



Emerging trends in earnings structures of couples in Europe

Short statistical report No.5

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Emerging trends in earnings structures of couples in Europe

Short Statistical Report No. 5

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April, 2014

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Preface

Are couples in Europe becoming more gender-equal? This short statistical paper examines two specific aspects of the question: (i) the emerging trends in couples' earnings structure, and (ii) the extent to which more equal earnings relates to more equal domestic work contributions. We found a continued majority of male sole- or main-earners, but also a decline in this gender imbalance over the three year period. It is not yet known, however, whether this will ultimately be seen to have been driven by the economic crisis or to be part of a continuing trend towards more gender-equal couple earnings structures.

This short statistical report is part of a series of reports on gender equality in the work force and reconciliation of work, family and private life. These reports have been commissioned by the Justice Directorate General of the European Commission. The study was jointly undertaken by RAND Europe and the University of Groningen. These reports should be of interest to policy makers and academics with an interest in improving gender equality in the work force and improving the compatibility of having a career in combination with a family and private life.

RAND Europe is an independent not-for-profit policy research organisation that aims to improve policy and decision-making in the public interest, through research and analysis. The research group led by Professor Melinda Mills at the University of Groningen focuses on research in the area of cross-national comparative research, gender equality, work-family reconciliation and advanced statistical.

This report has been peer-reviewed in accordance with RAND's quality assurance standards. The authors wish to thank the peer reviewers Gerda Neyer (Stockholm University) and Marco Hafner (RAND Europe) for their comments on earlier versions of this document. For more information about RAND Europe or this study, please contact Stijn Hoorens (hoorens@rand.org). For more information about this document, please contact Flavia Tsang (tsang@rand.org):

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Summary

Are couples in Europe becoming more gender-equal? This short statistical paper examines two specific aspects of the question: (i) the emerging trends in couples' earnings structures; and (ii) the extent to which more equal earnings relates to more equal domestic work contributions.

Our analysis of recent trends (2007–2010), using the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), indicated a continued majority of male sole- or main-earners, but also a decline in this gender imbalance over the three-year period. It is not yet known, however, whether this will ultimately be seen to have been driven by the economic crisis or to be part of a continuing trend towards more gender-equal couple earnings structures.

Our empirical findings also addressed the tension between more gender-equal earnings that is expected to promote more gender-equal domestic work contributions and gender-role norms that perpetuate unequal domestic work contributions. We found that women spent much greater time in domestic work tasks than men, and that there is a relatively small difference in domestic work hours between men who contribute all most of the couple's earnings and men who contribute smaller proportions of the couple's earnings. In contrast, we found that women who contribute smaller proportions or none of the couple's earnings spent many more hours in domestic work tasks. These findings suggested an important factor that is likely to continue to act as a drag on change towards more equality within couples even in the presence of effective work/family reconciliation policies: a highly unequal gender division of labour in the home.

Abbreviations

EU-27, acceding state, candidate countries and additional countries:

	Country	ISO Code
<i>EU 27 Member States</i>	Belgium	BE
	Bulgaria	BG
	Czech Republic	CZ
	Denmark	DK
	Germany	DE
	Estonia	EE
	Ireland	IE
	Greece	GR
	Spain	ES
	France	FR
	Italy	IT
	Cyprus	CY
	Latvia	LV
	Lithuania	LT
	Luxembourg	LU
	Hungary	HU
	Malta	MT
	Netherlands	NL
	Austria	AT
	Poland	PL
	Portugal	PT
	Romania	RO
	Slovenia	SI
	Slovakia	SK
	Finland	FI
	Sweden	SE
	United Kingdom	UK
<i>New Member State*</i>	Croatia	HR
<i>Candidate countries</i>	Montenegro	ME
	Iceland	IS
	FYR Macedonia	MK
	Turkey	TR
<i>Additional countries</i>	Norway	NO
	Switzerland	CH

* The analysis of this report was conducted before Croatia joined the EU.

1. Context

This short statistical paper looks at the evolution of earnings structure in couples. Since 2000, several governments have introduced policies aimed at facilitating a dual-earner model, notably Germany and the UK (Lewis et al. 2008). Another potential factor contributing to a shift towards a more equal earnings distribution within households has been the recent economic crisis. Recent studies suggest that the increased unemployment rates or risk of employment for the male breadwinner may have led to a more substantial position of women's earnings (Bettio et al. 2012). Against the possibility of significant change, however, are the longstanding differences in the comprehensiveness of work/family reconciliation infrastructure across countries (Esping-Andersen 1990 and 1999; Hantrais 2004), and in cultural attitudes towards gender roles in the market and domestic work spheres.

Social policy regime typologies such as those of Esping-Andersen have long been recognised as useful for interpreting gender differences in family-work reconciliation (e.g. Del Boca et al. 2009). This is seen in Bielski et al.'s (2002) study of the EU15 countries and Norway using the 1998 Employment Options of the Future Survey. They analysed preferred versus actual time spent in employment, and found that women in Western European 'conservative' countries expressed preferences to increase their workforce participation, but that they faced institutional barriers to achieving this in the lack of childcare provision and other policies favouring a 'male-breadwinner' model of labour supply.

Salles et al. (2010) discuss lags in cultural adjustments to new family-policy provisions such as those recently introduced in Germany as one reason for the slow pace of change in these countries. However, Bielski et al. also found preferences towards fewer employed hours among women in 'social democratic' countries characterised by having the best provisions for work/family reconciliation. In both the Bielski et al. (2002) analysis of 1998 attitudes and in the study by Rubin et al. (2008) of 2005 attitudes of women towards their number of hours in employment, substantial proportions of women expressed a wish to reduce their hours in employment. In the latter study, using the 2005 EU Labour Force Survey's Work and Family Reconciliation Topical Module, among native-born women with children under 14, equal or higher proportions expressed preferences to work less and spend more time caring for family than the reverse.¹

In this paper we examine whether a trend can be observed in recent years in the EU towards a more gender-equal model, in which the dominance of the male-breadwinner model is falling compared to the

¹ Only among third-country immigrant women, for whom rates of unemployment and underemployment were much higher, was it more likely that they would express the wish to work more and spend less time caring for family.

dual earner model. Specifically we study the changes in earnings structure of prime working-age couples (20–49, defined by the woman’s age) between 2007 and 2010, providing a comparison of the situation before the economic crisis and the most recent year where data are available from the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). We analyse differences between Member States in both the levels in 2010 and changes in the relative earnings contributions since 2007. Finally, we investigate the association of men’s contributions to domestic work with their own and their female partner’s earnings contributions.

The structure for the report is as follows. Section 2 provides a short description of the data and definitions. Section 3 provides an overview of the situation in 2010, while Section 4 describes the changes between 2007 and 2010. Section 5 summarises the previous two sections in a typology of countries. After that, Section 6 discusses an analysis of the relationship between earnings structure and time spent on domestic work. Finally, Section 7 summarises the findings.

2. Couple strategies analysis: data and definitions

The main data source used for this analysis is the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). Before analysing the data, we processed EU-SILC database to identify households with complete earnings information.^{2 3}

The analysis in this paper focuses on prime working-age couples defined by the woman's age in the range 20–49, and with at least one earner in the couple. Such household includes households with children, and households with other adults, but excludes multi-adult households in which none of the adults are couples. Same sex couples are also excluded as they do not support an analysis of gender differences. We selected prime working-age couples based on the woman's age, since the husband/partner is more often older than his female partner and selecting based on the woman's age then avoids the potential elimination of a significant number of younger couples, who may be much more likely to face challenges in work-family reconciliation than older couples.

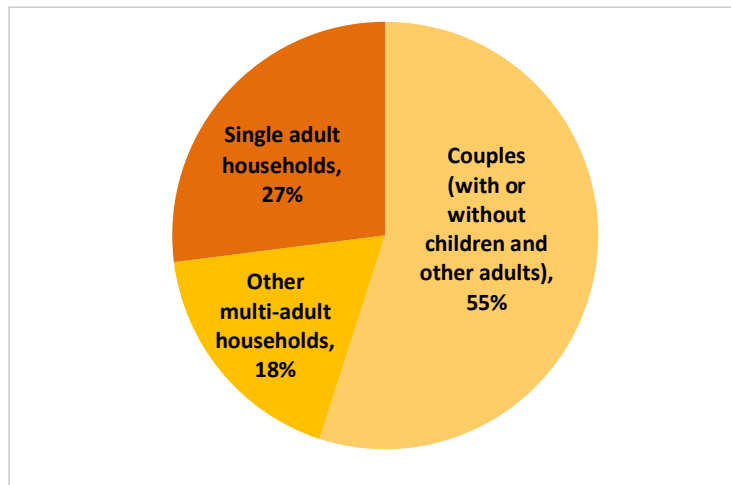
We analysed over 60,000 prime working-age couples with complete earnings information. They comprise 55 per cent of all prime working-age households with complete earnings information in 2010 in the EU-SILC database (see Figure 1).⁴

² Yearly gross earnings is examined here (i.e. tax has not been taken into account). Gross earnings includes (i) employee cash or near cash income, (ii) company car; and (iii) cash benefits or losses from self-employment.

³ In the data preparation process, three filters were applied in order to exclude: (i) individuals who reported a negative employee cash or near cash income; (ii) individuals who reported a negative income through company car; and (iii) couples in which both partners reported zero earnings. Individuals with negative earnings through self-employment were included. They were treated as no earnings in subsequent analyses.

⁴ In computing these percentages, a weight was applied to the distribution to take into account of any unequal sampling related to the survey methodology (e.g. the households' probability of being selected and non-response). Unless otherwise stated, tables in the rest of this paper show only weighted results.

Figure 1: Percentage of couples in the household database, 2010



Source: EU-SILC 2010, authors' own calculations.

3. Couples in 2010

In this section, we introduce the typology of couples by the partner's contribution to earnings set out in Raley et al. (2006). The typology divides couples into five types:

- Male sole provider
- Male main provider (female partner contributing less than 40 per cent of the couple's earnings)
- Relatively equal partners (female partner contributing 40-60 per cent of the couple's earnings)
- Female main provider (female partner contributing more than 60 per cent of the couple's earnings)
- Female sole provider.

Table 1 presents the distribution of couples according to this typology for all the 29 European countries (27 Member States plus Iceland and Norway. Male main provider households (i.e. dual-earner households in which the woman contributes less than 40 per cent of the couples' earnings) is the largest group, comprising 37 per cent of all households. This is followed by households with relatively equal male and female contributions (29 per cent). Male sole provider households make up 21 per cent of the households, whereas female main provider households (i.e. households in which the female earner contributes to over 60 per cent of the couple's earnings) make up only 9 per cent. The smallest group is female sole provider households, only 5 per cent.

Table 1: Distribution of couples by earnings structure, for EU27 plus Iceland and Norway

	Weighted share
Male sole provider	21%
Female <40% ('Male main provider')	37%
Relatively equal	29%
Female >=60% ('Female main provider')	9%
Female sole provider	5%

Source: EU-SILC 2010, authors' own calculations.

Note: Survey sample weights for each country were applied to take into account unequal sampling probabilities.

More details about the variation by country are shown next. Figure 2(a) illustrates results for the first two categories (male sole provider and male main provider households); Figure 2(b) illustrates the results for

the remaining three categories (relatively equal partners, female main provider, and female sole provider households). A table showing the distribution of couples across the five earnings-structure categories separately for each country is provided in Appendix A.

Referring to Figure 2(a), Malta has the highest share of male sole provider households (44 per cent). It is followed by Romania, Italy and Greece where the share of male sole provider households is over 30 per cent; and in Ireland, Hungary, Poland and Czech Republic where the share is over 25 per cent. In contrast, the share of male sole provider is low (under 10 per cent) in the Nordic countries (Norway, Denmark, Iceland, Sweden and Finland) plus Slovenia.

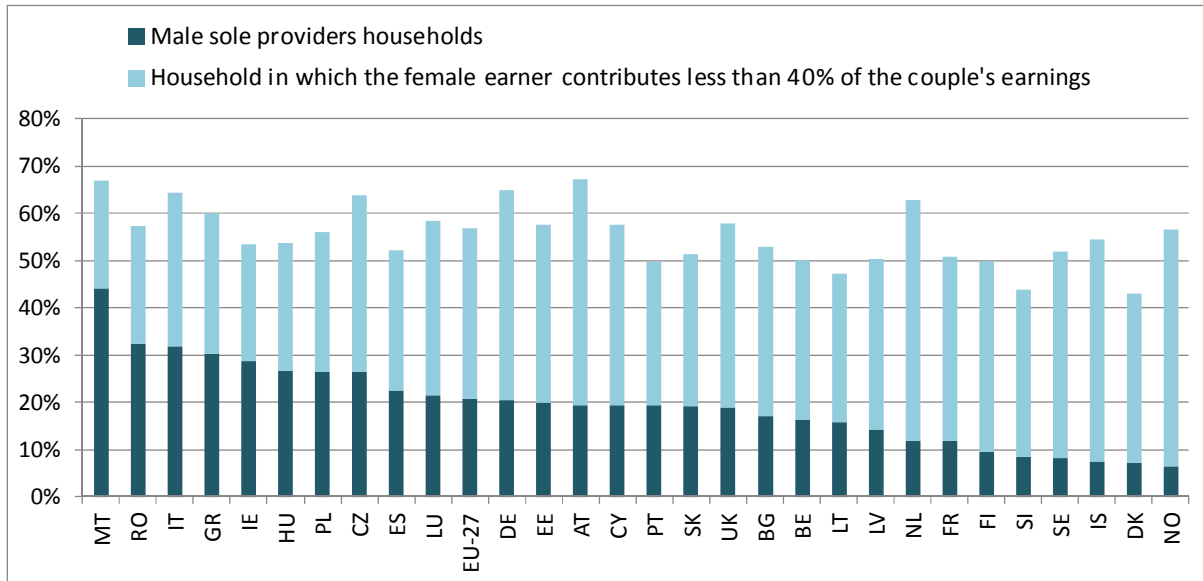
Taking the male sole provider and male main provider categories together, Malta and Austria are the most male dominated countries, each with two thirds of couples either male sole provider or male main provider. Germany, Italy, the Czech Republic and the Netherlands are also all above 60 per cent male sole or main provider. The Netherlands has an especially large share of male main provider couples (51 per cent), even though only 12 per cent male sole provider couples. Whereas Slovenia and Denmark still stand out as the most gender-equal countries when both the male sole and main provider categories are considered, the other four Nordic countries all have large fractions (more than 40 per cent) male main provider earnings structures, with Norway at 50 per cent and Iceland at 47 per cent especially high in this unequal earnings category. These countries therefore no longer stand out as having gender-equal earnings structures on the broader measure of percentage male sole or main provider.

Referring to Figure 2 (b), Denmark and Slovenia again displayed similar patterns, with very high shares of female partners contributing substantially to the couple's earnings, although female sole providers are not very common in these countries. The share of female sole providers is highest in Ireland and Lithuania (12 per cent).

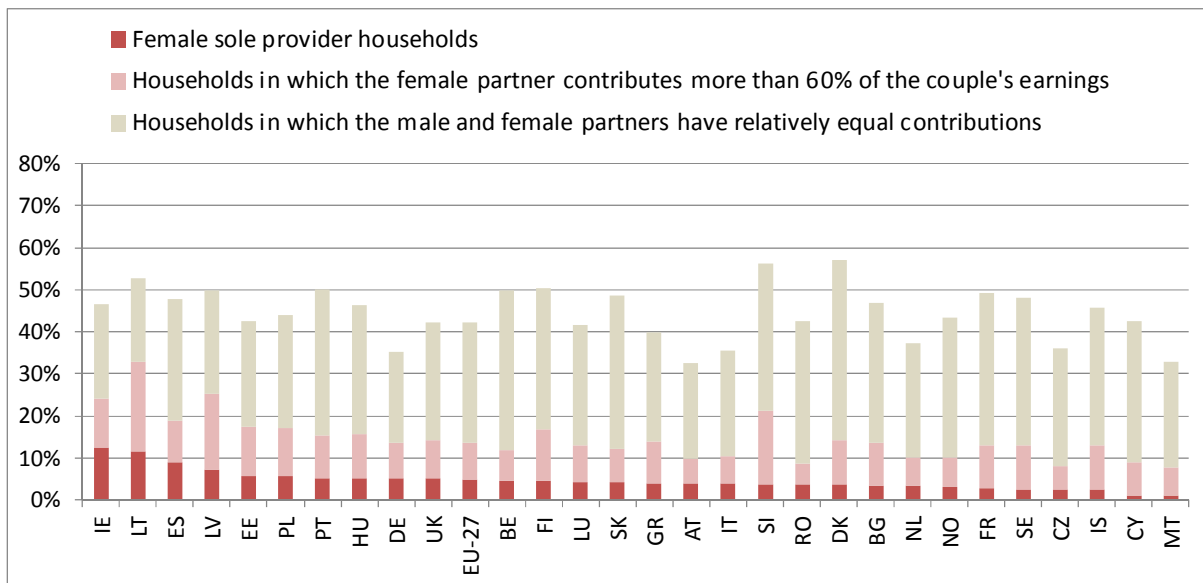
While having the highest share female sole provider households, Ireland also has one of the highest shares of male sole provider households (the fifth highest out of 29 countries). The situation for Spain is similar. It has a high share of female sole provider households (the third highest), as well as a high share of male sole providers (the ninth highest).

Figure 2: Household earnings structure by country, 2010

a) Proportion of male sole provider and male main provider households



b) Proportion of relatively equal, female main provider and female sole provider households



4. Changes between 2007 and 2010

In this section we look at changes between 2007 and 2010, covering 28 European countries (there are no income data available for the Member State Malta in 2007, but there are data for two non-EU Member States, Iceland and Norway). As shown in Table 2, most changes are within the range 1–4 per cent with only a few exceptions where there is a relatively large change.

Out of these 28 countries, the share of male sole provider households either dropped or remained constant in 25 countries (16 countries dropped and 9 countries remained constant). The opposite happened only in Hungary, Ireland and Iceland, where the share of male sole providers increased slightly. The biggest drop in male sole provider occurred in France (7 per cent), in which the drop translated to an increase in the share of households in three other categories except for the female sole provider category. Similar transitions were observed for Austria. In many other cases (Cyprus, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and Portugal), the share of male sole providers dropped, together with the share of households with the female partner contributing less than 40 per cent, whereas the share of households with relative equal male/female contribution expanded. However, these countries are similar to France in that there is little movement in the share of female sole provider households. In most cases (14 out of 28 countries), the share of relatively equal partners increased the most.

Ireland, Lithuania and Latvia went through a different transition. Decreases in the share of the first two (or three) categories gave way for the share of the final two categories (i.e. female main providers and female sole providers) to rise.

Overall, these results seem to suggest that we can observe an increase in the relative economic power of women within households in the majority of Member States.

Table 2: Households earnings structure, change in percentage point between 2007 and 2010

		Male sole provider	Female <40%	Relatively equal	Female ≥60%	Female sole provider
Austria	AT	-5%	5%	1%	-1%	0%
Belgium	BE	0%	-3%	3%	-1%	1%
Bulgaria	BG	-3%	2%	2%	2%	-3%
Cyprus	CY	-1%	-5%	4%	2%	0%
Czech Republic	CZ	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%
Germany	DE	0%	0%	1%	-1%	1%
Denmark	DK	-1%	-4%	3%	2%	0%
Estonia	EE	-1%	-6%	2%	4%	1%
Spain	ES	-4%	-5%	2%	3%	4%
Finland	FI	0%	-1%	-1%	1%	1%
France	FR	-7%	3%	3%	3%	-1%
Greece	GR	-6%	-1%	4%	3%	1%
Hungary	HU	3%	-2%	1%	-2%	0%
Ireland	IE	3%	-14%	1%	2%	8%
Iceland	IS	1%	-8%	3%	2%	1%
Italy	IT	-3%	-1%	2%	1%	1%
Lithuania	LT	0%	-7%	-9%	10%	7%
Luxembourg	LU	-5%	-4%	6%	2%	1%
Latvia	LV	-1%	-3%	-6%	6%	4%
Netherlands	NL	-4%	-1%	3%	2%	0%
Norway	NO	-2%	-1%	3%	0%	1%
Poland	PL	-2%	1%	3%	0%	-2%
Portugal	PT	-1%	-6%	4%	2%	1%
Romania	RO	0%	-1%	3%	-1%	-1%
Sweden	SE	0%	0%	0%	2%	-2%
Slovenia	SI	-1%	4%	-3%	1%	-1%
Slovakia	SK	0%	-3%	0%	2%	1%
United Kingdom	UK	0%	-4%	2%	2%	0%
EU-27 (no MT data)		-2%	-1%	2%	1%	0%

Source: EU-SILC 2007 and 2010, authors' own calculations.

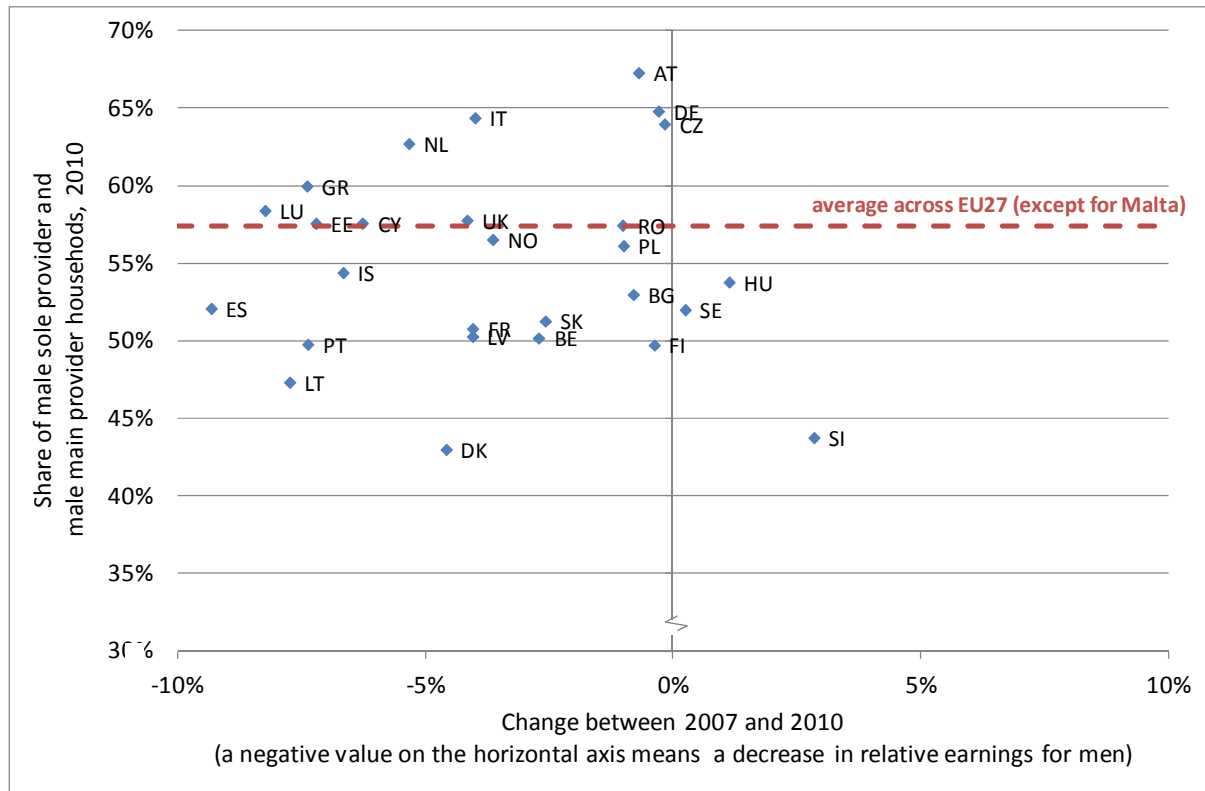
5. Changes in household earnings structures: a typology of countries

This section consolidates the information from Section 3 and Section 4 to provide a typology of countries. The share of households with a sole male provider plus the share of households in which the female earner contributes less than 40 per cent of the couple's earnings in 2010 are plotted against the change percentage point between 2007 and 2010 (Figure 3). The red horizontal line in the figure reflects the average across EU27 (except Malta, for which there are no data).⁵ This divides the countries into four groups:

- Countries that have a *higher* than average share of male sole/major provider households and have experienced an *increase* in the share of these two categories since 2007: none.
- Countries that have a *higher* than average share of male sole/major provider households but have experienced a *decrease* in the share of these two categories since 2007: AT, CY, CZ, DE, EE, GR, IT, LU, NL, RO and UK.
- Countries that have a *lower* than average share of male sole/major provider households and have experienced a *decrease* in the share of these two categories since 2007: BE, BG, DK, ES, FI, FR, IE, IS, LT, LV, NO, PL, PT and SK.
- Countries that have a *lower* than average share of male sole/major provider households but have experienced an *increase* in the share of these two categories since 2007: HU, SE and SI.

⁵ This is a weighted average, having taken the size of the country into account.

Figure 3: Changes in household earnings structures: A typology of countries



Source: EU-SILC 2007 and 2010, authors' own calculations.

6. Earnings structures and time spent on domestic work

Does the increase in women’s relative economic power within households mean more equal share of domestic work? This section offers insights into this question by analysing (self-reported) time use data from EU-SILC’s 2010 special module on ‘intra-household sharing of resources’.

Table 3 shows male and female partners’ self-reported time spent on domestic work by household earnings structure, for the 11 countries for which data are available.^{6,7} Domestic work in this context includes housework, childcare and care for other dependents. We can make two main observations from this table. First, when the female partner is the main provider, she still spends considerably more time on domestic work than her partner. Second, the time women spend on domestic work is more sensitive to earnings structure than that of men; i.e. women in male-sole-provider households spent almost 18 more hours per week in domestic work than women in female-sole-provider households (43.2 vs. 25.4 hours per week), but men in female-sole-provider households only spent less than six hours more than men in male sole provider households (17.5 vs. 11.7 hours per week). Both of these points suggest traditional gender roles still have a strong influence on domestic work in the household, regardless of changes in earnings contribution to the household.

Table 3: Self-reported time spent on domestic work by household earnings structure, for 11 European countries

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)		Number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	11.7	43.2	4934
Female <40%	12.1	32.1	6608
Relatively equal	10.9	22.6	5556
Female ≥60%	12.6	20.9	1537
Female sole provider	17.5	25.4	926

Source: EU-SILC 2010, authors’ own calculations.

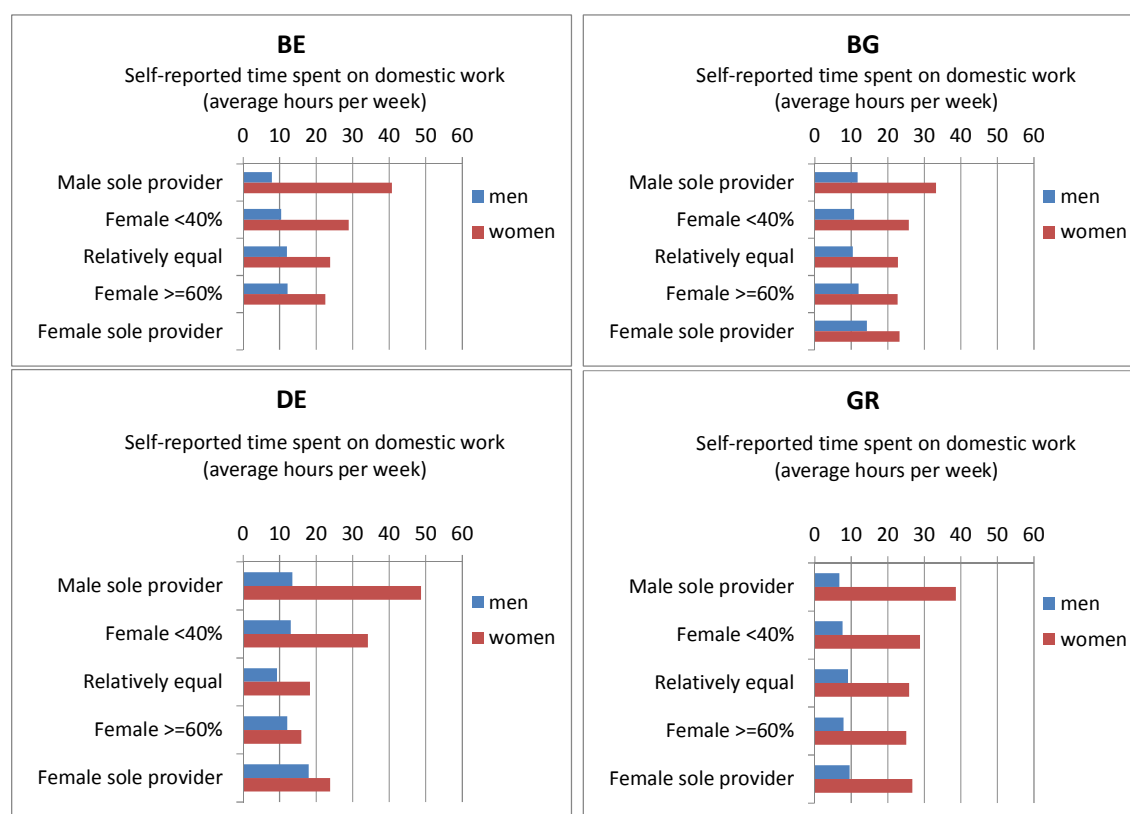
⁶ The time spent on domestic work question is an option question in the 2010 Special Module of EU-SILC. It is only available for 11 Member States: BE, BG, DE, GR, IE, IT, LU, MT, PT, RO and SK.

⁷ In EU-SILC, the reference period for respondents’ self-reported time spent is the same as the survey period (i.e. 2010), while the reference period for income is typically the calendar year previous to the survey year (i.e. 2009). Thus, there is a slight mismatch in the reference period of the income data and time use data. Ideally, income data from 2011 EU-SILC should be used. However, such data were not available at the start of this study.

Figure 4 shows the country-level results for domestic work by earnings structure. In each of the 11 countries, it can be observed that women’s time spent on domestic work decreases substantially as their contribution to the couples’ earnings increases. While this observation holds true for men, the effect is much weaker.

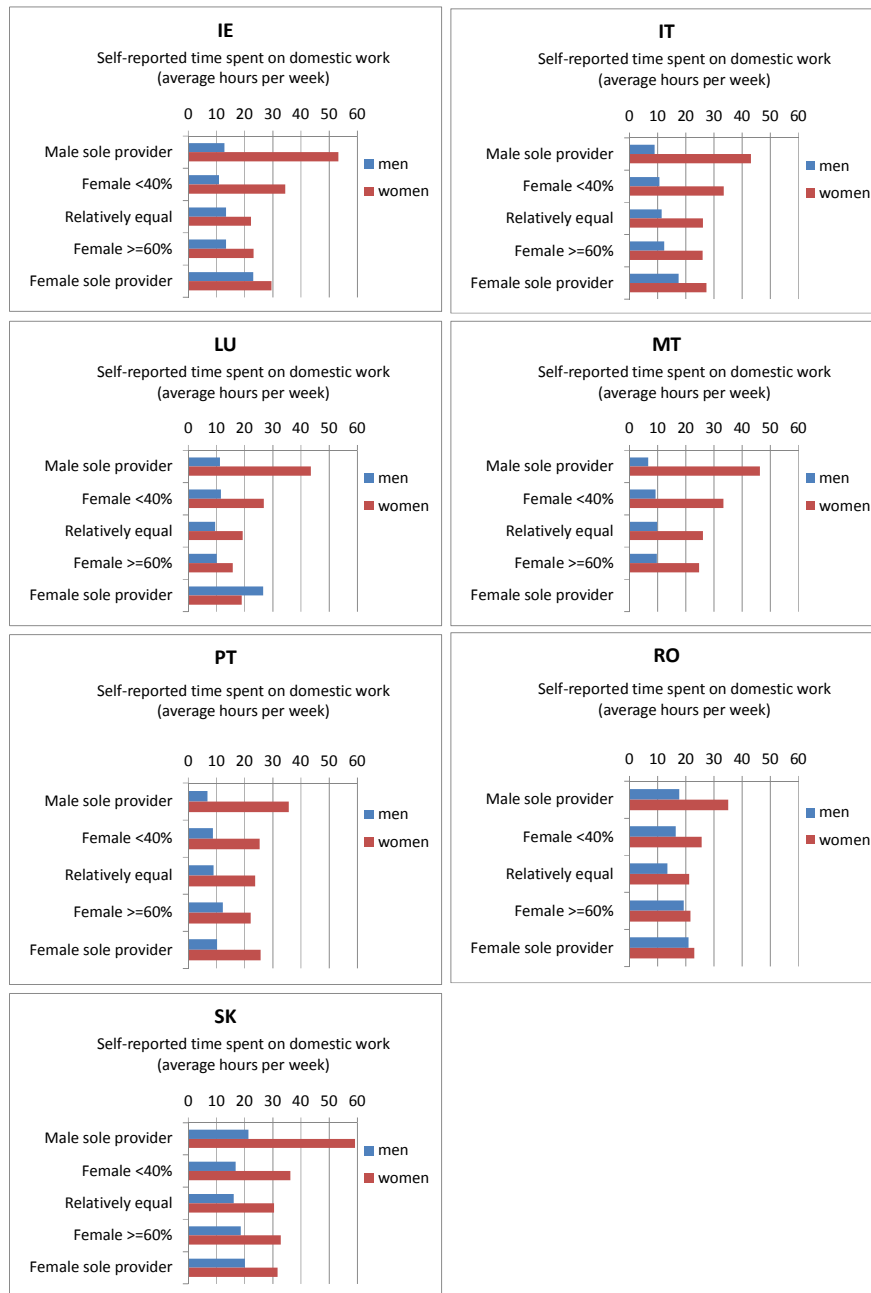
These country-level results are presented in table form in Appendix B). In all cases, the differences in self-reported time spent on domestic work between men and women are found to be statistically significant at the 95 per cent confidence level.

Figure 4: Self-reported time spent on domestic work by household earnings structure by country



(Figure 4 continue overleaf)

(Figure 4 cont.)

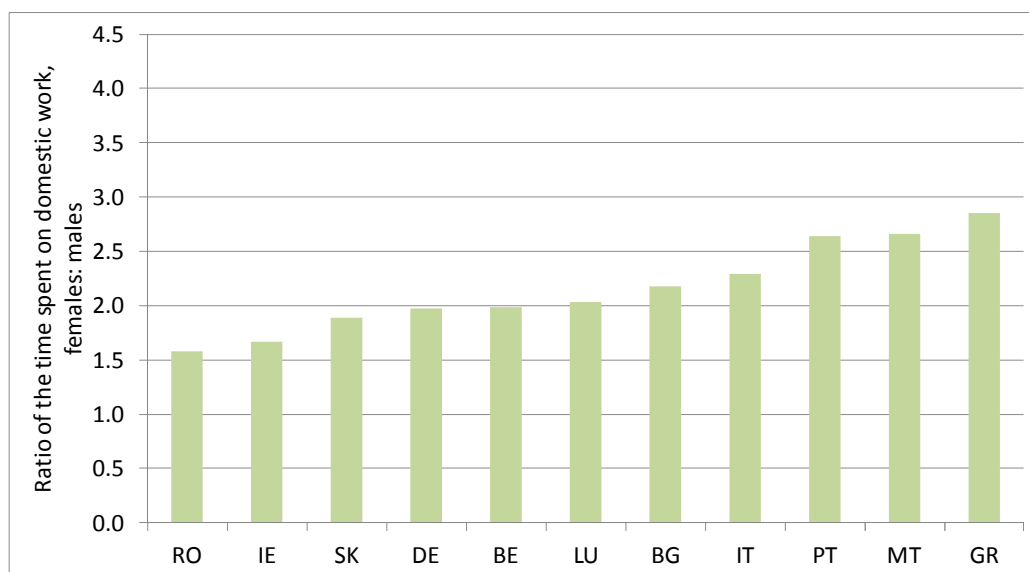


Source: EU-SILC 2010, authors' own calculations.

Notes: The samples of female sole providers in BE and MT are too small to be published, so only nine countries are presented in this chart.

Figure 5 focuses on households in which the earnings contributions by the two partners are relative equal. It shows the ratio between the female partner's self-reported time spent on domestic work and that of the male partner. The ratio is greater than one in every country, indicating that women in all countries spend more time than men in domestic work. In particular, in Greece, Malta and Portugal, the ratio of women's to men's time spent on domestic work is more than 2.5 to 1.

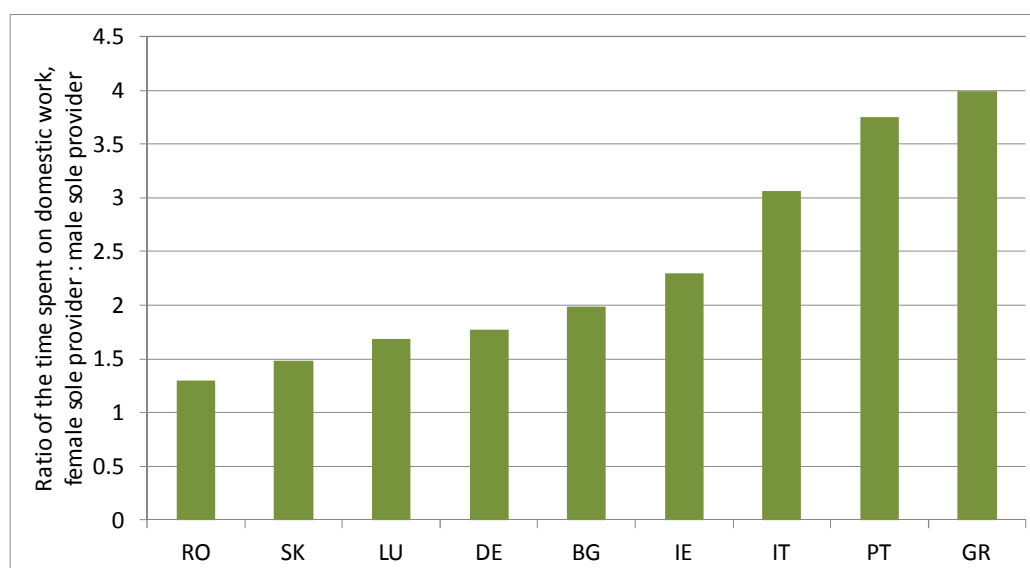
Figure 5: Self-reported time spent on domestic work, for households with relatively equal male and female earnings contributions, by gender and country



Source: EU-SILC 2010, authors' own calculations.

When focusing the analysis on male and female sole providers (Figure 6), we see a similar pattern as in Figure 5. The country where the time spent on domestic work is distributed most equally between men and women is Romania (a ratio of 1.3 to 1). In Greece on the other hand, the distribution is most unequal. The ratio of female sole providers' to male sole providers' time spent on domestic work in Greece is 4 to 1.

Figure 6: Self-reported time spent on domestic work, ratio of female sole providers to male sole providers, by country



Source: EU-SILC 2010, authors' own calculations.

Notes: The samples of female sole providers in BE and MT are too small to be published, so only nine countries are presented in this chart.

These figures suggest that the total number of hours spent on domestic work by the couple decreases as women increase their earnings contribution. It is likely that when women work, some of the domestic tasks are outsourced, for example through paid domestic support. The data available do not provide information about consumption of catering or other household services. This is an area for further research.

7. Conclusions

Our empirical findings indicated a continued majority of male sole-earner or main-earner roles. We did find evidence of a decline in this gender imbalance between 2007 and 2010. It is not yet known, however, whether this will ultimately be seen to have been driven by the economic crisis or to be part of a continuing trend towards more gender-equal couple earnings structures.

Our empirical findings also addressed the tension between more gender-equal earnings that are expected to promote more gender-equal domestic work contributions and gender-role norms that perpetuate unequal domestic work contributions. We found that women spent far more hours in domestic work tasks than men, and that there is a relatively small difference in domestic work hours between men who contribute all most of the couple's earnings and men who contribute smaller proportions of the couple's earnings. In contrast, we found that women who contribute smaller proportions or none of the couple's earnings spent many more hours in domestic work tasks. These findings suggested an important factor that is likely to continue to act as a drag on change towards more earnings equality within couples, even in the presence of effective work/family reconciliation policies: a highly unequal gender division of labour in the home.

It is useful to put our findings in the context of studies conducted in a slightly earlier period, and therefore excluding the more recent EU accession countries (Bielenski et al. 2002; Rubin et al. 2008). A contribution of our study is that we were able to include a broader group of European countries, whose pre-transition institutional context was of a more gender-equal model of labour force participation than the 'conservative' countries of Western Europe. We expected a degree of cultural and institutional continuity that would be reflected in gender equality in couples' earnings structures in the Eastern European countries. Indeed we found that Slovenia was, with Denmark, the most equal country in terms of couples' earnings structures. We also found that other Eastern European countries tended to be more gender-equal than Western and Southern European 'conservative' countries. Austria and Germany, for example, remain among the least gender-equal in their couple earnings structures.

We suggested that in the context of much smaller contributions to domestic tasks among men than women, it is likely that when women work, some of the domestic tasks are outsourced (e.g. through paid domestic help). The data available to us for this study do not provide information about consumption of catering or other household services, and this is clearly an area for further research. There are, however, limits to the extent to which family and household tasks can be outsourced (Hochschild 2012). Therefore trends and differentials in the gendered division of domestic labour will continue to be important for our understanding of gender differences in market labour and earnings within European families.

Future research

Because of the resource available for this study, we have not looked into the difference between couples who have children and those who do not. This would be an interesting line of inquiry to shed light on whether the patterns found in the study are ‘parenthood-induced’ or ‘gender induced’. By parenthood-induced, we refer to the gender inequalities in earnings and sharing of household duties that are brought about by parenthood. Previous studies (e.g. Kaufman and Uhlenberg (2000) and Sanchez and Thomson (1997)) show that men increase their employment if they become fathers, while women decrease their employment and increase their time spent on household duties when they become mothers (childcare and other household work). By gender-induced, we refer to the patterns of inequality between women’s/men’s earnings and sharing of household tasks are already found among childless couples. From an analytical point of view, this would involve distinguishing between childless couples and couples with children, and additionally control for the number of children and the age of the youngest child.

For couples with children, it would be interesting to distinguish between the share of men’s contribution to childcare vs. (non-caring) household chores. There are studies showing that over the past few decades men have more engaged in childrearing tasks, but not much more in general household tasks (e.g Parker and Wang 2013).

Another possible area of further research is to tackle the question on whether the increased in earning contribution by women observed is a real female empowerment story or just driven by the purpose of keeping the level of household income in times of the crisis. It would be interesting to investigate the dynamics within the dual earner couples, to understand whether the increase in the female contribution observed was due to higher earning, more working hours of the woman, or just a decrease in the earning of the man in time of economic downturn.

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Appendix A: Distribution of couples by earnings structure and country, 2010

		Male sole provider	Female <40%	Relatively equal	Female ≥60%	Female sole provider
Austria	AT	19%	48%	23%	6%	4%
Belgium	BE	16%	34%	38%	7%	5%
Bulgaria	BG	17%	36%	33%	10%	3%
Cyprus	CY	19%	38%	33%	8%	1%
Czech Republic	CZ	26%	38%	28%	6%	2%
Germany	DE	20%	44%	22%	8%	5%
Denmark	DK	7%	36%	43%	11%	4%
Estonia	EE	20%	38%	25%	12%	6%
Spain	ES	22%	30%	29%	10%	9%
Finland	FI	10%	40%	33%	12%	4%
France	FR	12%	39%	36%	10%	3%
Greece	GR	30%	30%	26%	10%	4%
Hungary	HU	27%	27%	30%	11%	5%
Ireland	IE	29%	25%	22%	12%	12%
Iceland	IS	7%	47%	33%	11%	2%
Italy	IT	32%	33%	25%	6%	4%
Lithuania	LT	16%	32%	20%	21%	12%
Luxembourg	LU	21%	37%	29%	9%	4%
Latvia	LV	14%	36%	24%	18%	7%
Malta	MT	44%	23%	25%	7%	1%
Netherlands	NL	12%	51%	27%	7%	3%
Norway	NO	6%	50%	33%	7%	3%
Poland	PL	27%	30%	27%	11%	6%
Portugal	PT	19%	30%	35%	10%	5%
Romania	RO	32%	25%	34%	5%	4%
Sweden	SE	8%	44%	35%	10%	3%
Slovenia	SI	8%	35%	35%	18%	4%
Slovakia	SK	19%	32%	37%	8%	4%
United Kingdom	UK	19%	39%	28%	9%	5%
EU27 (no MT data)		21%	36%	28%	9%	5%

Appendix B: Males' and females' self-reported time spent on domestic work by types of households and country

Time use data are available for 2010 and for 11 Member States only (BE, BG, DE, GR, IE, IT, LU, MT, PT, RO, SK).

Data are published only if sample size is greater than 20. Parentheses are used to indicate results based on a small sample (20–49 observations), i.e. low statistical reliability.

In all cases, the differences in self-reported time spent on domestic work between men and women are found to be statistically significant at the 95 per cent confidence level.

Domestic work includes housework, child care, and care for other dependents.

BE

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
male sole provider	7.8	40.7	32.9	5.2	0.0	0.0	190
Female <40%	10.4	28.9	18.5	2.8	2.6	-11.8	440
Relatively equal	12.0	23.8	11.8	2.0	4.2	-16.9	423
Female >=60%	12.1	22.5	10.4	1.9	4.3	-18.2	65
Female sole provider	(18.4)	(26.5)	(8)	(1.4)	(10.6)	(-14.3)	35

BG

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	11.7	33.2	21.5	2.8	0.0	0.0	218
Female <40%	10.7	25.7	15.0	2.4	-1.0	-7.5	467
Relatively equal	10.4	22.8	12.3	2.2	-1.3	-10.4	476
Female >=60%	12.0	22.7	10.7	1.9	0.3	-10.5	144
Female sole provider	14.3	23.2	9.0	1.6	2.5	-10.0	52

DE

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	13.5	48.7	35.2	3.6	0.0	0.0	539
Female <40%	13.0	34.1	21.2	2.6	-0.5	-14.5	1252
Relatively equal	9.3	18.3	9.1	2.0	-4.2	-30.4	590
Female >=60%	12.1	15.9	3.8	1.3	-1.4	-32.8	229
Female sole provider	17.9	23.8	5.9	1.3	4.5	-24.8	143

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GR

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	6.7	38.6	31.9	5.8	0.0	0.0	543
Female <40%	7.6	28.8	21.1	3.8	0.9	-9.8	479
Relatively equal	9.1	25.9	16.8	2.9	2.4	-12.7	403
Female >=60%	7.8	25.0	17.2	3.2	1.1	-13.6	148
Female sole provider	9.5	26.7	17.2	2.8	2.8	-11.9	85

IE

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	12.9	53.3	40.4	4.1	0.0	0.0	277
Female <40%	10.8	34.4	23.6	3.2	-2.0	-18.8	276
Relatively equal	13.4	22.3	8.9	1.7	0.5	-31.0	210
Female >=60%	13.4	23.2	9.9	1.7	0.5	-30.0	113
Female sole provider	23.1	29.5	6.5	1.3	10.2	-23.7	140

IT

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	8.9	43.1	34.2	4.9	0.0	0.0	1308
Female <40%	10.6	33.4	22.8	3.2	1.7	-9.7	1593
Relatively equal	11.4	26.0	14.7	2.3	2.5	-17.1	1173
Female >=60%	12.3	25.9	13.6	2.1	3.4	-17.2	317
Female sole provider	17.4	27.2	9.8	1.6	8.5	-15.9	176

LU

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	11.3	43.5	32.2	3.9	0.0	0.0	354
Female <40%	11.6	26.8	15.2	2.3	0.3	-16.7	586
Relatively equal	9.5	19.4	9.8	2.0	-1.7	-24.1	397
Female >=60%	10.2	15.8	5.6	1.6	-1.1	-27.7	112
Female sole provider	26.6	18.9	-7.6	0.7	15.3	-24.6	74

RAND Europe

MT

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	6.6	46.2	39.6	7.0	0.0	0.0	425
Female <40%	9.2	33.3	24.1	3.6	2.6	-12.9	205
Relatively equal	9.8	26.0	16.2	2.7	3.2	-20.2	193
Female >=60%	9.7	24.8	15.1	2.6	3.1	-21.5	54
Female sole provider	:	:	:	:	:	:	9

PT

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	6.8	35.7	28.8	5.2	0.0	0.0	243
Female <40%	8.8	25.3	16.5	2.9	1.9	-10.4	341
Relatively equal	9.0	23.7	14.7	2.6	2.2	-11.9	417
Female >=60%	12.3	22.1	9.8	1.8	5.4	-13.6	121
Female sole provider	10.2	25.7	15.5	2.5	3.4	-10.0	67

RO

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	17.6	35.1	17.4	2.0	0.0	0.0	544
Female <40%	16.4	25.6	9.2	1.6	-1.3	-9.5	430
Relatively equal	13.4	21.2	7.8	1.6	-4.3	-13.9	635
Female >=60%	19.3	21.7	2.4	1.1	1.6	-13.4	107
Female sole provider	21.0	22.9	2.0	1.1	3.3	-12.1	84

SK

	Self-reported time spent on domestic work (average hours per week)				Time spent on domestic work relative to male sole provider households		number of couples in the sample
	Men	Women	Difference (women-men)	Ratio (women: men)	Men	Women	
Male sole provider	21.4	59.2	37.8	2.8	0.0	0.0	293
Female <40%	16.8	36.3	19.4	2.2	-4.6	-22.9	539
Relatively equal	16.1	30.5	14.3	1.9	-5.2	-28.7	639
Female >=60%	18.6	32.8	14.2	1.8	-2.8	-26.4	127
Female sole provider	20.1	31.6	11.5	1.6	-1.3	-27.6	61

