4	73.7	73.5
Denmark .....	86.5	85.8	85.1	84.2	85.4	85.2	84.8	83.8	84.9	84.2	83.8
Finland.....	79.0	77.4	76.6	76.0	76.4	76.5	75.7	76.2	76.8	77.3	77.6
France .....	75.4	75.3	75.0	74.9	75.0	75.2	75.1	75.1	75.3	75.1	74.8
Germany .....	..	80.9	80.2	80.1	79.6	79.3	79.2	79.2	79.2	78.8	78.8
Greece.....	76.4	76.4	76.6	77.2	77.5	77.5	77.2	77.3	77.1	76.9	76.2
Ireland.....	78.6	76.8	76.6	76.8	76.4	76.2	77.0	78.2	79.0	79.7	79.7
Italy .....	0.0	0.0	74.4	73.6	73.1	73.0	72.9	73.4	73.7	74.0	74.1
Luxembourg .....	78.0	77.8	78.0	77.1	76.1	76.1	75.8	75.9	75.9	76.3	76.0
Netherlands.....	79.9	79.4	79.4	79.8	79.9	80.3	81.7	82.4	82.7	84.1	84.3
Portugal .....	82.2	80.4	78.7	77.9	76.7	76.7	77.4	78.9	79.0	79.2	79.6
Spain.....	77.2	76.1	75.6	75.1	74.5	74.9	75.1	75.8	76.5	77.3	78.0
Sweden.....	82.0	80.5	78.9	78.1	78.4	78.6	78.1	78.3	78.0	77.0	76.9
United Kingdom.....	86.9	85.9	84.9	84.2	83.7	83.5	83.4	83.1	83.3	83.1	83.0
EU.....	79.7	78.9	78.3	78.0	77.7	77.7	77.7	77.9	78.1	78.1	78.1

Source: European Commission, 2002  
.. data not available

**Trends of Female Labour Force Participation by age (1991-2001)**  
(percentages)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Employment rate (% population aged 15-24)										
Austria.....	..	..	..	56.6	53.5	51.7	50.8	50.4	49.2	48.0	47.0
Belgium.....	29.9	30.0	26.8	25.5	24.3	22.9	22.4	23.1	25.1	25.4	28.3
Denmark .....	62.5	62.0	60.1	59.9	61.4	62.5	64.2	65.8	62.7	63.3	60.0
Finland.....	45.8	37.3	30.8	28.5	28.4	29.4	32.6	34.0	38.3	40.0	40.6
France.....	28.8	27.3	25.5	24.0	23.4	22.7	22.4	23.2	24.3	25.6	25.7
Germany .....	..	52.3	49.8	48.1	45.7	43.0	42.1	42.7	43.7	43.7	44.4
Greece.....	22.6	21.8	21.1	20.6	20.3	20.0	20.0	22.1	21.9	22.4	22.0
Ireland.....	36.5	35.1	35.4	35.8	35.5	35.2	38.8	42.4	45.8	46.9	45.8
Italy.....	..	..	23.2	21.8	20.9	20.4	20.3	20.7	21.3	22.1	22.1
Luxembourg.....	48.3	47.8	43.6	41.0	36.9	34.8	32.1	30.8	29.4	28.8	30.8
Netherlands .....	53.7	55.4	54.1	54.2	53.9	54.2	56.3	59.8	63.3	67.3	69.6
Portugal .....	44.7	40.8	36.8	34.4	31.8	30.9	32.9	38.8	38.7	37.1	37.7
Spain.....	25.2	23.5	20.4	19.4	19.6	19.3	20.3	21.2	23.9	26.2	26.9
Sweden.....	50.5	44.6	36.7	35.4	35.4	32.7	31.1	31.4	32.8	34.8	37.8
United Kingdom.....	59.8	57.4	55.0	53.7	53.2	54.1	54.7	54.8	54.6	54.7	54.3
EU.....	41.4	39.1	36.3	34.9	34.0	33.2	33.4	34.5	35.7	36.7	37.1
	Employment rate (% population aged 25-54)										
Austria.....	..	..	..	68.9	70.2	70.3	71.1	71.4	73.1	73.8	74.5
Belgium.....	56.4	58.1	59.0	59.2	60.0	60.7	61.8	62.8	65.8	67.2	65.5
Denmark .....	79.0	78.6	76.9	75.1	75.4	75.7	76.7	77.6	79.2	79.8	80.6
Finland.....	82.2	77.9	73.8	73.4	73.5	74.0	74.6	75.6	77.1	77.3	78.1
France.....	66.1	66.4	66.8	67.0	67.6	67.7	67.7	68.3	69.0	70.1	71.2
Germany .....	24.9	24.4	24.6	25.2	25.6	25.5	25.1	24.8	25.9	26.7	26.7
Greece.....	44.8	46.4	47.1	48.2	49.1	49.9	50.8	51.4	51.8	52.5	52.7
Ireland.....	39.9	42.2	44.2	46.5	49.0	51.3	53.7	57.1	60.1	62.6	64.2
Italy.....	..	..	46.6	46.3	46.6	47.3	47.6	48.5	49.6	50.9	52.8
Luxembourg.....	50.8	53.0	52.8	52.9	51.4	53.9	56.1	56.9	60.5	63.0	63.8
Netherlands .....	54.7	57.3	58.8	60.0	61.0	63.1	65.6	67.7	69.4	70.8	72.5
Portugal .....	67.9	67.8	68.5	68.4	68.8	69.2	70.3	70.7	72.1	73.9	74.7
Spain.....	38.4	38.8	38.5	38.9	40.2	41.9	43.4	44.8	47.6	50.7	52.5
Sweden.....	88.4	86.0	82.8	81.2	81.3	80.2	78.6	78.3	80.1	80.6	81.3
United Kingdom.....	68.4	68.7	69.1	69.4	69.6	70.5	71.3	71.8	72.7	73.2	73.5
EU.....	60.5	60.5	60.4	60.5	61.1	61.8	62.4	63.2	64.6	65.9	66.8

Source: European Commission, 2002

.. data not available

Table A4

**Trends of Female Labour Force Participation by type of contract (1991-2001)**  
(percentages)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Part-time employment (% total employment)										
Austria.....	26.5	26.5	26.5	26.0	27.4	27.6	28.5	30.5	32.2	32.2	34.1
Belgium.....	31.0	31.9	32.2	32.3	33.8	34.7	35.9	37.7	40.2	40.5	36.8
Denmark .....	37.8	37.1	37.0	35.0	35.4	34.7	34.9	35.5	34.8	34.1	31.7
Finland.....	13.6	13.7	14.8	14.9	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.9	16.9	17.0	16.8
France.....	23.9	25.2	26.9	28.3	29.1	30.0	31.2	31.6	31.4	30.8	30.4
Germany .....	30.2	30.9	32.1	33.2	33.7	33.9	35.3	36.4	37.3	38.2	39.2
Greece.....	7.3	8.1	7.7	8.0	8.4	8.7	8.5	10.0	9.9	7.8	7.1
Ireland.....	17.6	18.7	20.8	21.5	22.4	22.0	25.2	30.0	30.0	30.1	30.5
Italy .....	11.8	11.8	11.2	12.0	12.7	12.9	13.4	14.2	15.6	16.5	16.6
Luxembourg .....	16.1	16.3	17.6	20.5	21.8	20.5	21.0	22.0	24.0	25.1	26.1
Netherlands.....	60.9	64.0	64.9	66.3	67.6	68.3	67.9	68.1	69.1	71.0	71.3
Portugal.....	13.1	12.3	12.5	13.1	13.1	14.7	16.8	17.1	16.7	16.3	16.1
Spain.....	11.2	13.5	14.3	14.8	16.2	16.6	17.1	16.9	17.1	16.9	16.8
Sweden.....	42.8	43.1	43.7	43.7	43.0	41.9	41.4	40.5	39.3	36.1	36.4
United Kingdom.....	..	..	..	44.6	44.5	44.7	44.7	44.5	44.2	44.6	44.1
EU.....	..	..	..	30.6	31.3	31.6	32.3	32.9	33.2	33.4	33.4
	Temporary contracts (% total employment)										
Austria.....	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9	8.1	8.1	7.7	8.0	8.8	9.4
Belgium.....	8.4	7.9	7.8	7.7	7.7	8.3	9.2	11.2	13.2	12.3	12.4
Denmark .....	12.1	11.6	11.8	12.4	12.6	11.4	11.0	10.6	10.7	11.1	10.7
Finland.....	20.9	20.9	20.9	20.9	20.9	20.9	20.9	20.5	19.7	19.7	19.9
France.....	12.1	12.4	12.7	12.8	13.6	14.1	14.6	15.0	15.5	16.4	16.3
Germany .....	11.0	11.1	10.9	11.0	11.1	11.4	12.1	12.6	13.3	13.0	12.7
Greece.....	12.3	9.4	9.7	9.5	10.0	10.5	11.1	13.4	13.9	15.5	15.0
Ireland.....	11.6	11.9	12.0	11.7	12.2	12.0	11.8	9.3	6.3	5.7	4.6
Italy .....	9.4	9.4	8.2	8.6	9.3	8.8	9.4	10.3	11.5	12.2	11.9
Luxembourg .....	4.6	4.7	5.3	6.0	5.6	4.7	5.1	5.2	5.2	6.6	6.6
Netherlands.....	11.5	14.1	14.6	14.8	14.6	15.7	15.2	15.9	15.6	16.8	17.4
Portugal.....	17.2	16.2	14.4	13.8	13.8	14.7	17.0	19.0	20.7	22.3	22.8
Spain.....	38.3	38.9	37.2	37.6	38.0	36.5	35.5	34.6	35.0	34.2	34.2
Sweden.....	10.2	10.6	10.9	12.2	13.3	13.2	14.0	15.1	15.9	16.2	16.0
United Kingdom.....	..	..	..	8.0	8.3	8.5	8.8	8.5	7.9	8.0	7.6
EU.....	..	..	..	12.6	13.0	13.1	13.6	13.9	14.4	14.7	14.6

Source: European Commission, 2002  
.. data not available

Table A5

**Demographic Indicators 1993 – 2003 by geographical area**

	Italy	North –West	North –East	Centre	South and Islands
	1993				
Birth rate.....	9.7	8.1	8.0	8.6	12.3
Average number of children .....	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.5
Mean age at childbearing .....	29.4	29.5	29.6	29.9	28.7
	2003				
Birth rate.....	9.5	9.1	9.3	9.0	10.0
Average number of children .....	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3
Mean age at childbearing (*).....	30.4	30.9	30.8	31.0	29.7

Source: Istat; Annual Reports. Notes: (\*) Referred to 2001.

Table A6

**Actual and preferred employment patterns by full-time and part-time working, 1998**  
**Couple families with child under 6**  
 (row percentages)

		Man Full time Woman	Man Full time Woman part-time	Man Full time Woman not employed	Other	total
Austria .....	<i>Actual</i>	19.1	28.2	48.1	4.5	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	35.6	39.9	3.9	20.7	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	16.5	11.7	-44.2	16.2	
Belgium .....	<i>Actual</i>	46.0	19.4	27.3	7.3	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	54.8	28.8	13.4	3.0	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	8.8	9.4	-13.9	-4.3	
Finland.....	<i>Actual</i>	49.3	6.4	32.8	11.5	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	80.3	8.6	10.2	0.8	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	31	2.2	-22.6	-10.7	
France .....	<i>Actual</i>	38.8	14.4	38.3	8.4	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	52.4	21.9	14.1	11.7	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	13.6	7.5	-24.2	3.3	
Germany.....	<i>Actual</i>	15.7	23.1	52.3	8.9	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	32.0	42.9	5.7	19.4	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	16.3	19.8	-46.6	10.5	
Greece .....	<i>Actual</i>	42.2	7.9	36.1	13.8	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	65.6	10.6	9.4	14.4	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	23.4	2.7	-26.7	0.6	
Ireland .....	<i>Actual</i>	30.8	18.7	37.0	13.5	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	31.1	42.3	8.1	18.5	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	0.3	23.6	-28.9	5.0	
Italy .....	<i>Actual</i>	34.9	11.8	43.3	10.0	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	50.4	27.7	10.7	11.2	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	15.5	15.9	-32.6	1.2	
Luxembourg.....	<i>Actual</i>	23.5	27.0	49.1	0.4	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	27.5	29.9	12.4	30.2	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	4.0	2.9	-36.7	29.8	
Netherlands.....	<i>Actual</i>	4.8	54.8	33.7	6.7	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	5.6	69.9	10.7	13.8	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	0.8	15.1	-23.0	7.1	
Portugal.....	<i>Actual</i>	74.5	4.7	18.7	2.2	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	84.4	8.0	4.0	3.6	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	9.9	3.3	-14.7	1.4	
Spain .....	<i>Actual</i>	25.6	6.3	56.9	11.2	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	59.7	11.6	19.7	9.0	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	34.1	5.3	-37.2	-2.2	
Sweden .....	<i>Actual</i>	51.1	13.3	24.9	10.7	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	66.8	22.2	6.6	4.4	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	15.7	8.9	-18.3	-6.3	
UK .....	<i>Actual</i>	24.9	31.9	32.8	10.4	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	21.3	41.8	13.3	23.6	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	-3.6	9.9	-19.5	13.2	
<i>UnweightedEU</i>	<i>Actual</i>	34.4	19.1	38.0	8.5	100.0
	<i>Preferred</i>	47.7	29.0	10.2	13.2	100.0
	<i>Difference</i>	13.3	9.9	-27.8	4.6	

Source: Employment Outlook, 2003

Figure A1

### Total Fertility Rates and Female Labour Force Participation in EU - 2001

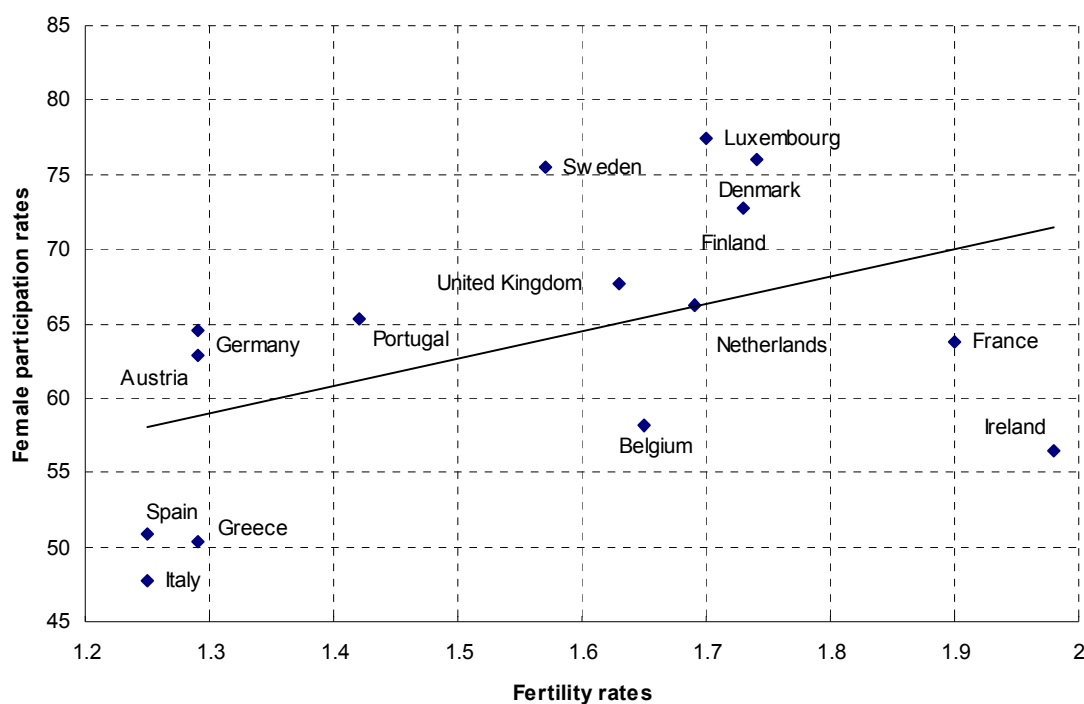


Table A7

### Women's employment rates and the gender employment gap by presence of children<sup>(\*)</sup>, 2000 (row percentages)

	No children		One child		Two or more children		Total <sup>(****)</sup>
	Employment rate	Gender gap <sup>(**)</sup>	Employment rate	Gender gap <sup>(*)</sup>	Employment rate	Gender gap <sup>(*)</sup>	Gender gap
Austria.....	76.0	10.5	75.6	18.5	65.7	29.0	17.7
Belgium.....	65.6	17.4	71.8	23.5	69.3	24.7	18.0
Denmark.....	78.5	7.7	88.1	3.5	77.2	12.9	9.2
Finland.....	79.2	0.1	78.5	11.8	73.5	19.7	5.9
France.....	73.5	9.6	74.1	18.7	58.8	32.9	14.0
Germany.....	77.3	7.2	70.4	21.2	56.3	35.6	14.8
Greece.....	53.1	31.1	53.9	40.3	50.3	45.4	29.9
Ireland.....	65.8	14.1	51.0	33.2	40.8	43.2	22.1
Italy.....	52.8	26.2	52.1	40.9	42.4	49.9	28.3
Luxembourg.....	68.7	21.3	65.8	30.4	50.1	46.1	24.9
Netherlands.....	75.3	15.6	69.9	24.3	63.3	30.8	18.6
Portugal.....	72.6	13.4	78.5	16.6	70.3	24.8	16.2
Spain.....	54.6	26.0	47.6	44.7	43.3	48.6	29.4
Sweden.....	81.9	0.4	80.6	9.8	81.8	9.4	3.1
United Kingdom.....	79.9	5.4	72.9	17.1	62.3	28.2	13.3
OECD.....	73.7	11.8	70.6	22.9	61.9	32.3	18.5 <sup>(*)</sup>

Source: Employment Outlook, 2001

<sup>(\*)</sup> Persons aged 25 to 54 years. <sup>(\*\*)</sup> Percentage point difference between the employment rates for men and for women.<sup>(\*\*\*\*)</sup> Source European Commission, 2002. <sup>(\*)</sup> EU Countries.



Table A8

### Summary indicators of formal child-care coverage and maternity leave

	Proportion of young children using formal child-care arrangements <sup>(a)</sup>			Maternity/child-care leave indicators for 1999-2001		
	Year	Aged under 3	Aged 3 to mandatory school age	Duration of maternity leave (weeks)	Maternity benefits (% of average wages <sup>(b)</sup> )	Total duration of Maternity/child-care leave (weeks)
Austria .....	1998	4.0	68.0	16.0	100.0	112.0
Belgium .....	2000	30.0	97.0	15.0	77.0	67.0
Denmark .....	1998	64.0	91.0	30.0	100.0	82.0
Finland .....	1998	22.0	66.0	52.0	70.0	164.0
France .....	1998	29.0	99.0	16.0	100.0	162.0
Germany .....	2000	10.0	78.0	14.0	100.0	162.0
Greece .....	2000	3.0	46.0	16.0	50.0	42.0
Ireland .....	1998	38.0	56.0	14.0	70.0	42.0
Italy .....	1998	6.0	95.0	21.5	80.0	64.5
Luxembourg .....	..	..	..	16.0	100.0	68.0
Netherlands .....	1998	6.0	98.0	16.0	100.0	68.0
Portugal .....	1999	12.0	75.0	24.3	100.0	128.3
Spain .....	2000	5.0	84.0	16.0	100.0	164.0
Sweden .....	1998	48.0	80.0	64.0	63.0	85.0
United Kingdom .....	2000	34.0 <sup>(d)</sup>	60.0 <sup>(d)</sup>	18.0	44.0	44.0

Source: Employment Outlook, 2001

.. Data not available (a) The data include both public and private provision, and cover the four types of formal child-care arrangements defined in the text. They do not cover primary schools, which are particularly important sources of child care for children 4 years of age and over in Ireland, and for 5 year-olds in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. (b) Where benefits are paid on a flat-rate basis, they have been converted to a percentage by using data on the average female wage in manufacturing. (d) England only.

Table A9

### Indicators of family-friendly and relevant flexible working arrangements in enterprises, 1995-1996

Percentage of women employees with child under 15 in household reporting:				
	Extra-statutory arrangements for:			Employer provision for child day-care
	Sick child leave	Maternity leave	Parental leave	
Austria .....	74.0	85.0	87.0	19.0
Belgium .....	62.0	65.0	43.0	14.0
Denmark .....	38.0	40.0	38.0	7.0
Finland .....	37.0	36.0	34.0	8.0
France .....	47.0	58.0	51.0	12.0
Germany .....	65.0	92.0	87.0	16.0
Greece .....	65.0	81.0	69.0	18.0
Ireland .....	24.0	68.0	22.0	7.0
Italy .....	72.0	81.0	69.0	5.0
Luxembourg .....	35.0	82.0	41.0	11.0
Netherlands .....	40.0	75.0	53.0	25.0
Portugal .....	48.0	49.0	43.0	22.0
Spain .....	63.0	69.0	55.0	8.0
Sweden .....	6.0	7.0	7.0	1.0
United Kingdom .....	41.0	61.0	28.0	10.0

Source: Employment Outlook, 2001

Table A10

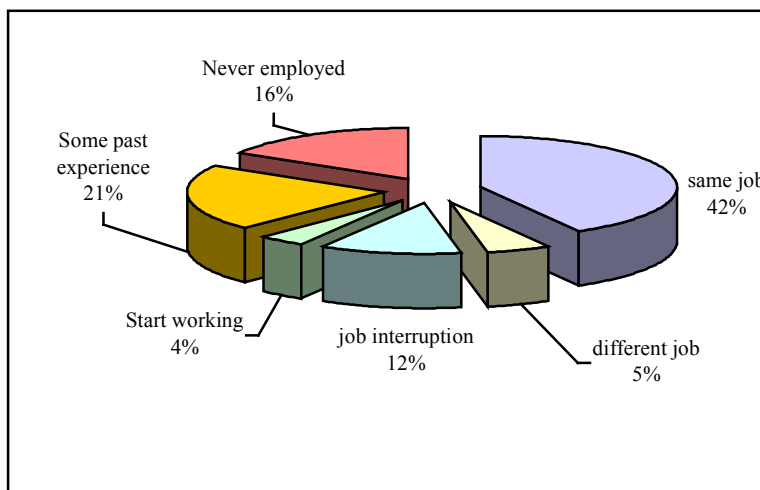
**Households by social and demographic characteristics**  
(percentages)

Variables	Percentages	Variables	Percentages
<b>Mother's characteristics</b>		<b>Husband/Partner's characteristics<sup>(*)</sup></b>	
<i>Age</i>		<i>Age</i>	
14 – 24 .....	13.0	14 – 24 .....	4.1
25 – 29 .....	30.1	25 – 29 .....	16.9
30 – 34 .....	35.9	30 – 34 .....	36.9
35 – 39 .....	17.9	35 – 39 .....	28.5
40 – 49 .....	3.2	Over 40 .....	13.5
<i>Age at first child</i>		<i>Education</i>	
Up to 19.....	4.4	Compulsory or not formal schooling...	44.9
20 – 24 .....	21.9	High school .....	43.2
25 – 29 .....	39.1	University degree.....	11.8
30 – 34 .....	26.5		
35 – 49 .....	8.1	<i>Occupation status after childbirth</i>	
<i>Nationality</i>		Employee - Low .....	58.2
Italian.....	89.5	Employee – High.....	7.3
Foreign .....	10.5	Self-employed .....	30.2
<i>Residential status</i>		Not working .....	4.0
Single .....	2.0		
Married .....	90.9	<i>Town size</i>	
Cohabiting.....	7.1	up to 20,000 inhabitants .....	47.8
<i>Number of children</i>		from 20,000 to 40,000.....	13.8
One.....	51.1	from 40,000 to 500,000 .....	27.5
Two.....	37.6	more than 500,000.....	10.5
Three or more.....	11.3	<i>Geographical area</i>	
<i>Education</i>		North .....	41.2
Compulsory or not formal schooling .....	34.9	Centre .....	17.2
High school .....	50.3	South and Islands .....	41.4
University degree.....	14.8		
<i>Occupation status after childbirth</i>			
Employee – Low .....	38.7		
Employee – High .....	3.0		
Self-employed.....	9.0		
Not working.....	49.2		

(\*) Cases of single mothers are excluded  
Percentages may not sum to 100 because of missing values.  
Source: IBSS.

Figure A2

### New mother's patterns of employment



Source: IBSS.

Table A11

**Mothers' working status before and after childbirth compared to women's**  
(percentages)

	Mothers' status (IBSS)		Women's status (LFS 2001 <sup>*</sup> )
	...before childbirth	...after childbirth	
<b>Employment status</b>			
Employed .....	58.8	51.0	50.8
Unemployed .....	3.5	4.5	10.1
Not in labour force.....	37.8	44.5	39.1
<b>Branch of activity</b>			
Agriculture .....	1.6	1.3	1.6
Industry.....	11.9	9.2	11.5
Trade and commerce.....	14.7	12.0	11.8
Services.....	13.4	11.2	12.8
Public administration.....	17.1	17.1	13.1
not employed .....	41.2	49.1	49.2
<b>Work status</b>			
Employee			
Cadre or manager .....	3.0	3.0	2.0
Office worker .....	30.0	27.3	23.8
Other.....	16.4	11.5	15.7
total .....	49.4	41.8	41.5
Self-employed			
sole proprietor, member of arts or professions .....	3.7	3.9	2.5
Other self-employed .....	5.6	5.2	6.8
total .....	9.3	9.1	9.3
Not employed			
Housewife .....	35.3	43.2	24.8
Other .....	6.0	6.0	24.4
total .....	41.3	49.1	49.2
Type of work			
Full time.....	91.4	66.9	81.8
Involuntary Part-time.....	2.6	4.1	6.2
Voluntary Part-time.....	6.0	29.0	12.0
Permanent status.....			
Permanent status.....	83.2	85.4	85.3
Fixed term contract .....	11.6	11.5	14.7 <sup>(***)</sup>
Without contract.....	5.2	3.1	

(\* ) women between 20 – 40. (\*\* ) the figure includes both fixed term contract and without contract.  
Source: 2001 LFS, IBSS.

**Employment status<sup>(\*)</sup> by geographical area**  
(percentages)

Variables	Mothers' status		
	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive
<b>Geographical area</b>		IBSS (before childbirth)	
North East.....	75.2	2.1	22.7
North West.....	74.9	2.2	22.9
Centre.....	65.5	3.6	30.9
South.....	38.2	4.8	57.0
Islands.....	43.1	4.7	52.2
Italy.....	58.8	3.5	37.8
<b>Geographical area</b>		IBSS (after childbirth)	
North East.....	65.2	3.2	31.6
North West.....	65.5	2.9	31.6
Centre.....	58.0	4.4	37.6
South.....	31.9	6.3	61.8
Islands.....	36.6	5.4	58.0
Italy.....	50.8	4.5	44.6
<b>Geographical area</b>		LFS (women 20-40)	
North East.....	67.5	5.1	27.4
North West.....	70.2	4.5	25.3
Centre.....	55.0	9.1	35.9
South.....	27.8	16.2	56.0
Islands.....	27.8	17.8	54.4
Italy.....	50.8	10.1	39.1

Source: 2001 LFS, IBSS.

Table A 13

**Employment status<sup>(\*)</sup> by demographic characteristics**  
(percentages)

Variables	Mothers' status		
	Employed	Unemployed	Not in labour force
<b>Age</b>			
Up to 24 years .....	28.0	7.8	64.2
25 to 29 years .....	48.5	4.8	46.7
30 to 34 years .....	56.4	3.9	39.7
35 to 39 years .....	59.4	3.3	37.3
Over 40.....	58.7	3.1	38.2
<b>Education</b>			
None or elementary school .....	32.3	4.4	63.3
Middle or high school.....	56.5	4.6	38.8
University degree or higher .....	76.0	4.4	19.5
<b>Geographical area</b>			
North.....	65.0	3.0	32.0
Centre.....	58.6	4.4	37.0
South and Islands .....	32.5	6.2	61.3
<b>Number of children</b>			
One.....	57.0	5.7	37.3
Two .....	47.3	3.6	49.1
Three or more .....	36.0	2.3	61.7
<b>Household size</b>			
Up to three components .....	59.3	5.7	35.0
Four components.....	47.6	3.7	48.7
Five components .....	37.8	3.6	58.6
More than five components.....	34.3	2.8	62.9
<b>Husband's (partner's) job</b>			
Office worker or school teacher .....	50.4	4.9	44.7
Cadre or manager.....	65.7	3.3	30.9
Entrepreneur or self-employed.....	50.5	3.3	46.3
Not employed.....	32.4	6.7	60.9
Single mother.....	57.8	11.6	30.6
<b>Nationality</b>			
Italian.....	52.8	4.4	42.8
Foreign .....	35.0	5.5	59.4

Source: IBSS.

**Mothers' labour condition before and after childbirth, 2000-2001**

**...Total**  
(row percentages)

before childbirth	After childbirth			Total
	Employed	Unemployed	Not in labour force	
	IBSS			
Employed .....	79.9	3.1	17.0	100.0
Unemployed .....	31.3	40.7	28.0	100.0
Not in labour force.....	7.3	3.5	89.2	100.0
Total.....	50.8	4.5	44.6	100.0
	LFS <sup>(*)</sup>			
Employed .....	94.1	1.6	4.3	100.0
Unemployed .....	20.3	53.9	25.8	100.0
Not in labour force.....	3.5	2.7	93.8	100.0
Total.....	44.0	4.5	51.5	100.0

(\*) women between 20 – 40. Source: 2001 LFS, IBSS.

**...By working time**

(row percentages)

before childbirth	After childbirth				Total
	Full time	Part time	Unemployed	Not in labour force	
	IBSS				
Full time .....	57.7	26.8	2.4	13.1	100.0
Part-time .....	13.3	18.2	10.2	58.3	100.0
	LFS <sup>(*)</sup>				
Full time .....	92.8	2.2	1.3	3.7	100.0
Part-time .....	5.4	4.8	6.6	83.2	100.0

(\*) women between 20 – 40. Source: 2001 LFS, IBSS.

**...By type of contract**

(row percentages)

before childbirth	After childbirth			Not in labour force	Total
	Permanent	Temporary	Unemployed		
	IBSS				
Permanent.....	83.0	1.4	1.8	13.5	100.0
Temporary .....	6.7	49.7	9.0	34.7	100.0
	LFS <sup>(*)</sup>				
Permanent.....	89.2	6.7	1.1	3.0	100.0
Temporary .....	20.6	2.6	5.9	7.9	100.0

(\*) women between 20 – 40. Source: 2001 LFS, IBSS.