

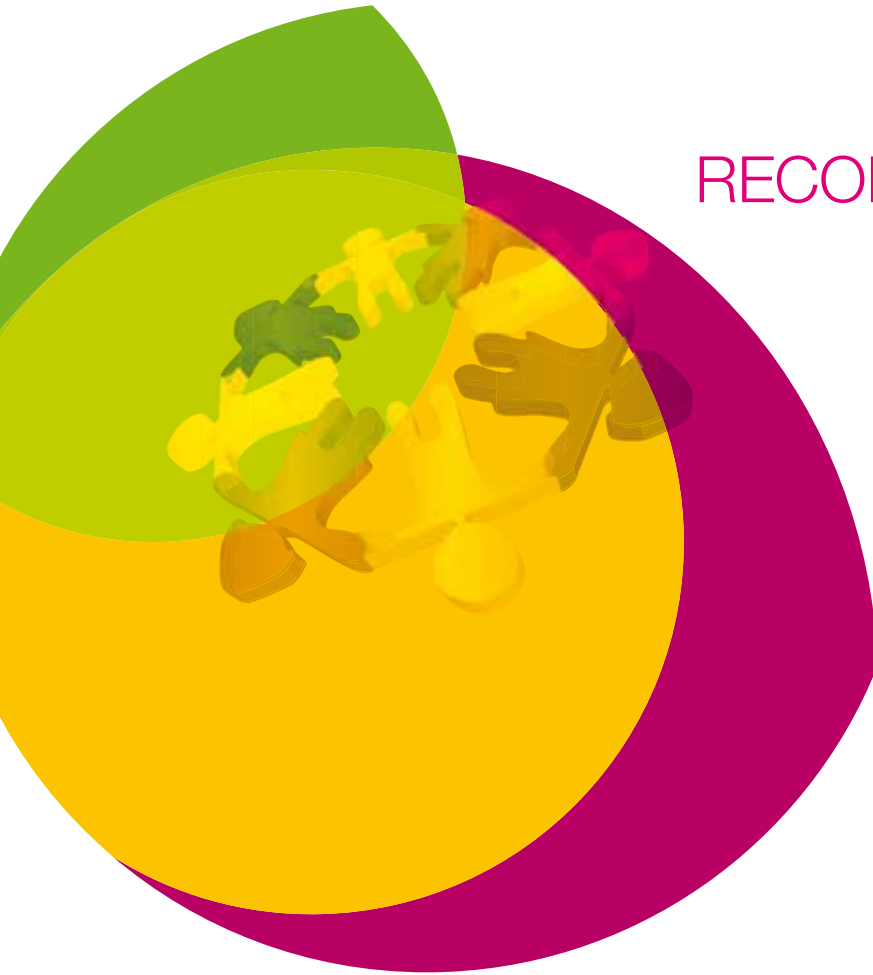
People

Innovation for
Societal Change



FAMILY DIVERSITY AND RECONCILIATION STRATEGIES. A COMPARATIVE STUDY

DIVERSIA
FINAL REPORT



Instituto Andaluz de la Mujer
CONSEJERÍA PARA LA IGUALDAD Y BIENESTAR SOCIAL



Family Diversity and Reconciliation Strategies. A comparative Study

Diversia. Final Report

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1.	Summary	7
2.	Introduction	9
3.	Theoretical Basis: Reconciliation and family diversity	13
3.1.	New Families on the European panorama	13
3.2.	The challenge of reconciliation in the new family panorama	15
3.3.	Reconciliation and life satisfaction	17
3.4.	Andalusia, Malopolska and Stockholm in terms of Family Diversity, Reconciliation Policy and Life Satisfaction	20
4.	Reconciliation in family diversity study	29
4.1.	Method	29
4.1.1.	Participants	29
4.1.2.	Procedure to access the participant families	31
4.1.3.	Socio-demographic characteristics of the participants	32
4.1.4.	Instruments and procedure	44
4.2.	Results	45
4.2.1.	Caring for the children	46
4.2.2.	Resources to care for the children	60
4.2.3.	Reconciliation measures at the workplace	67
4.2.4.	Other reconciliation strategies	77
4.2.5.	Domestic co-responsibility	86
4.2.6.	Personal life reconciliation	93
4.2.7.	General remarks about reconciliation	100
4.2.8.	Life satisfaction and its relationship with reconciliation	109

4.3.	Conclusions and Discussion	114
4.3.1.	Native heterosexual families: men are involved in family life, but not equally	114
4.3.2.	Immigrant heterosexual families: the more traditional gender role patterns and less access to reconciliation resources at the work place	117
4.3.3.	Same-sex parent families: reconciliation from a joint responsibility of the couple	118
4.3.4.	Single mother families: reconciliation through a greater use of resources	120
4.3.5.	Reconciliation in Malopolska: Limited resources, little co-responsibility within the couple and low satisfaction	122
4.3.6.	Reconciliation in Stockholm: Good resources, equalitarian involvement, high life satisfaction	124
4.3.7.	Reconciliation in Andalusia: Highs and Lows in reconciliation	126
4.3.8.	Reconciliation and life satisfaction	128
5.	Good practices in reconciliation	133
5.1.	Methodology for detection and transference of best practices relative to reconciliation between women and men in Europe	133
5.2.	Examples of good practice in reconciliation in Andalusia	135
5.3.	Examples of good practice in reconciliation in Malopolska	146
5.4.	Examples of good practice in reconciliation in Stockholm	149
5.5.	Conclusions of Good Practices on reconciliation	154
6.	General recommendations for promoting reconciliation between working, family and personal life in diverse families	157
6.1.	Institutional measures linked to child care	158
6.2.	Measures related to work conditions	160
6.3.	Time policies	160
6.4.	Promote changes in the shared social representations with regards to gender and family	162
6.5.	Attention to groups with special needs	163
7.	References	167
Annex (interview)		174



1. Summary

DIVERSIA is the short name of the subproject “Family diversity and reconciliation strategies,” integrated in the PEOPLE program that seeks to approach sub-objective 1 of this project: Reconciliation of career, family and personal life. Partners from three European regions participated in this project: Andalusia (Spain), Malopolska (Poland) and Stockholm (Sweden). The aims of DIVERSIA are to deepen into the difficulties in reconciling career and personal life that new family models face, as well as to perform a comparative analysis of difficulties and resources for reconciliation between the several family models studied, across the three regions involved.

A total of 330 families participated in this study; of these, 164 were from the region of Andalusia (Spain), 97 from the region of Malopolska (Poland) and 67 from the region of Stockholm (Sweden). Considering the family diversity, 135 participants were native heterosexual parents from each region, 69 gay/lesbian parents, 67 single mothers and 59 immigrant heterosexual families. The families participating in this study were phone interviewed by specifically trained experts on the subject. The interview (semi-structured) was designed specifically for this study.

When the different family models were compared, the following results were found: in native heterosexual families the men were involved in family life, but not equally; immigrant heterosexual families presented the most traditional pattern and had less access to reconciliation resources at the work place; in the case of two same-sex parent families, the reconciliation of working, family and personal life was a joint responsibility of the couple; finally, the single mother families reconciled mainly through the greatest use of resources.

Comparisons between regions report that in Malopolska the resources for reconciliation were limited; there were little co-responsibility within the couples and families showed low life satisfaction. In Stockholm, families were highly satisfied with children care resources; Swedish couples showed the most equal patterns of all those studied and families had high life satisfaction. In Andalusia, same-sex couples were much more equalitarian than heterosexual ones, families were relatively satisfied with children care resources and showed life satisfaction scores in intermediate positions between those obtained in the other two regions studied.

Finally, we provide recommendations for the improvement of reconciliation in the several family models, based on the conclusions extracted from both the study and the analysis of good practices in the three regions, included in this report too.



2. Introduction

PEOPLE Innovation for Societal Change is a European mini-programme led by the *Junta de Andalucía* (Andalusian Regional Government) co-funded under the Interregional Cooperation programme INTERREG IVC.

This European programme involves seven European regions: Andalusia (Spain), South East England (UK), Venice (Italy), Noord-Brabant (Netherlands), Malopolska (Poland), Stockholm (Sweden) and Timis (Romania).

The general aim of PEOPLE is to explore opportunities for new forms of employment and improving well-being and cohesion within the context of demographic and societal changes. This way, PEOPLE will contribute to reinforce the cohesion and social welfare in the participating regions and find solutions to address some of the consequences of the economic downturn. There are six themes open under PEOPLE:

- Sub-objective 1 - Reconciliation of work and private life
- Sub-objective 2 - E-health and Independence
- Sub-objective 3 - Silver economy
- Sub-objective 4 - Social and e-inclusion
- Sub-objective 5 - Social entrepreneurship
- Sub-objective 6 - Civil society empowerment

DIVERSIA is the short name of the subproject **“Family diversity and reconciliation strategies”**, a sub-project integrated in the PEOPLE programme that seeks to approach sub-objective 1 of this project: Reconciliation of career and personal life.

Partners from three European regions participated in this project: Andalusia, Malopolska and Stockholm. Partners of Diversia Project in Andalusia are: Andalusian Women’s Institute (lead partner) and University of

Seville (Unit for Equality). In Malopolska, Association of Cities and Counties of Malopolska. In Stockholm Region, Municipality of Södertälje.

This project was designed to reach six main objectives:

1. Deepen into the difficulties in reconciling career and personal life that new family models face in addition to the strategies and resources they count on and the needs that fail to be covered.
2. Perform a compared analysis of difficulties and resources for reconciliation within the various family models. For this, the analysis of single parent families, two same-sex parent families will be included, as well as heterosexual two parents families, both native and immigrant.
3. Compare the three regions involved in terms of reconciliation strategies and resources, as well as its effect on the satisfaction that these families show with the efficiency to resolve reconciliation problems.
4. Analyse the relationship between the assessment these families make between the reconciliation difficulties and recourses between the career, family and personal life in relation to the psychological well-being they perceive.
5. Likewise, seek to detect, in each region, the good practices in terms of reconciliation that could become a reference throughout Europe.
6. The final objective is to present the various social agents with recommendations to be launched to provide measures that facilitate and promote reconciliation in the respective regions.

The project is consistent with the European Roadmap for Equality between women and men for the period 2006-2010, in which one of its six areas is relating “Reconciliation of private and professional life.” Within Spain, it is also consistent with the Andalusian Law for the Promotion of Gender Equality in Andalusia (Law 12/2007). The Polish region is obliged to follow the Constitution of the Polish Republic and the Polish Labour Code in terms of gender equality and the implementation of horizontal EU policies. Finally, the Stockholm Region as well as the Municipality of Sodertälje is obliged to follow The Swedish Government’s Gender Equality Policy, which supports the Constitutional Law of Sweden and also the policies and action plans concerning Gender Equality in the Municipality of Sodertälje.



3. Theoretical Basis: Reconciliation and family diversity

In industrialized societies, and more specifically in Europe, major changes have taken place within the family sphere in recent decades. Until a few decades ago, European households, for the most part, fit in with the model of a man and a woman united in marriage, with their biological children who were born from that union. The mother was in charge of the reproductive tasks (domestic and care), while the father performed productive tasks, dedicated to guaranteeing family sustain, as well as holding the maximum authority and being the family representative. In recent years, this nuclear family model, with profound patriarchal roots, has undergone extremely significant transformations, both with regards to its structure and components and in terms of the roles played within and the dynamics of the relationship in the heart of the family.

3.1. New families on the European panorama

To begin with the structure of European households, perhaps the best way to define the tendency observed in Europe in recent decades was synthesized by Boh, Bak and Clason (1989) as of “convergence towards divergence.” There is no doubt that the conventional nuclear family described in the previous paragraph has lost the hegemony it enjoyed with the appearance of other family models. Thus, currently, it is simple to verify to what extent there is a remarkable increase of families where the progenitors cohabit without being married, single parent families where only one progenitor is solely responsible for their children and, more recently, gay/lesbian families where both progenitors are of the same sex, in various European countries. In the same way, the children making up these families are no longer always their own and biological, but rather, there has been an increase in the presence of families with adopted or fostered children, or families in which the children come from previous unions, so-called reconstituted or step-families. Thus, the current family panorama is certainly much more diverse than what it was some decades ago and, in fact, it requires the attention of specialists from a variety of disciplines (Arranz and Oliva, 2010; Coleman and Ganong, 2004; Demo, Allen, and Fine, 2000; Golombok, 2000; Gottfried and Gottfried, 1994; Hantrais, 2004).

Consequently, families that were, in the past, rejected, made invisible or simply ignored, have become progressively known, visible and benefit from a certain degree of acceptance on the European fam-

ily panorama, in a process in which the limits between family legitimacy and illegitimacy have become blurred, which is one of the keys to the processes of family transition seen in recent decades and that is well described by Flaquer (1999). Obviously, all these family models do not enjoy the same acceptance and legitimacy in the various European countries. This fact is particularly evident, for example, in households where the breadwinners are lesbian mothers or gay fathers (Takacs and Szalma, 2011), whose relationships have legal backing in only a few European countries.

Therefore, society is faced with a truly complex family panorama that has led to the statement that society has moved from the “model family” to family models. These changes have frequently been interpreted as evidence of the “family in crisis,” the “decline of the family” or the “loss of family values” (Blankerhorn, 1996; Popenoe, 1993, 2007). From the standpoint of the authors of this study, as Lamo de Espinosa (1995) outlined several years ago, the history of humanity is, in a certain sense, the history of the “family in crisis.” The family, as an institution, has not remained unalterable, but rather it has changed throughout history and across world geography in an effort to cover the needs and aspirations of human beings and societies in different contexts and times (Seccombe, 1992).

As has been said, in addition to changes in the structure and components of the family household, modifications are also taking place to the roles that women and men play within the household and in the dynamics of their internal relationship. From among these changes, one that is particularly relevant must be noted, because it has altered the prevailing patriarchal order in the families and has had clear social consequences: the progressive and constant incorporation of women to perform remunerated professional tasks, as indicated by the statistics about the size of the female workforce in Europe. Although these continue to reflect a higher rate of activity in men than in women, it is no less true that the gap between men and women has been narrowing remarkable in recent decades.

Thus, if the activity rates of men and women in the 15 European countries are compared, these have moved from a 23% difference in 1992 (between 49.7% of women working and 72.8% of men) to a 12% difference in 2010 (between 59.5% and 71.4%) according to Eurostat (2011) data. If attention is paid to a specific country rather than looking at the average European data—only available since 1992—this change can be observed over the last 50 years. In Spain in 1960, the respective working rates for women and men were 13.49% and 64.24%, and there was, therefore, 50 points of difference between them (Alberdi, 1999). In 2010, however, the values were 52.3% in the case of women and 64.7% in the

case of men; thus, the difference between them has been reduced to 12% (Eurostat, 2011), or what is the same, the gap in the working rate between men and women has decreased almost 40 points in 50 years in Spain alone. Obviously, it is not the same to look at this aspect in Spain, a country in southern Europe and traditionally a very patriarchal society, than to look at northern Europe, where women began remunerated employment decades ago. In Sweden or in Denmark, for example, the working rates of women and men are not only both above the European average, but rather they are also very close to one another (barely a 5-point difference) and they show hardly any development between 1992 and 2010, according to the data published by Eurostat (2011).

This process of women joining the workforce has been a consistent change in new generations, as verified by the statistics differentiated by age. Possibly, this is due to the new meaning that remunerated work has for women. The experience of working and the achievement of economic income transforms the lives of women, because this not only means attaining economic independence, but is also a fundamental contribution to the family they are part of, as was concluded in the study by Tobío, Arteta and Fernández-Cordon (1996). In accordance with the conclusions of this study, work has moved from structuring the lives of women to providing them a social profile of their own, to become the context for self-identification, functions that in the past were played by the family or couple. Changes in activity backed by changes of identity tend to be perpetuated.

Therefore, and in synthesis, as was announced at the beginning of this section, new families appear, both due to their composition as well as the tasks performed within them. Within this new family panorama, many questions arise that have not yet found sufficient answers, and one of the most pertinent is related to the subject of reconciliation between career, family and personal life.

3.2. The challenge of reconciliation in the new family panorama

The massive incorporation of new generations of women into the workforce has given rise to necessary adjustments inside and outside of the family. In the patriarchal family model, the roles and tasks were clearly differentiated and sanctioned, as has been seen: men in the productive and remunerated tasks and women dedicated to reproductive tasks and those that are neither remunerated nor recognized. This established order has been subverted by the incorporation of women into the labour market and it has had remarkable consequences both for the life of the family as well as for the social system itself, as will be explained in this section.

Logically, the movement women have begun towards working outside their households has driven a movement of men towards the home (Durán, 1998). If, in the past, men in charge of the domestic and caretaking tasks were the exception, today, there are a growing number of men involved in the daily care-related tasks of the home and the children. To a great extent, this has been prompted by the necessity of taking charge of responsibilities previously undertaken by women. The fact that men have started performing domestic chores does not mean that their implication is identical. It certainly continues to be inferior, as has been verified in studies carried out in a number of countries, even when mothers have full time careers (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer and Robinson, 2000; Craig, 2006; Gálvez-Muñoz, Rodríguez-Modroño and Domínguez-Serrano, 2011; Meil, 2005; Tobío, 2005). As Craig (2006) outlined in his analysis of the models of child care that mothers and fathers perform in Australia, the fact that women have “masculinised” (in a traditional sense) their working patterns did not have as consequence that the men have “feminized” nor that the women have “masculinised” their care patterns.

If this happens in conventional families, under the responsibility of a man and a woman, one could wonder what is happening simultaneously with new family models. Obviously, there is much less data about how the domestic and care-related tasks are allotted in gay/lesbian families, where children grow up with two lesbian mothers or two gay fathers. However, the available information is reasonably similar in all the countries where studied. According to the accumulated scientific evidence, in gay/lesbian families, lesbian mothers or gay fathers perform very equal roles within the family, so that in many cases, they share the domestic chores, care for their children and make decisions jointly (Bos et al, 2007; Chan, et al, 1998; González, Chacón, Gómez, Sánchez, and Morcillo, 2003) while at the same time, contribute to the maintenance of the family (Fulcher, Sutfin, and Patterson, 2008). It is the adoptive gay/lesbian families who show the sharpest tendency towards balanced equality, especially in child care (Ciano-Boyce and Shelley-Sireci, 2002). Possibly due to the more equitable character of the couples, the lesbian mothers or gay fathers in the studies carried out in other countries are more satisfied with the allotment of tasks than heterosexual couples or they show greater satisfaction with their partner’s role as “co-mother or co-father” (Bos, van Balen, and van den Boom, 2004; Patterson, 1995, 2002). An indirect confirmation of this statement can be gained from the fact that in heterosexual families, disparity in the allotment of domestic chores is one of the clearest reasons for dissatisfaction in marriage and one of the risk factors for the rupture of the couple’s project of sharing a life together (Meil, 2005).

If the focal point of the previous paragraphs was on the families with two progenitors, whether the same or different sex, the focus will now be on single parent families, which tend to usually be mothers (more than 8 out of every 10, in Europe). If the reconciliation between the various spheres and roles involved in the daily life of men and women leads to a major source of tension and conflicts for two-parent families, it is easy to imagine what it must be like for the mothers who are on their own. Undoubtedly, the tensions of reconciliation are one of the main pitfalls in the experience of maternity for these women, because the coordination between work and family is more difficult when there are only two hands to do everything, paraphrasing the title of an article by Hertz and Ferguson (1998). This was made clear by the studies carried out about the experience of single motherhood, both those performed with single mothers who had not sought this state in advance (Jiménez, González and Morgado, 2005; Tobío, 2005) as well as those who voluntarily embarked on the adventure of being single mothers by choice (González, Jiménez, Morgado and Díez, 2008).

The results in the studies with single mothers show that, conscious of their need for help, they demand, more than other parents, family support and institutional support resources, where these exist, usually with a combination of both (González et al, 2008; Hertz and Ferguson, 1998; Jiménez et al, 2005; Tobío, 2005). No research has been found that compares the use of resources by single mother families in different circumstances. However, it could possibly be deduced from the different studies that the women who chose to be single mothers seek institutional and paid resources more frequently, while those who have been forced into this circumstance depend more upon family resources; this may also be due to their different economic resources, clearly less in the latter.

Therefore, and in summary, the tensions of reconciliation between career and family life seem to impregnate the life of new European families. However, studies are still lacking to perform in-depth and comparatively research into the problems and difficulties, but also the resources and strategies used by European families with different structures and composition. To cover this evident deficiency in the literature, the project DIVERSIA was designed, as have been explained in the introduction of this report.

3.3. Reconciliation and Life Satisfaction

In previous sections, reference has been made to new family circumstances, the objective needs to reconcile family and career life and the resources that parents count on to this end. This section seeks to

analyze the more subjective aspect of these new realities, the relationship of these objective conditions with the perception of quality of life and psychological well-being of the parents.

Obviously, the daily stress of reconciling a career and family life is far from insignificant in the lives of European mothers and fathers; therefore, it can be supposed that this affects their psychological well-being or discomfort. This is an area of study that has only recently begun to be explored, about which interesting conclusions can already be drawn; nevertheless, there are still a number of unresolved questions. It is some of these that this study aspires to explore.

In recent decades, the study of psychological well-being and quality of life has been strongly present in scientific literature. This coincides with an increase of what has been identified as “Positive Psychology,” a change of focus in the discipline of psychology, which has, for decades, been more concerned with discomfort and pathology than for well-being. Although the initial studies about happiness and other components of well-being can be found the 1930s, as clearly stated by Wilson (1967) in his crucial review, in fact, it was not to be until four or five decades later that there was a proliferation of studies in this field, as attested by the reviews by Diener (1984; Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith, 1999).

One of the most frequently used indicators for perceived psychological well-being and quality of life is known as “Life Satisfaction.” This would be its most cognitive and evaluative component, since it is a subjective judgement about whether an individual life fits the standards that each person wants for themselves. Therefore, it is not a direct consequence of the objective conditions, although it is related; rather, it is fruit of a purely subjective comparison between the circumstances of the individual’s life and their aspirations. It could be defined as “satisfaction with life as a whole;” in other words, the individual and subjective global evaluation of one’s individual life, which is something more than the sum of the satisfaction with different parts of life, as is postulated by Diener (1984), who is a person of reference in this field and author of one of the most utilized evaluation scales, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985).

The relationship between life satisfaction and the stress of reconciliation between career and family life has been approached in the scientific literature only recently. Traditionally, studies analyzed two types of determinants for life satisfaction, as is stated by Bönke (2005). On one hand, psychology of a more clinical nature was occupied with the influence of personality determinants, such as certain temperamental dispositions, the degree of extroversion or the neuroticism, among others. On the other hand,

Sociology and Social Psychology professionals essentially analyzed the influence of life circumstances, such as educational levels, income, type of employment and social relationships. Conventionally, the balance between career and family life had not been included in these life circumstances as a condition that could affect life satisfaction, based on whether it was perceived as being in balance or leaning more towards one side or the other.

The first attempts at analyzing the subjective experience of reconciliation conditions only touched upon its negative aspects and only in women: it was found that the conflicts caused by reconciliation difficulties and the associated stress had pernicious effects on the health of women (Farmer, 1984; Gove, 1984). This focus should not be surprising, since the reconciliation needs began being seen as a female matter, and the fact that negative effects were sought out somehow fit with the social perception that the established order was being upset.

Later on, however, a series of studies tinged these statements, and noted that the pernicious effects on health appeared in those cases in which both career and family demands were very high and therefore, difficult to reconcile, such as in the case of single mothers with dependent children who worked full-time (Macran, Clarke, & Joshi, 1996). In fact, the study by Fokkema (2002) demonstrated how a specific combination of career life - family life promoted the best standards of health in women, both married and divorced; this being especially evident in the case of those who worked part-time or had older children.

It would not be until some time later that the first studies appeared, in which the link between career life - family life relationship was explored, with psychological well-being or quality of life measurements. Initially, the relationship continued to be formulated in terms of “conflict” between career and non-career life (Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992). However, later on, in the last decade, thinking moved towards more positive terms, using expressions such as “equilibrium,” “balance” or “reconciliation” between both (Hobson, Delunas & Kesic, 2001; Schoon, Hansson, & Salmela-Aro, 2005, Böhnke, 2005).

From among the studies carried out, this work would like to highlight the First European Quality of Life Survey (Böhnke, 2005) due to the complexity of its methodological approach, the breadth of samples and the diversity of European countries involved. In this study, the perceived quality of life was analyzed (life satisfaction, happiness and sense of belonging) in 28 European countries (the 27 current EU coun-

tries as well as Turkey), which analyzed four major determinants including career-life balance and the use of time. The results of this macro-survey clearly demonstrate the variations taking place in the life satisfaction of the European citizens depending on their reconciliation circumstances: those who perceived more difficulties when confronting family responsibilities, or who dedicated less time to the family or social relationships than they would like, had lower scores for life satisfaction. In fact, reconciliation difficulties contributed specifically and significantly to explain life satisfaction even when other important determinants were introduced into the equation, such as material resources or the social relationships the person had.

3.4. Andalusia, Malopolska and Stockholm in terms of Family Diversity, Reconciliation Policy and Life Satisfaction

The three regions included in this study are not only distant in cultural and geographic terms, but also with regards to family diversity as well as in policies of equality and of family reconciliation. There are certainly major differences in the recent history of the countries where the three participant regions are located. While Sweden has enjoyed full democracy since at least 1921, it was not until 1978 when Spain drafted a democratic constitution after almost 40 years of dictatorship. Poland, on the other hand, has enjoyed democracy only since 1989, after more than four decades of a communist regime. Therefore, these societies all have extremely different democratic background in which concerns for family diversity and reconciliation policies between family and career life have lead equally distinctive routes, as will be explained.

Table 1 shows a comparative data from the three regions, which is extremely illustrative of the differences between these regions and on several levels. Some of these comparative data, those most related with family diversity and reconciliation, appear in table 1 of this report and will serve to offer an overview about the differences between these regions. It must be clarified that the data refers to the three countries where the regions included in this study are located. In some cases, the issues compared are regulated at the national; in other cases, it is not simple to find comparable statistical indices for the three regions. Nevertheless, there are some reliable sources that compare the countries in the issues at hand.

Table 1. Comparative data on family diversity and reconciliation in Poland, Spain and Sweden

	Poland	Spain	Sweden
Same-sex marriage	No	2005	2009
Assisted reproduction open to single mothers and same-sex couples	No	2006	2006
Adoption open to single parents	1964	1987	-----
Adoption open to same-sex couples	No	2005	2003
Total Fertility Rate	1,23%	1,46%	1,97%
Female Activity Rate	52,8%	53%	70,2%
Male Activity Rate	62.7%	66,6%	75,1%
GDP expenditure rate in family-related benefits	0,8%	1,2%	3%
Schooling rate 0-3 years/3-6 years	3% / 35%	38% / 95%	49% / 95%
Maternity Leave	5 months	4 months	2 months
Paternity Leave	1 week	2 weeks	2 months
Parental Leave	-----	-----	12 months

Starting with the attitude these three countries have towards family diversity, substantial differences were found among them with regards to the legitimacy enjoyed by the different family models. Both Spain and Sweden have, for example, in recent years, revised their legislations to allow same-sex marriages, as well as joint parenthood of their sons and daughters. In Poland, the constitution itself establishes marriage as the union between a man and a woman; same-sex marriages performed in other countries are not even recognized. Obviously, joint adoption by a same sex couple is also not possible in Poland, while it is in Sweden and Spain.

Likewise, both the legislation of Spain and Sweden, but not the Polish, contemplates the possibility of single women, or even a lesbian couple to use assisted reproduction techniques to become mothers.

However, there is something in common in the three countries with regards to family diversity: in all three countries, the laws contemplate the possibility of singles adopting.

Thus, with regards to attitudes and legitimacy of family diversity, the differences, in this study, are basically between Poland and the other two countries. It is more than probable that it is the fundamental role played by the Catholic Church in Polish society throughout history that is behind these differences, holding together the Polish identity when the country has been occupied by foreign forces, as Eberts (1998) states in a very illustrative article. According to this same author, this was also the case during the communist period, when the Church played an essential role supporting the opposition, which conferred it with moral authority that was fundamental for the transition process towards democracy. At the same time, it justified its preponderant role in the configuration of the new democratic institutions and in the political decisions-making centres in various areas. Thus, although Poland is constitutionally a non-confessional state, the influence of the Catholic Church is felt in social and political life. In this sense, the legal non-recognition of same-sex unions or the difficulties of access to assisted reproduction in general, and in particular for single mothers, would be a political stance that are fully coincides with Catholic doctrine, which continues enjoying a preponderance in Poland that it no longer has in Spain, after 30 years of democracy, and that it possibly never had in democratic Sweden.

Continuing with comparison between the three countries with regards to the family life-career reconciliation policies (See table 1), this study has taken three different indicators for illustration purposes: family benefits, maternity/paternity leave and child-care resources. For this task, the reports published on the web-site of the European Alliance for Families about the way the various European countries approach their policies for reconciliation between family and career life is of great use, especially with regards to Poland, Sweden and Spain.

Starting with family benefits, and as can be observed in the table, these three countries dedicate a clearly different percentage of their Gross Domestic Product to these benefits. While the investment in benefits in Poland and Spain fail to even, or hardly reach 1%, respectively, Sweden dedicates 3% and the European Union average is 2.1% according to the European Alliance for Families reports (2011 a, b and c). Obviously, this different level of investment is reflected in the economic aid received by families in the three countries, as is indicated in those aforementioned reports. Swedish families universally enjoy considerable economic support when it comes to parental responsibilities, both under normal, as well

as exceptional circumstances. In Spain, this type of family support is reduced, almost exclusively, to situations of extreme poverty or special children's needs, although economic support measures have recently been established for all families with children under the age of three, whose mothers have careers. In Poland, economic support from the government is equally scarce and exclusively dedicated to families with extremely difficult economic circumstances or disabled children.

These varying economic, family support systems have an inverse correlation on the rates of child poverty in the three countries studied, as can be observed in the report recently published by the Directorate-general for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion of the European Commission: while Sweden has one of the lowest poverty rates of the European Union and UNICEF considers it among the most worthy nations with regards to child well-being, the rates of child poverty in Spain and Poland are above the European average (Bradshaw & Meyer, 2011).

The second indicator to be researched herein is maternity and paternity leave. Spain and Poland have similar patterns, which could be described as scarce when compared to other EU countries; in short, with Sweden. Mothers in Poland and Spain, after childbirth or adoption, enjoy 20 and 16 weeks of maternity leave, respectively, while fathers can enjoy only one week of paternity leave in Poland and two in Spain. Nevertheless, in both countries, there are plans to double paternity leave to increase to, in the near future, two and four weeks respectively.

Sweden, on the other hand, has developed a generous and flexible paternity leave system, in the words of the Alliance for Families (2011c) that these authors support. This system helps and encourages both parents to be involved with their children. Jointly, the parents can enjoy up to 16 months of paternity leave with their children. Of this 16-month total, each parent has two non-negotiable months of leave, while the remaining 12 months can be distributed as the parents consider best. In addition, as explained in the chapter about Good Practices in this report, a "Gender Equality Bonus" as recently been established. This Bonus is an incentive, in the form of a tax discount, for those couples who share, equally, their maternity/paternity leave.

The third indicator considered to be of interest for this research is related to childcare services prior to compulsory school attendance. While in Poland only 3% of the children under the age of 3 have access to public nursery school (daycare centre), this figure rises to 38% in Spain and reaches 49% in Sweden. As can be seen in table 1, the differences among the three countries in the 3-6 year-old range are

even more significant: while 35% of children are in school in Poland, the figure reaches almost 100% in both Spain and Sweden. Therefore, Poland is far from reaching the 2010 objectives established by the European Council with regards to child care at early ages, known as “Barcelona targets” (28% for 0-3 years and 38% for 3-6 years), while Sweden and Spain appear to have achieved these goals, at least in absolute terms. Nevertheless, while in Sweden public childcare is guaranteed to all parents and operates on a whole-day basis (open from 6:30 am – 6:30 pm), in Spain, a very high percentage of these children are only enrolled part-time (between three to five hours/day); therefore these figure, in reality, “mask a significant shortfall in care provision,” using the exact words from the European Alliance for Families (2011a) report. In fact, and although it translates as an advance in comparison with previous decades, the data published by Spain’s Ministry of Education with regards to the use of the school cafeteria, indicates that only 42% of the pupils between 3-6 years of age make use of this possibility.

Therefore, and in synthesis, this study has been carried out in three countries that offer different support to reconcile family and career life. As shown, the differences appear, above all, between Sweden, pioneer in promoting reconciliation policies and generous in its support of families, and Poland and Spain, countries that have incorporated these policies much more recently and that offer the families less resources.

Obviously, this diversity of reconciliation support systems is reflected in two fundamental indices: female employment rate and fertility rate. As can also be confirmed in table 1, there are almost 20 points of difference between the female employment rates in Sweden (70.2%) and those of Spain (53%) and Poland (52.8); these last two falling below the Lisbon target for female employment (60%). This could lead one to conclude that these differences might be due to the different employment levels in the three regions, but, as has already been seen, although in Sweden there are less than 5 points of difference between the male and female employment rates, in Spain this difference is more than 12 points.

Likewise, there are substantial differences between the three countries with regards to fertility rates: while this rate for Sweden is 1.97 children per woman—well above the European average (1.53)—in Spain and Poland, the fertility rate is clearly below the European average: 1.46 and 1.23 respectively. If this data is coupled with the previous data, one of the usual suppositions about the cause of the fall in the fertility index is found to be at fault: obviously this is not due to the incorporation of women in the workplace, since Swedish women are clearly working in a greater proportion than the Poles or Spaniards. Therefore, answers must be sought in the different support systems that these countries offer

for reconciliation, as these are at least part of the reason for these differences. As Inés Alberdi (1998) stated, “it is when there is no sharing of tasks between spouses and childcare services are expensive and scarce that women seeking to coordinate their careers and maternity decide to reduce the number of children.” (page 86)

In the concluding paragraphs of this section, these three regions will be compared in terms of life satisfaction. To do this, the aforementioned study by Bönke (2005) will be of great use. As was exposed previously, the quality of life perceived by people from 28 European countries was evaluated in this research, analyzing, among other indicators, their life satisfaction. The data obtained indicated that, on a scale of 1 to 10, both in Sweden (7.8) and in Spain (7.5), the citizens scored their life satisfaction above the European average of the 25 (7.1). However, Poles showed a life satisfaction below the European average (6.2).

It is probably not by chance that the scores of the three regions appear scaled; the highest being Sweden, followed by the scores for Spain and in last place, those for Poland. As this same report clearly shows, the life satisfaction of Europeans is closely related to their standards of life, both in terms of GDP per capita and the Human Development Index. In these indexes, the three countries included in this study are indeed in the same positions on the gradient as observed for their life satisfaction. A similar gradient was found in three of the four determinants for life satisfaction analyzed in this study: material resources, social integration, and the quality of their social distribution. As stated by Schoon et al. (2005), this data suggests that the variations found in the life satisfaction throughout the various countries must be related, at least in part, to the different objective conditions of life in each country.

Surprisingly, Böhnke (2005) found that Sweden, Spain and Poland hardly differed in the fourth determinant analyzed: the reconciliation difficulties between family and career life. This is a fact that these authors find surprising in the light of what has previously been discussed in this section. Possibly, these results are related to the fact that, of the four indicators analyzed, none referred to the resources available for reconciliation. Nevertheless, two indicators are related to the distribution of work hours and social life, which is an aspect, due to life ambitions, the participants from the three countries seem to have similar levels of satisfaction.

In fact, a recent Eurostat report (2009) that analyzes the satisfaction of people from the various European countries with the balance between career life and private life, the data was relatively coincident.

Thus, when the percentage of dissatisfaction with this distribution of time was analyzed, the three countries placed above the European average. Certainly, there was more unhappiness among the Poles than among the Spanish and there was even less among the Swedes, but in all cases the percentage was between 20% and 30%.

Therefore, among the three countries analyzed, there appears to be differences with regards to the people's life satisfaction. There seems to be a certain relationship with their different standards of life, with their perception of having, or not, sufficient resources, having a good social integration and the perceived quality of their society's services. However, there does not appear to be such a clear relationship with the distribution of available time.



4. Reconciliation in family diversity study

4.1. Method

4.1.1. Participants

A total of 330 families participated in this study; of these, 164 were from the region of Andalusia (Spain), 97 from the region of Malopolska (Poland) and 67 from the region of Stockholm (Sweden). The study considered family diversity; in which case, 135 participants were native heterosexual parents from each region (hereinafter, these will be referred to, either as native heterosexual families or heterosexual parents, to facilitate the drafting and reading of this text), 69 gay/lesbian parents, 67 single mothers and 59 immigrant heterosexual families (hereinafter, we will refer to these as immigrant heterosexual families or immigrant families). See table 2.

Table 2. Number of families interviewed per region and by family type

	Two heterosexual parents	Two same-sex parents	Immigrant parents	Single mothers	Total
Andalusia	65	29	29	41	164
Malopolska	43	---	30	26	97
Stockholm	27	40	---	---	67
Total	135	69	59	67	330

Continuing with the selection criteria for the sample group, at the start of the study, there was a consensus among all the regions involved, with regards to a series of requirements that all the families had to meet at the time of the interview, and these were:

- a. All participants must belong to one of the four categories of family diversity mentioned: heterosexual, homosexual, single mother or immigrant heterosexual family.
- b. All the parents in each family had to be working. Whether it was only one of the parents or the partner, all participants must be working.

- c. Their children had to be between 1 and 12 years old, both included, to guarantee that they were dependent upon their parents and unable to care for themselves.
- d. The parents had to live alone with their children, with no other relatives or other people at home.
- e. They had to have been in that specific family situation for at least one year.
- f. In the case of immigrant families, these had to have been living in the region where the interview was carried out for a minimum of one year and should be first generation immigrant families.
- g. In the case of single mother families, the mothers should be single or divorced, but in any case, should live alone with their children and not having contact with the father of these.

Initially, the agreed minimum number of families interviewed for each type was 30, with the ideal being around 40 families. Nevertheless, as can be seen in table 2, a larger number of heterosexual families were interviewed in Andalusia and Malopolska, where the difficulty of reaching the other types of families was known in advance. It is necessary to state a few details with regards to the families studied in each region. Gay/lesbian families were not studied in the region of Malopolska, because it was not possible. Contacts were attempted through three different channels: forums and internet portals, such as www.homoseksualni.org.pl; non government organizations working to defend the rights of sexual minorities; and through private contacts. Even with all these possibilities, it was only possible to reach one lesbian family, who refused to participate in the research.

Neither immigrant families nor single mother families from Stockholm were included in the sample for a number of reasons. With regards to the immigrant families, in Stockholm, interviews were carried out with families that were second and third generation immigrants. So, they failed to meet our common criterion for immigrant families: they must be of first generation to make comparisons between the same realities, because in Andalusia and Malopolska it was almost impossible to find second or third generation immigrant families. With respect to the single mother families, it was agreed that to be included in this study, the single mother must live alone with her children, and the children should have no contact whatsoever with their father. There were several problems finding single mother families in Stockholm that fulfilled these characteristics. Thus, this type of family was also excluded from the analyses carried out for this report. All these decisions were agreed by the team from this region.

Except for immigrant families, whose origins were diverse and different depending on the location where the interview took place, the remaining families interviewed had to have originated in the three respective regions: Andalusia, Malopolska or Stockholm. In the case of Andalusia, most of the families were from Western Andalusia, while the Swedish families interviewed came from the municipality of Södertälje and the rest from the Stockholm region. In the case of Malopolska, the families were interviewed mostly in the city of Krakow.

4.1.2. Procedure to access the participant families

In Andalusia, contact with native heterosexual families was carried out through three channels: some of them were contacted through the Fertility Clinic IVI Sevilla or through the Andalusian Regional Government Adoption Services and most of them were contacted using the snowball sampling procedures, that is to say, the women provided contacts with other families in its same situation.

The *gay/lesbian families* were contacted using different systems: some of them came from a previous study carried out by the research team; most of them were contacted through the LGTB movement, most through *Asociación Defrente* (Association for the defense of the true equality for lesbians, gays, bisexuals and transsexuals), and some through *Colega Huelva* (Collective of lesbians, gays, bisexuals and transsexuals in the city of Huelva), while a remaining group were contacted using the snowball sampling procedures among the families themselves. Of all these families, 5 were made up of two fathers and 24 of two mothers. With regards to contacts with *single mother families*, most of them were located through the Andalusian Regional Government Adoption Services or through the Fertility Clinic *IVI Sevilla*, while a small group was reached thanks to the families themselves, using the snowball sampling procedures. These women were mothers either through adoption, assisted reproduction or biologically. In this latter case, for the family to participate in the study, there could be no contact of any type with the father.

Lastly, collaboration with a number of associations was essential when contacting *immigrant families*: they were contacted, in most cases, through the *Asociación Sevilla Acoge* (Seville Welcomes Association) but also the *Asociación Colombia Nos Une* (Colombia Bonds Us Association) and the *Asociación de Ecuatorianos* (Association of Ecuadorians). Most of these families came from Latin America (48.28%) and Africa, (44.83%), while 6.9% were from Eastern Europe.

In **Malopolska**, contact with heterosexual *families* was carried out mainly through the snowball sampling procedures; in other words, the actual families recommended one another from their direct circle of friends, acquaintances, neighbours, families attending the same school as their children, etc.

With regards to contacting *single mother families*, the contact process followed was similar to the previously described process for heterosexual families and 26 single mothers were included in the sample.

Lastly, to contact with the *immigrant families*, the collaboration of non-government organizations working with the immigrant population in the country was also fundamental in the case of Malopolska. This sample was characterized by a difficult recruitment, since many of the families refused to collaborate in the research. Most of the immigrant families were from Russia, Kazakhstan, Ukraine and Belarus.

In **Stockholm**, contact with *heterosexual families* was made through the court register, from which the member of the couple who was legal guardian of the child was selected. The selection was randomly carried out from among 2000 people.

Gay/lesbian families were reached the same as heterosexual parents; through a random selection from 186 people from the court register. Because the number of gay/lesbian families in the municipality of Södertälje was too small to reach the desired number of interviews, the selection was enlarged to cover the entire region of Stockholm. Of the 40 families interviewed, 39 were made up of women, while only one was formed by men.

4.1.3. Socio-demographic characteristic of the participants

With regards to the general socio-demographic characteristics of the families participating in the study, it can be said that the average **age** both of the interviewees and their partners was 37 (see table 3). There were significant differences between the three regions in terms of participant age: the youngest were in Malopolska, both in the case of the interviewees and their partners (see table 5).

Table 3. Socio-demographic data of the people interviewed (I) and their partners (P)

		I	P
		M(SD)	M(SD)
Age		37.5(7.2)	37.3(6.3)
Hours work per week		35.6(8.2)	40.6(9.6)
		I	P
		%	%
Educational level	Elementary school studies and less	5.2	8.8
	Lower secondary	8.5	7.3
	Upper secondary/high school	28.5	33.6
	University	57.9	50.4
Employment situation	Employed	81.8	75
	Self Employed	10.3	16.9
	Internship/Vocational training	0.9	0.4
	Without legal contract	7	7.7
Type of work schedule	Continous shift	63	49.8
	Split shift	6.4	16
	Rotating shift	3.7	10.6
	Morning and 1-2 evenings	6.7	3.5
	Flexible	18	17.5
	Others	2.1	2.3
Monthly income	< minimun salary	12.8	4.2
	1 MS – 2 MS	46.1	43.9
	2 MS- 3 MS	24.8	29.6
	3 MS- 4 MS	13.6	13.8
	4 MS- 5MS	2.3	5.8
	Above 5 MS	0.4	2.6

When a comparison was made between the ages of the interviewees from the different family types, it was found that *single mothers* were older when compared with all others interviewed. These differences were statistically significant. In relation to the age of the partners, no differences were found across the family types (table 4).

With regards to the **educational level**, most of the interviewees and their partners had studied at university, although there was a distribution throughout the various educational levels. When comparing the educational level according to the family type, significant differences were found both between the interviewees as well as between their partners. The differences were found in the fact that the single mothers had a higher rate of university studies while participants from immigrant families showed lower educational levels.

Table 4. Socio-demographic data of the people interviewed (I) and their partners (P) by family type

		Two heterosexual parents		Two same sex parents		Immigrant parents		Single mothers		
		I	P	I	P	I	P	I	I	P
		M (SD)	M(SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M(SD)	F	F
Age		36.1 (6.4)	37.4 (6.3)	39.8 (6.3)	37.6 (6.2)	34.4 (5.7)	36.8 (6.3)	40.9 (8.5)	14.5**	0.2
Hours work per week		35.2 (8.2)	42.1 (9.2)	36.7 (6.4)	38.4 (10.6)	34.8 (12)	39.6 (9.08)	36.01 (6.03)	0.7	3.7*
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	χ^2	χ^2
Educational level	Elementary school studies and less	5.9	9.6	1.4	2.9	13.6 ^a	13.6	0	37.02**	17.5**
	Lower secondary	11.9 ^a	5.9	4.3	4.4	15.3 ^a	13.6	0		
	Upper secondary/high school	25.9	36.3	26.1	25	37.3	37.3	28.4		
	University	56.3	48.1	68.1	67.6	33.9 ^b	35.6	71.6 ^a		
Employment situation	Employed	81.5	76.7	86.8	77.9	67.8 ^b	67.8	89.6	50.8**	30.9**
	Self Employed	14.1	21.89	11.8	14.7	3.4 ^b	8.5 ^b	7.5		
	Internship/Vocational training	0.7	0	0	0	1.7	1.7	1.5		
	Without legal contract	3.7	1.5 ^b	1.5	7.4	27.1 ^a	22 ^a	1.5		

Type of work schedule	Continous shift	57.8	42.5 ^b	69.6	53.7	64.9	62.5	65.2	19.8	34.4 ^{**}
	Split shift	9.6 ^a	17.9	2.9	13.4	8.8	14.3	1.5		
	Rotating shift	2.2	6	5.8	16.4	5.3	16.1	3		
	Morning and 1-2 evenings	5.2	3	4.3	3	5.3	5.4	13.6 ^a		
	Flexible	22.2	28.4 ^a	14.5	9 ^b	15.8	1.8 ^b	15.2		
	Others	3	2.2	2.9	4.5	0	0	1.5		
Monthly income	< minimun salary	8.7	2	6.9	6.9	33.9 ^a	6.8	3 ^b	83.8 ^{**}	49.1 ^{**}
	1 MS – 2 MS	56.3 ^a	34.7 ^b	13.8 ^b	13.8 ^b	59.3 ^a	74.6 ^a	32.8 ^b		
	2 MS- 3 MS	21.4	31.7	51.7 ^a	48.3 ^a	6.8 ^b	16.9 ^b	34.3 ^a		
	3 MS- 4 MS	11.7	17.8	20.7	24.1	0 ^b	1.7 ^b	25.4 ^a		
	4 MS- 5MS	1.9	8.9	6.9	6.9	0	0 ^b	43		
	Above 5 MS	0	5 ^a	0	0	0	0	1.5		

* p <.05 ** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residuals over 1,96

b. Corrected standardized residuals below - 1,96

When taking into consideration the type of region, it was found that there were significant differences in the educational level, both in the case of the interviewees and their partners (see table 5).

Table 5. Socio-demographic data of the people interviewed (I) and their partners (P) by region

		I	P	I	P	
		M (S.D)	M (S.D)	F	F	
Hours work per week	Andalusia	33.7 (7.9)	40.7 (8.1)	9.5**	0.1	
	Malopolska	37.2 (9.4)	40.9 (12.3)			
	Stockholm	38.0 (5.8)	40.1 (8.9)			
Age	Andalusia	40.1 (6.8)	39.87 (5.8)	48.3**	23.9**	
	Malopolska	32.3 (5.9)	34.15 (6.2)			
	Stockholm	38.9 (5.54)	36.1 (5.2)			
		%	%	χ^2	χ^2	
Educational level	Andalusia	Elementary school studies and less	10.4 ^a	16.3 ^a	58.9**	40.5**
		Lower secondary	15.9 ^a	14.6 ^a		
		Upper secondary/high school	15.2 ^b	25.2 ^b		
		University	58.5	43.9 ^b		
	Malopolska	Elementary school studies and less	0 ^b	1.4 ^b		
		Lower secondary	2 ^b	1.4 ^b		
		Upper secondary/high school	43.4 ^a	45.2 ^a		
		University	54.5	52.1		
	Stockholm	Elementary school studies and less	0 ^b	3		
		Lower secondary	0 ^b	0 ^b		
		Upper secondary/high school	38.8 ^a	36.4		
		University	61.2	60.6		
Employment situation	Andalusia	Employed	78 ^b	67.5 ^b	6.8	10.1
		Self Employed	11	22 ^a		
		Internship/Vocational training	1.2	0.8		
		Without legal contract	9.8 ^a	9.8		
	Malopolska	Employed	84.8	78.9		
		Self Employed	8.1	16.9		
		Internship/Vocational training	1	0		
		Without legal contract	6.1	4.2		
	Stockholm	Employed	86.4	84.8 ^a		
		Self Employed	12.1	7.6 ^b		
		Internship/Vocational training	0	0		
		Without legal contract	1.5 ^b	7.6		

Type of work schedule	Andalusia	Continous shift	63.4	33.6 ^b	63.5**	69.9**
		Split shift	11.8 ^a	32.8 ^a		
		Rotating shift	3.1	14.3		
		Morning and 1-2 evenings	12.4 ^a	5		
		Flexible	9.3 ^b	14.3		
		Others	0 ^b	0 ^b		
	Malopolska	Continous shift	62.6	67.1 ^a		
		Split shift	2 ^b	0 ^b		
		Rotating shift	0 ^b	1.4 ^b		
		Morning and 1-2 evenings	2 ^b	2.7		
		Flexible	29.3 ^a	24.7 ^a		
		Others	4	4.1		
	Stockholm	Continous shift	62.7	60		
		Split shift	0 ^b	3.1 ^b		
		Rotating shift	10.4 ^a	15.4		
Morning and 1-2 evenings		0 ^b	1.5			
Flexible		22.4	15.4			
Others		4.5	4.6			

Monthly income	Andalusia	< minimun salary	12.4 ^b	4.2	41.3**	15.3**
		1 MS – 2 MS	32.3 ^b	36.7 ^b		
		2 MS- 3 MS	31.1 ^a	29.2 ^a		
		3 MS- 4 MS	19.9 ^a	18.3 ^a		
		4 MS- 5MS	3.7 ^a	9.2 ^a		
		Above 5 MS	0.6	2.5		
	Malopolska	< minimun salary	13.4	4.3 ^a		
		1 MS – 2 MS	69.1 ^a	56.5		
		2 MS- 3 MS	14.4	30.4		
		3 MS- 4 MS	3.1 ^a	5.8		
		4 MS- 5MS	0	0 ^b		
		Above 5 MS	0	0		

* p <.05 ** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residuals over 1,96

b. Corrected standardized residuals below - 1,96

Although in all regions there were a larger proportion of people with university studies, in Malopolska however, there was a higher percentage with high school studies and in Andalusia there were more participants with primary studies. Within each region, the comparisons by family types yielded some significant differences in Andalusia and Stockholm. Single Andalusian mothers had a higher rate of university studies than the other interviewees, while immigrant participants more frequently showed the lowest levels of education. In Stockholm, the homosexual partners had university studies in higher percentages than the heterosexuals. Interestingly, there were no differences in the educational level in the Malopolska sample, even in the comparison between immigrant and not immigrant families. Interestingly, there were clear differences between the educational level of the immigrant families from Malopolska and Andalusia (lower in these last) and also in the single mother in these two regions (higher in Andalusia this time).

With regards to the **employment situation**, the most predominant and significant situation was to be working for others, both the person interviewed as well as the partner (81.8% and 75% respectively). The comparison between family types shows that there are significant differences between them. This is mostly due to the fact that the immigrant participants work without regulated contracts at higher rate than others interviewees (see table 4). There were no significant differences in the simple comparison by regions, but there were differences when the comparison was made based on region and family type. Both in Andalusia and in Malopolska, the immigrant participants in the study had greater probabilities of working without a contract. Single, Andalusian mothers worked more as employees while heterosexual, Andalusian participants tended to be self-employed. In Stockholm, no differences appeared in the employment situation among the various family types (see table 6).

In terms of **work schedule**, the continuous shift was the most common both in the case of interviewees and their partners, followed by a flexible schedule, by a large difference (57.8% and 22.2% respectively). There were no differences between the different types of families in terms of the interviewees work schedule, but there were differences when the partners' work schedule was compared. In these cases, the differences appeared more in the flexible work day, which was more commonplace among native heterosexual couples and clearly less among immigrant families. In terms of regional comparisons, there were significant differences both in the work day of the interviewees as well as their partners. Thus, a split shift, although marginal, it was more common among Andalusian interviewees than those from the other two regions. Likewise, in Malopolska, the possibility of a flexible work day was seen more frequently, while in Stockholm, the interviewees tended to work rotating shifts more frequently than in the other two regions.

With regards to the comparisons of the **type of work schedule** among the family types in each region, despite the fact that a continuous shift prevailed for the people interviewed from the three regions, some significant differences appeared. In Andalusia, it was found that people who were members of a *heterosexual family* enjoyed a higher rate of flexible work days than the partners of gay-lesbian families who worked a continuous shift more often and there were a larger proportion of immigrants who worked a rotational day. These differences were statistically significant. In the case of Malopolska, it was found that, for the most part, the partners of *heterosexual families* worked a flexible day while immigrants worked a continuous day. Finally, in Stockholm, it was found that the partners from gay/lesbian families worked, for the most part, in a rotating shift.

Upon analyzing the work day based on regions and family type, the results showed that in Andalusia, the differences arose from the fact that the partner of immigrant families worked more rotating shifts than any other group; both members of heterosexual families have flexible schedules more frequently. The partner of gay/lesbian couples performed more continual shifts than the other couples and immigrants enjoy less flexible work days. In Malopolska, differences also arose in flexible schedules, which was more frequent for the partners of native heterosexual families than for immigrant families. On the other hand, in Stockholm the differences appeared only in the partner's work schedule: it was more common place to see gay/lesbian partners working rotating shifts than heterosexual partners.

Upon studying the average number of **hours worked per week**, there was a difference of 5 points between the person interviewed and the partner, in favour of this latter, which demonstrated that it continued to be the men who worked longer hours outside the home in the three regions. However, in the case of the person interviewed, significant differences were found between the regions: on average, in Andalusia, the interviewees worked less hours per week than in the other regions. There were no differences in the hours per week that the partners worked in the different regions. The comparisons by family type showed that the heterosexual partners worked significantly more hours per week than the homosexuals.

In terms of monthly income, one aspect must be noted with regards to this variable: there is no minimum established wage in Stockholm. Therefore, this issue could not be included in these analyses. Bearing the aforementioned in mind, most families were distributed around the intermediate levels of monthly incomes, although if the two regions are taken into consideration, differences were found between them: in Andalusia, the partners are represented more within the highest salaries, while in Malopolska this distribution was similar to that for the interviewees.

Table 6. Socio-demographic data of the people interviewed (I) and their partners (P) by family type and region

		Two heterosexual parents		Two same sex parents		Immigrant parents		Single mothers	I F	P F	
		I	P	I	P	I	I	P			
		M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)			
Age	Andalusia	37.9 (5.1)	39.6 (5.5)	40.8 (7)	40.6 (6.3)	35.8 (5.9)	39.5 (6.3)	46.2 (4.9)	9.6**	1.08	
	Malopolska	31.6 (6.4)	34.06 (6.8)	---	---	32.9 (5.2)	34.2 (5.2)	32.6 (5.9)			
	Stockholm	36.1 (5.7)	37.2 (5.1)	39.1 (5.7)	35.4 (5.2)	---	---	---			
Hours work per week	Andalusia	32.7 (7.05)	42.9 (7.4)	35.4 (7.9)	36.6 (9.1)	31.6 (11.8)	39.9 (7.3)	35.6 (5.1)	1.6	1.6	
	Malopolska	37.1 (9.3)	42.1 (13.5)	---	---	37.9 (11.3)	34.4 (10.6)	36.6 (7.3)			
	Stockholm	38.6 (7.02)	40.4 (3.2)	37.7 (4.9)	39.8 (11.5)	---	---	---			
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	χ^2	χ^2	
Educational level	Andalusia	Elementary school studies	12.3	16.9	3.4	3.4 ^b	27.6 ^a	27.6	0 ^b	43.4**	21.8**
		Lower secondary	21.5	10.8	10.3	10.3	31 ^a	27.6	0 ^b		
		Upper secondary/high school	12.3	18.5	10.3	31	24.1	34.5	17.1		
		University	53.8	53.8 ^a	75.9	55.2	17.2 ^b	10.3 ^b	82.9 ^a		
	Malopolska	Elementary school studies	---	2.3	---	---	---	0	---	3.5	2.3
		Lower secondary	4.7	2.3	---	---	0	0	0		
		Upper secondary/high school	37.2	48.8	---	---	50	40	46.2		
		University	58.1	46.5	---	---	50	60	53.8		
	Stockholm	Elementary school studies	---	3.7	---	2.6	---	---	---	0.07	10.8**
		Lower secondary	---	---	---	---	---	---	---		
		Upper secondary/high school	40.7	59.3 ^a	37.5	20.5 ^b	---	---	---		
		University	59.3	37 ^b	62.5	76.9 ^a	---	---	---		

Employment situation	Andalusia	Employed	78.5	70.8	86.2	75.9	51.7 ^b	51.7	90.2 ^a	39.1**	40.4**
		Self Employed	16.9 ^a	29.2 ^a	10.3	20.7	6.9	6.9 ^b	4.9		
		Internship/Vocational training	0	0	0	0	3.4	3.4	2.4		
		Without legal contract	4.6	0 ^b	3.4	3.4	37.9 ^b	37.9 ^b	2.4		
	Malopolska	Employed	83.7	75.6	---	---	83.3	83.3	88.5	12.9*	2.3
		Self Employed	1.6	22	---	---	0	10	11.5		
		Internship/Vocational training	2.3	---	---	---	0	---	0		
		Without legal contract	2.3	2.4	---	---	16.7 ^a	6.7	0		
	Stockholm	Employed	85.2	92.6	87.2	79.5	---	---	---	1.5	2.1
		Self Employed	11.1	3.7	12.8	10.3	---	---	---		
		Internship/Vocational training	---	---	---	---	---	---	---		
		Without legal contract	3.7	3.7	0	10.3	---	---	---		

Type of work schedule	Andalusia	Continous shift	58.5	23.4 ^b	75.9	55.2 ^a	55.6	34.6	67.5	25.5*	22.5**
		Split shift	16.9	37.5	6.9	24.1	18.5	30.8	2.5 ^b		
		Rotating shift	0	10.9	0	6.9	11.1 ^a	30.8 ^a	5		
		Morning and 1-2 evenings	9.2	4.7	10.3	6.9	7.4	3.8	22.5		
		Flexible	15.4 ^a	23.4 ^a	6.9	6.9	7.4	0 ^b	2.5		
		Others	---	---	---	---	---	---	---		
	Malopolska	Continous shift	55.8	53.5	---	---	73.3	86.7 ^a	61.5	7.04	18.6**
		Split shift	4.7	---	---	---	0	---	0		
		Rotating shift	---	0	---	---	---	3.3	---		
		Morning and 1-2 evenings	2.3	0	---	---	3.3	6.7	0		
		Flexible	30.2	39.5 ^a	---	---	23.3	3.3 ^b	34.6		
		Others	---	7	---	---	---	0	---		
	Stockholm	Continous shift	59.3	70.4	65	52.6	---	---	---	0.4	11.2*
		Split shift	---	0	---	5.3	---	---	---		
		Rotating shift	11.1	3.7 ^b	10	23.7 ^a	---	---	---		
		Morning and 1-2 evenings	---	3.7	---	0	---	---	---		
		Flexible	25.9	22.2	20	10.5	---	---	---		
		Others	---	0	---	7.9	---	---	---		

Monthly income	Andalusia	< minimum salary	6.5	0 ^b	6.9	6.9	48.3 ^a	10.3	0 ^b	89.8**	43.6**
		1 MS – 2 MS	51.6 ^a	29	13.8 ^b	13.8 ^b	44.8	75.9 ^a	7.3 ^b		
		2 MS- 3 MS	22.6	27.4	51.7 ^a	48.3 ^a	6.9 ^b	13.8 ^b	46.3 ^a		
		3 MS- 4 MS	16.1	24.2	20.7	24.1	0 ^b	0 ^b	39 ^a		
		4 MS- 5MS	3.2	14.5 ^a	6.9	6.9	0	0 ^b	4.9		
	Above 5 MS	0	4.8	0	0	0	0	2.4			
	Malopolska	< minimum salary	12.2	5.1	----	----	20	3.3	7.7	5.3	6.7
		1 MS – 2 MS	63.4	43.6 ^b	----	----	73.3	73.3 ^a	73.1		
		2 MS- 3 MS	19.5	38.5	----	----	6.7	20	15.4		
		3 MS- 4 MS	4.9	7.7	----	----	0	3.3	3.8		
4 MS- 5MS		----	----	----	----	----	----	----			

* p <.05 ** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residuals over 1,96

b. Corrected standardized residuals below - 1,96

With respect to the differences in **monthly income** by family types, these were clearly significant; however, it is important to remember that most of the families have average incomes, mainly between one and three times the minimum established wage. In *heterosexual families*, the income of the interviewee was, for the most part, between one and twice minimum wage, while the income of their partners was somewhat higher. In the case of *gay/lesbian families*, income was slightly higher and more balanced within the couple. The *immigrant families* have clearly lower salaries than the other groups, particularly the interviewees who are over-represented in the lower level. In *single mother families*, the distribution is spread throughout all the intermediate income levels.

The analysis of monthly income based on region as well as family type indicate that in Malopolska there were no significant differences among the various family types, while in Andalusia, these differences were maximum and scaled. Among the interviewees, single mothers were over-represented in the section of 3 to 4 times minimum wage, with gay/lesbian families being two to three times this amount and heterosexual families being between one and double minimum wage, while in the case of immigrants, they fell significantly below minimum wage. With respect to their partners, heterosexual partners had greater income, followed by gay/lesbian partners. Once again, it was the immigrant partner who had the lowest income.

When describing the characteristics of the children of the families in the study, it must be said that the general average **number of children** was 1.5 children per family (see table 7).

Table 7. Socio-demographic data of the interviewee's children

	M (SD)
Number of children per family	1.5 (0.6)
Age	5.6 (3.1)
Sex	Daughter
	Son
	49.6%
	50.4%

When regions were compared, significant differences were found: in Malopolska the families have significant fewer children than in the other two regions, as can be seen in table 9. According to the different types of families (table 8), it must be said that the number of children per family was significantly different: single mothers have significantly fewer children (1.06 children per family) than the other three groups.

Table 8. Socio-demographic data of the interviewee's children by family type

	Two heterosexual parents		Two same sex parents		Immigrant parents		Single mother		F
	M (SD)		M (SD)		M (SD)		M (SD)		
Number of children per family	1.6 (0.6)		1.4 (0.6)		1.6 (0.8)		1.06 (0.3)		15.8**
Age	5.8 (3.1)		3.9 (2.8)		6.01 (3.3)		7.1 (2.6)		16.6**
Sex	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter	χ^2
	51.6%	48.4%	54.6%	45.4%	50.5%	49.5%	40.8%	59.2%	3.4

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

With regards to **age of children**, and bearing in mind that one of the participation criteria for this selection was not to have children younger than 1 year or older than 12, it can be said that their average age was 5.7 years. There were differences between regions: the average age of the children was higher in Malopolska and Andalusia, and lower in Stockholm. With respect to comparisons by family type, the lowest average ages were found in *gay/lesbian families*, while the highest corresponded to *single mother families*. Within these extremes, a degree of variability was found; therefore, the differences between the families were, once again, statistically significant.

The **child sex** distribution was quite similar in the sample (49.6% for daughters and 50.4% for sons). There were no significant differences in the sex of the children, whether analysed based on regions or by type of families.

Table 9. Socio-demographic data of the interviewee’s children by region

	Andalusia		Malopolska		Stockholm		F
	M (SD)		M (SD)		M (SD)		
Number of children per region	1.5 (0.7)		1.2 (0.4)		1.7 (0.6)		14.7**
Age	5.6 (3.1)		6.4 (3.1)		4.9 (3.2)		6.4**
Sex	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter	χ^2
	47.4%	52.6%	51.2%	48.8%	55.9%	44.1%	2.3

* p <.05** p <.01

4.1.4. Instruments and Procedure

A semi-structured 52 items interview was designed specifically for this study and, as can be seen in Appendix 1, it evaluates three main contents:

1. Socio-Demographic Data and Employment Circumstances: This first part of the interview seeks to understand personal characteristics of the participants (age, educational level, living situation, children’s age, etc.) and their employment circumstances. This part was also useful to verify whether the possible participants met the established requirements to participate in this study.
2. Reconciliation in Diverse Family Interview (RDFI). The main aim of this section of the interview was to explore how the interviewees and their partners (if there was a partner) reconciled their career, family and personal life, as well as their satisfaction with this experience. The interview addresses several issues: how they organized child care both on a daily bases and in extraordinary situations that might arise; the care of dependent people other than their children; reconciliation resources at work and in other institutions; the reconciliation strategies used; co-responsibility with their partner in domestic chores, and finally, reconciliation with their personal life. All this was accompanied by a personal assessment of the degree of satisfaction with the various spheres and finally, a consideration about the difficulties and the resources necessary to improve their experience in reconciliation.

3. Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). This scale is composed of 5 items which, on a scale from 1 to 7 assess the vital satisfaction of the interviewees. It is a scale that is to be filled out by the interviewee and therefore, the items were originally formulated in the first person. Being that it was administered in interview form, this scale was adapted to be used in the second person (*"In most ways your life is close to your ideal"*).

This interview was firstly designed by the University of Seville team and lastly modified and agreed by all the regions teams. It was initially designed in English, as the common language, and then translated into the official language of each region.

The families participating in this study were phone interviewed by specifically trained experts on the subject, which led to a fluent and close dialogue, lasting for approximately 20-30 minutes.

In all two parent heterosexual families, the mother was interviewed. On the one hand, it allowed greater comparison with single mothers and lesbian mothers which were the majority cases in homosexual families. On the other hand, it was initially easier to access the mothers than the fathers. In the case of the gay-lesbian families, the person interviewed was the partner who worked less hours or in those cases where both parents worked the same (hours), a partner was interviewed at random.

In the instructions given to the participants before the start of the interview, all the families were guaranteed the confidentiality of the data and their anonymity. With this in mind, each was assigned a numeric identification code, thus, from that point, this number was used to refer to each of the families.

With regards to the dimension referring to the research into the existence or not of dependent relatives other than the children, due to the low frequency of families with dependent relatives in the three regions (5 in Andalusia, 4 in Malopolska and 2 in Stockholm), this dimension was not analyzed.

4.2. Results

To achieve the proposed objectives of this work, the global results will be presented first, to then offer comparisons based on the type of family, the region of origin and both variables jointly.

As indicated in the method, upon describing the participants in the study, there were significant differences in the educational level of the people interviewed depending on the type of family and the region of origin. Therefore, the effect of the variable "interviewee's educational level" has been controlled by introducing it as

a covariate in all those cases in which the dependent variable was quantitative in nature and referred to the interviewee. Likewise, the partner’s educational level was also introduced as a covariate in all the analyses referring to the partner when the dependent variable was quantitative. Thus, in all of the comparisons, the F appearing in the tables and figures is the result of ANCOVA analyses, using the educational level as covariate.

4.2.1. Caring for the children

In an effort to understand how the various families organise the care of their children, two situation types were differentiated. On the one hand, the daily care, and on the other, extraordinary or special care were taken into consideration.

When focusing upon **daily life situations** (see table 11), it was observed that the interviewees perform more care-related tasks, with percentages that exceed 80% in all cases, except for the task of *feed the children/ accompany them at lunchtime*. In this case, institutions played an important role for almost half of the families studied with children eating at school daily.

Although it was the partner who, for the most part, shared the task of caring for the children with the interviewees, on average; nevertheless, they were involved a third less in these tasks.

Table 11. Percentage of daily child care-related tasks per person

	Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
	%	%	%	%
Caring for children before going to school	86.2	54.4	12.6	2.4
Take / bring the children to school	81.4	57.3	18.4	1.7
Lunchtime	57.1	29.5	17.1	42.6
Supervise homework	91.5	57.9	6.1	0.4
Deal with extracurricular and leisure activities	93.9	70.1	19.3	0.3
Dinner time	91.5	61.1	4.2	----
Bedtime routines	94.5	67	3.1	----

Relatives occupy a considerable percentage in the care of the children, with the most common being *taking care of the children before going to school, taking or picking up the children from school, feeding them or accompanying them at lunchtime*. On the other hand, their participation was less when it came to the care provided in the later hours of the day.

To compare the total of daily tasks performed by each of the agents (person interviewed, partner, relative or institution), a global score has been calculated by determining the total of all the tasks performed and thus obtain the corresponding average. With this score the comparisons have been made both for the type of family and the type of region.

Attending to the differences based on family type, as shown in table 12, in all cases, the differences were significant. In other words, the average for tasks performed by each of the agents studied is different depending on the type of family.

Table 12. Total average of daily child care-related tasks per person by family type

	Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
	M	M	M	M
Two heterosexual parents	5.5	3.6	0.6	0.3
Two same-sex parents	4.5	4.4	0.1	0.6
Immigrant parents	6.01	2.5	0.6	0.4
Single mothers	6.05	----	1.04	0.7
<i>F</i>	27.09**	10.4**	16.8*	7.8**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

In terms of those interviewed, heterosexual families and gay/lesbian families differed from the immigrant families and single mother families and at the same time, there were differences between these latter. The interviewees from gay/lesbian families performed, on average, less daily care-related tasks than the rest of the families. Those women from heterosexual families perform less care-related tasks than single mothers or immigrant mothers, but more than gay/lesbian families. It must be underscored that single mothers, hetero-

sexuals and immigrant mothers performed, on average, more care-related tasks than the others, and without any differences between these two groups.

Upon contemplating the implication of the partners in the different family types, the differences were significant among the groups: those making up a family with two people of the same sex appear with the highest average, followed by heterosexual families, with immigrant families being two points behind.

In terms of the relatives, it was found that they provided greater help in caring for the children of single mothers, in a significantly greater proportion than in the case of gay/lesbian families. However, there were no significant differences between the averages of care-related tasks performed by the relatives of the remaining families. Institutions, on the other hand, were used less by heterosexual families than by gay/lesbian families or single mothers, although in no case was the average score elevated.

Also, there were differences when comparing the country by country average of tasks performed. See table 13.

Table 13. Total average of daily child care-related tasks per person by region

	Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
	M	M	M	M
Andalusia	5.5	3.3	0.5	0.4
Malopolska	6.0	3.1	1.2	0.3
Stockholm	4.7	4.5	----	0.7
<i>F</i>	25.6**	17.5**	3.2*	7.9**

* p <.05** p <.01

Those interviewed in Malopolska (Poland) performed, always upon average, more daily care-related tasks than women from Andalusia (Spain) and these more than women from Stockholm (Sweden). In the case of the partners, it was those from Stockholm who performed more tasks, differentiated from those in Andalusia and Malopolska, although these two latter regions were not significantly different from each other in terms of the participation of the partner.

In Stockholm, relatives do not participate in care-related tasks, but they were involved in the other two regions. Relatives perform significantly more care-related tasks in Malopolska than in Andalusia, although the frequency in both regions is low. The lesser importance of help from relatives in Stockholm was complemented by the fact that in this region, institutions played a greater role than in Andalusia or Malopolska.

The comparison of the average of tasks performed depending on the type of family and the region jointly, showed significant differences of interest, as can be seen in table 14.

Table 14. Total average of daily child care-related tasks per person by family type and region

		Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
		M	M	M	M
Andalusia	Two heterosexual parents	5.6	3.5	0.6	0.3
	Two same-sex parents	4.8	4.6	0.2	0.4
	Immigrant parents	5.3	1.9	0.8	0.2
	Single mothers	6.0	---	0.4	0.8
Malopolska	Two heterosexual parents	5.6	3.3	1.2	0.1
	Two same-sex parents	---	---	---	---
	Immigrant parents	6.7	3.0	0.3	0.7
	Single mothers	6.1	---	2.1	0.5
Stockholm	Two heterosexual parents	5.2	4.7	---	0.6
	Two same-sex parents	4.3	4.4	---	0.8
	Immigrant parents	---	---	---	---
	Single mothers	---	---	---	---
F		5.2**	5.2**	8.9**	5.2**

** p <.01

Upon taking a look at those interviewed, the differences were, essentially, due to, on the one hand, those belonging to immigrant families in Malopolska who performed a greater average number of tasks than those performed by the interviewees from Andalusia. On the other hand, the participants interviewed from heterosexual families in Stockholm performed a slightly inferior number of tasks than their peers from Andalusia or Malopolska.

In terms of partners, it must be noted that there were families, both heterosexual as well as gay/lesbian families from the Swedish region who performed, on average, more care-related tasks. Relatives played no role in Stockholm, as was indicated before, but they were especially present in single mother families from Malopolska and play a considerable role in all of the families studied in Andalusia. In terms of institutional care, it can be seen that the average was higher in single mother families in Andalusia in comparison with the rest of the family types within the same region; this fact was not seen in the other two regions. In fact, in Malopolska, the significant difference appeared in the heterosexual families, who used of this type of institutional care less than the rest of the families.

After these initial analyses, it was decided to carry out a more in-depth analysis of the **co-responsibility between the interviewees and their partners in the daily care-related tasks**. For this, a differential score was created that consisted of subtracting the tasks performed by the interviewee from the total tasks performed by the partner. Thus, in an effort to learn in which cases the differences in the sharing of care-related tasks are greater, or, on the contrary, where these differences were limited and therefore, there was a balanced sharing of tasks. The closer the differential score is to “0,” the more balanced the sharing of tasks. If the score is positive, this implies more tasks were performed by the interviewee and less on behalf of the partner. If, on the contrary, the score is negative, it means that the person interviewed was the person who performed fewer tasks.

As shown in figure 1, there were significant differences in the care of the children on a daily basis among the three types of families constituted by couples: gay/lesbian families show a significantly more balanced sharing of tasks than the rest and the native heterosexual families were significantly more balanced than immigrant heterosexual families.

There were also significant differences among the three regions (figure 2), with Stockholm showing a distribution of tasks that was more equal between those interviewed and their partner, followed by Andalusia and lastly, Malopolska.

Figure 1. Differential scores for daily child care-related tasks by family type

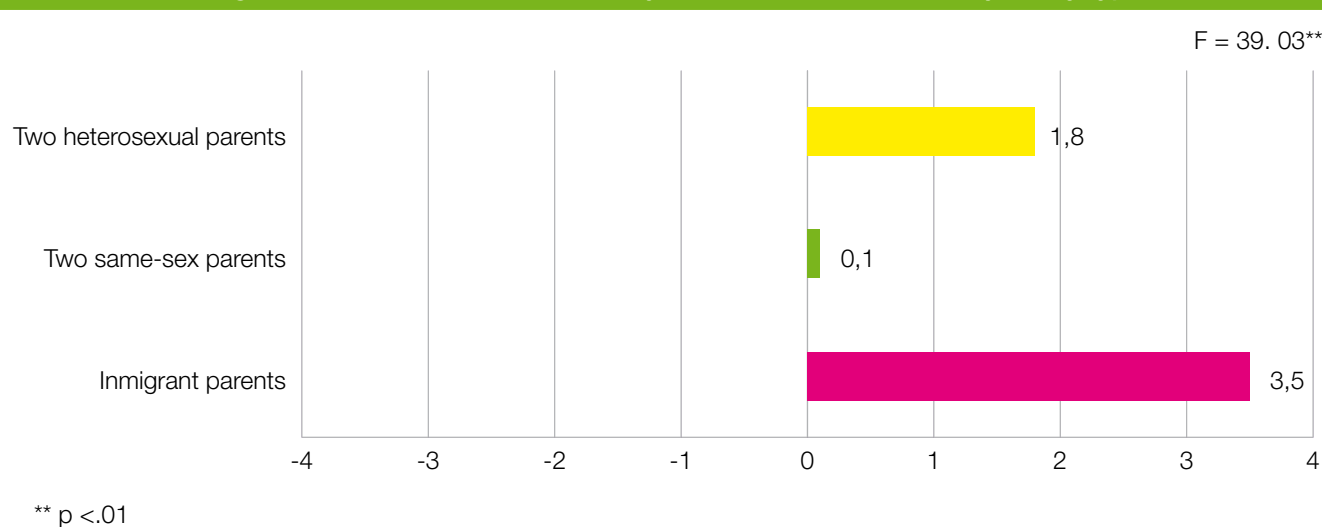
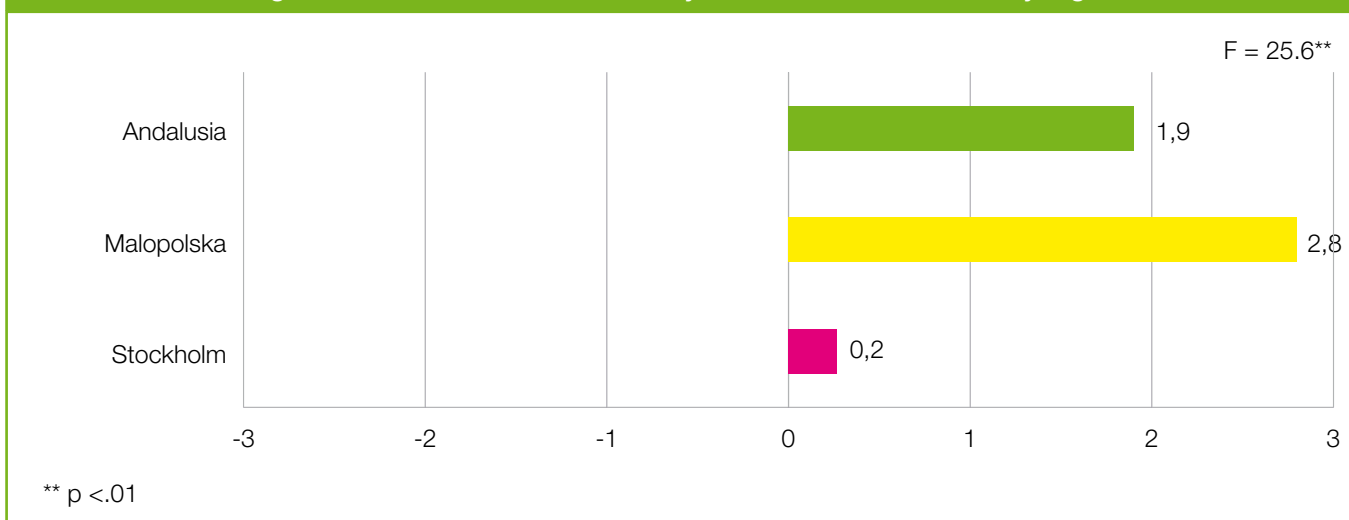
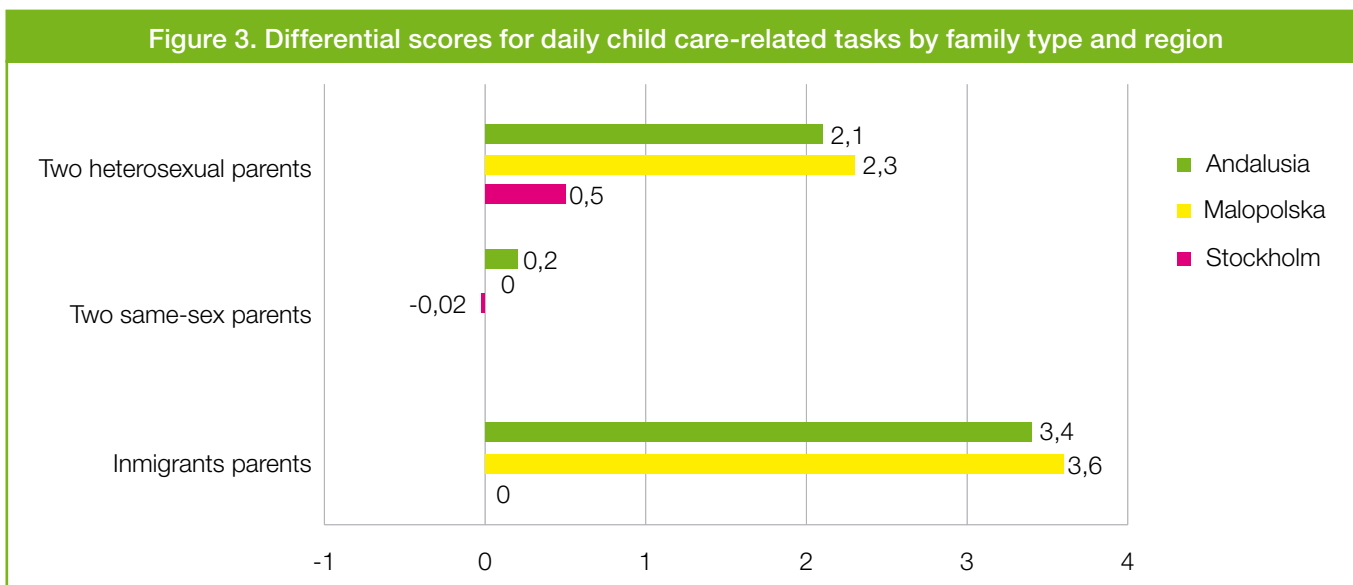


Figure 2. Differential scores for daily child care-related tasks by region



When comparing the family type and the country, no significant differences were found, as can be seen in figure 3. In other words, there were no statistically significant differences in the sharing of the task to care for the children between the interviewees and their partners. This was based on the type of family and the region of the country, although the score varied between -0.02 for gay/lesbian families in Stockholm, to 3.6 for immigrant families in Malopolska, which were the two extremes. That is due, at least in part, to the effect of differences in educational levels, because the significance in the differences was lost when the educational level was introduced as a covariate.



Once the situation of daily care was analysed, **extraordinary care situations** were then explored; those unexpected or unforeseen situations that must be faced. As can be seen in table 15, it was the interviewee who faced the greatest percentages of care-related tasks in exceptional situations. The frequency in which the partners took charge of the same task was some what lower, which means that it was a third less than what was performed by the interviewees as in the case of daily care situations. Relatives played an important role in these extraordinary situations, as, on average, they took care of the children in 27% of the cases. It is interesting to note the high percentage of families who were in charge of caring for the children

when there was a *strike at school or the caretaker was unavailable*. However, it seems that *taking them to the doctor* was a task that was fundamentally performed by the parents, as indicated by the low percentage of relatives who carried out this task. Basically, institutions took care of the children during *school holidays* and when mothers or fathers had to go to school meetings, although the percentage use was not very high in any of the cases.

Table 15. Percentage of extraordinary child care-related tasks

	Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
	%	%	%	%
Taking care of when a child is sick	84.6	55.4	31	0.9
School holidays	76.3	64.3	42.5	7.4
Strikes at school. Career not available	58.2	47.5	40.5	1.8
Take the children to the doctor	94.8	55.3	7.9	----
Attend school meetings	77.6	47.3	13.2	5.2

To be able to compare the total number of extraordinary tasks performed by the interviewee, partner, relatives and institutions, a global score was calculated in a similar manner as used to determine the daily care-related tasks, establishing the full number of tasks performed and obtaining the corresponding average. In this case, no differences were found depending on the type of family (Table 16) in terms of the average of tasks carried out by the person interviewed, which ranged from 3.5 and 3.8 in all cases.

Upon looking at partners, there were differences among the three types of families analysed. Gay/lesbian partners performed more extraordinary care-related tasks than native heterosexual partners and these latter more than immigrant heterosexuals. In terms of the average of tasks performed by relatives in each type of family, significant differences were found, in the sense that gay/lesbian and immigrant families seem to count less on relatives than heterosexual families or a single mother. The average of care-related tasks in exceptional circumstances covered by institutions was quite low; even so, differences were seen in single mother families, who used institutional care to a greater extent than the rest of the families.

Table 16. Average of the total extraordinary child care-related tasks by family type

	Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
	M	M	M	M
Two heterosexual parents	3.5	2.3	1.4	0.1
Two same-sex parents	3.7	3.4	0.7	0.08
Immigrant parents	3.7	1.5	0.8	0.03
Single mothers	3.8	----	1.8	0.3
F	1.07	24.01**	12.5**	7.6**

** p <.01

Upon comparing regions, (Table 17) those interviewed in Andalusia were found to perform less care-related tasks, on average, than those from Malopolska or Stockholm. This difference was greater in the Swedish region than in the Polish region. On the contrary, the average of tasks performed by the partner was greater in Stockholm than in the other two regions. In all three regions, just the opposite was seen in the comparison for extraordinary care-related tasks involving relatives; in this case, the number was significantly less in Stockholm than in Andalusia and Malopolska. In terms of institutions, the difference was found in Andalusia, a region where the average of institutional care was slightly higher, with this type of care being practically zero in the other two regions.

Table 17. Average of the total extraordinary child care-related tasks by region

	Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
	M	M	M	M
Andalusia	3.4	1.9	1.3	0.2
Malopolska	3.7	2.2	1.6	0.02
Stockholm	4.1	3.7	0.6	0.03
F	8.8**	34.1**	12.3**	14.2**

** p <.01

When comparing the average scores for care-related tasks based on family type and region, (Table 18), the study discovered that there were no differences in the scores of the people interviewed, their partners and

relatives. However, it was found that there were differences in the average score for care-related tasks performed by institutions; this was mainly due to the high number of resources used by single-mother families from Andalusia in comparison with the rest of the families in all the countries. In fact, and as stated above, the presence of institutions to care for children in special situations was almost inexistent in Malopolska and Stockholm, while in Andalusia, this resource was used by some families in need of care.

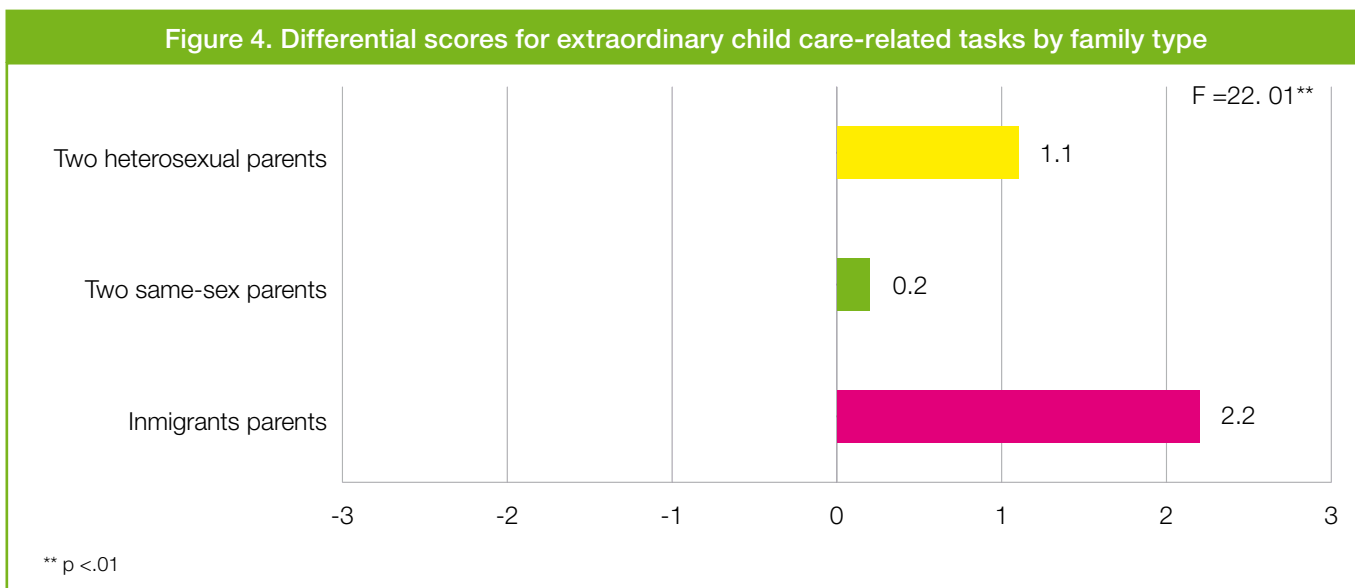
Table 18. Average of the total extraordinary child care-related tasks by family type and region

		Interviewee	Partner	Relatives	Institutional Care
		M	M	M	M
Andalusia	Two heterosexual parents	3.2	1.8	1.5	0.1
	Two same-sex parents	3.2	2.7	0.8	0.2
	Immigrant parents	3.4	1.3	0.8	0.07
	Single mothers	3.7	---	1.5	0.5
Malopolska	Two heterosexual parents	3.5	2.6	1.7	0.02
	Two same-sex parents	---	---	---	---
	Immigrant parents	4.0	1.7	0.9	0
	Single mothers	3.9	---	2.2	0.04
Stockholm	Two heterosexual parents	4.2	3.4	0.7	0.07
	Two same-sex parents	4.0	4	0.5	0
	Immigrant parents	---	---	---	---
	Single mothers	---	---	---	---
F		0.2	0.8	0.9	3.8*

* p <.05

To analyse **the comparison in extraordinary care situations** between the interviewees and their partners, once again differential scores were created. Remember that these scores are calculated by subtracting the

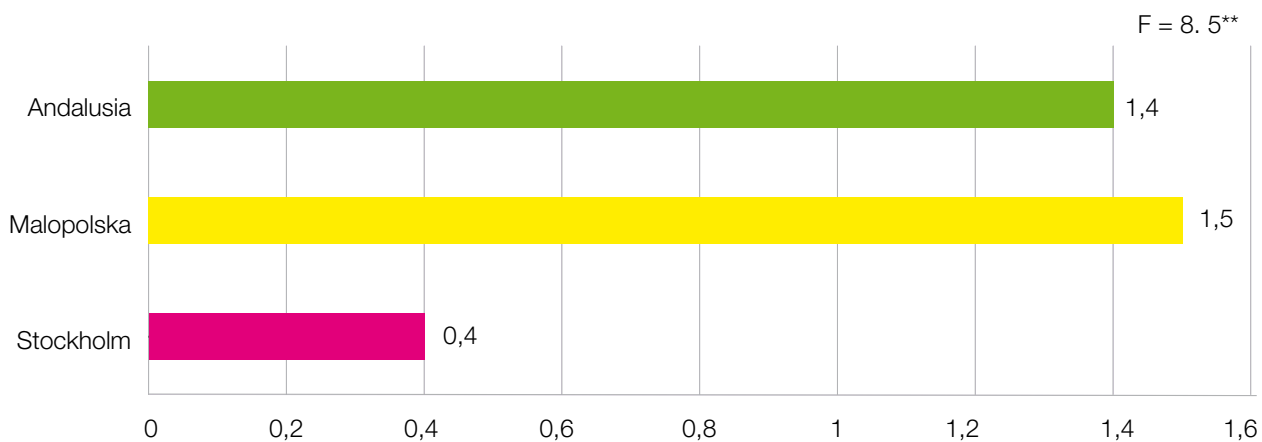
tasks performed by the person interviewed from the total of the tasks performed by the partner. When comparing these scores depending on the type of family, (Figure 4), the study found that gay/lesbian families once again appear to be more equal, with a more balanced sharing of tasks between the interviewees and their partners (as shown in the average differential score that is close to zero). Native heterosexual families had a somewhat higher score, followed by immigrant families, with a two point difference in comparison with gay/lesbian families.



Upon studying the differences based on regions (Figure 5), it was observed that Swedish couples share the responsibility of caring for the children in these extraordinary situations on a significantly more equalitarian basis, while Spanish and Polish couples showed no significant differences.

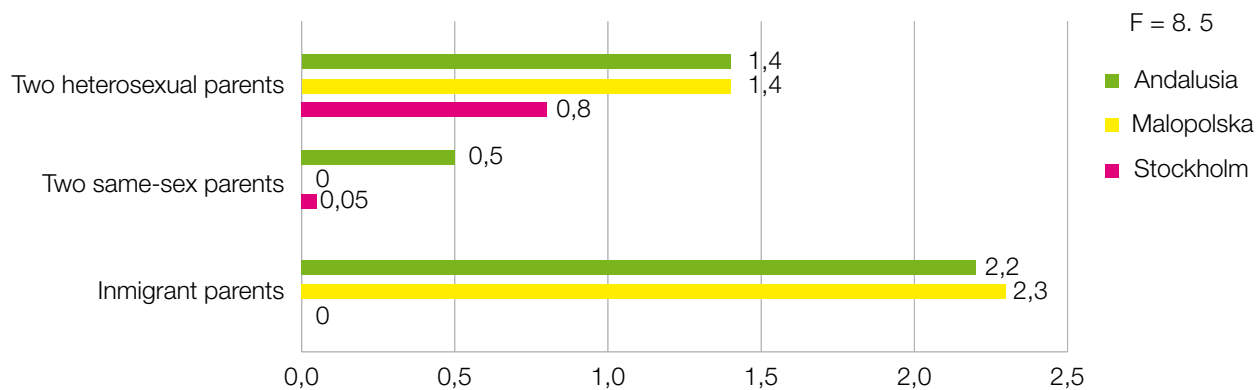
No significant differences were seen in the combined comparison based on family type and region as observed in figure 6.

Figure 5. Differential scores for extraordinary child care-related tasks by region



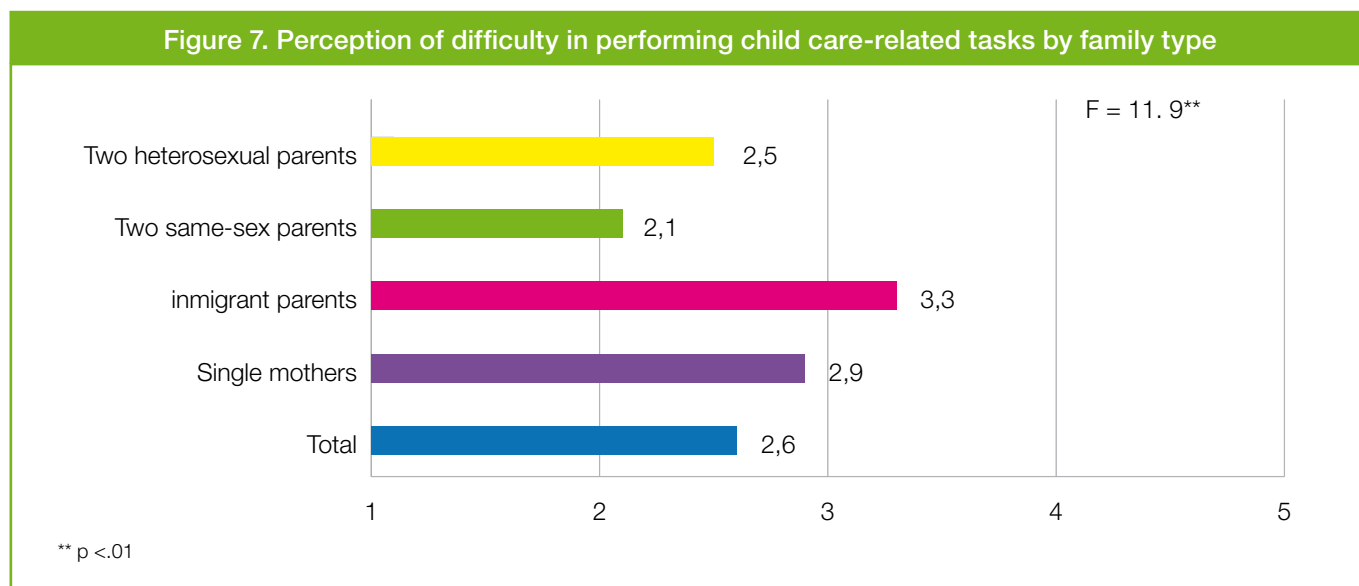
** p < .01

Figure 6. Differential scores for extraordinary child care-related tasks by family type and region



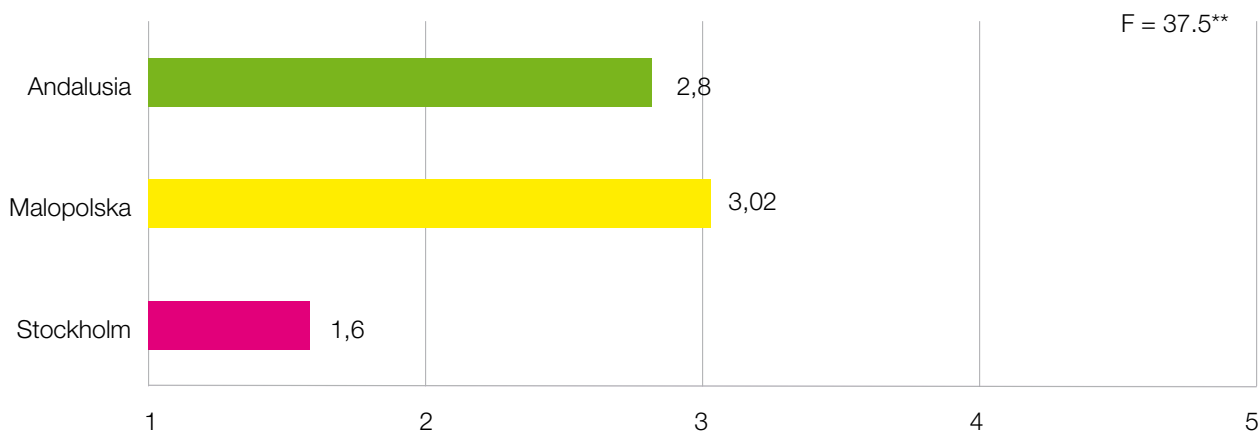
Once the care-related tasks were analysed and how these were performed, the study was also interested in the **perception of difficulty** that the interviewees had about these tasks. The results indicate that the families perceived these tasks as being of medium difficulty. The average score obtained was 2.6 on a scale from 1 to 5.

When comparing the scores based on the type of family, (Figure 7) it was observed that single mothers and married immigrant mothers perceived the care-related tasks as more difficult than native heterosexual and gay/lesbian families. At the same time, gay/lesbian families perceived that caring for children was significantly less stressful than the rest of the families. Heterosexual families, on the other hand, score higher than gay/lesbian families with immigrant families scoring lower. However, no difference was found between these and single mothers. These latter (single mothers) differ only from gay/lesbians, with single mothers perceiving the task as being more difficult.



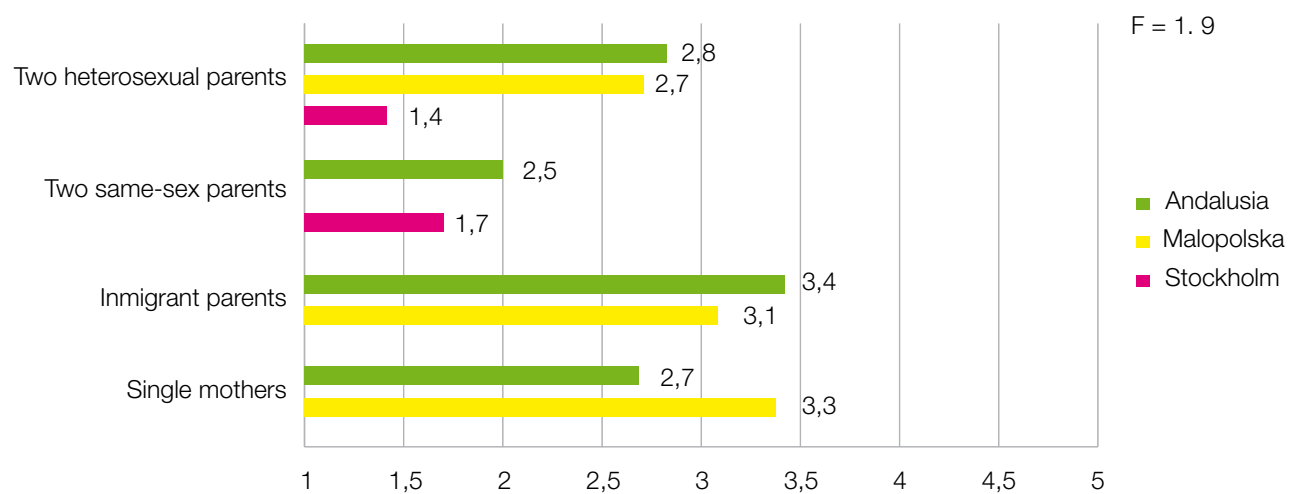
Upon studying the comparisons by countries, (figure 8) it was found that those interviewed in Stockholm perceive the task of caring for their children as being less difficult. No significant differences between those from Andalusia and Malopolska were seen, although the score for the Polish region was slightly higher than the Spanish region.

Figure 8. Perception of difficulty in performing child care-related tasks by region



** p < .01

Figure 9. Perception of difficulty in performing child care-related tasks by family type and region



Upon comparing the perception of difficulty when performing the task of caring for the family and the country, no significant differences between the different types of families in the three regions studied were found, as shown in figure 9.

After learning the allotment of childcare tasks within the couple and the perception of difficulty when performing those tasks on behalf of the interviewees, it was considered interesting to explore whether or not there was a relationship between both variables. In other words, the study sought to discover whether those people with a more equal allotment perceived fewer difficulties when performing childcare tasks and if those with a less equal allotment felt a greater degree of difficulty. These relationships are shown in table 19.

Table 19. Correlations between the number of child care-related tasks performed by the interviewee and the perception of difficulty performing these tasks

	Differential scores for daily child care-related tasks distribution	Differential scores for extraordinary child care-related tasks distribution
Problematic perception of children care tasks	0.31**	0.278**

** p <.01

The bivariate correlation analysis demonstrated that, indeed, the perception of difficulty in performing care-related tasks had a positive correlation with both the differential scores for the allotment of daily care-related tasks (0.31**), and with those of the allotment of extraordinary tasks (0.278**). Once again, it must be remembered that the differential scores were calculated by subtracting the total of tasks performed by the partner from the total of tasks performed by the person interviewed; thus, the scores further from zero show an unequal allotment, while scores close to zero show a more equal allotment. Negative scores show that the partner performs more tasks than the person interviewed.

In view of these results, it can be said that the interviewees with a more equal allotment of the daily care-related tasks and extraordinary caretaking tasks obtained lower scores on the perception of difficulty scale.

4.2.2. Resources to care for the children

After having seen the results relative to the care of the children, both in daily situations as well as extraordinary situations, this section will focus on the resources used by the families interviewed to care for their minors.

As shown in table 20, without differentiating family types or regions, it is obvious that the resources provided by the child's school play an important role for the families when it comes to caring for the children. As seen in table 20, the *extracurricular activities and the school canteen* placed top, with both used by almost 60% of the sample. The third most used resource is the morning class,^{*1} followed by recreation centres (play centres) and *urban camps*. It must be noted that the data referring to *morning class*, are specific for the regions of Malopolska and Andalusia.

Table 20. Resources for child care

	%
Morning class	41.4
School canteen	58.2
Extracurricular activities	58.6
Recreation centre / play centre	24.5
Urban camp	16.9

When taking into consideration the different resources available to care for the children based upon family type, it can be seen that there were important differences in 4 of the 5 resources. Prior to comparing each type, a quick glance at table 21 shows that all of these resources where there were differences, were used more by single mothers than by the rest of the families. Each aspect will be explained in depth.

Beginning with the *morning class*, single mother families and immigrant families used this resource most. Heterosexual families, however, used this service less frequently than the other families.

With respect to the *school canteen*, *extracurricular activities* and urban camps, there were also significant differences because single mothers used these resources much more than the other families. Heterosexual families used the school canteen less than the others. When it comes to *extracurricular activities*, gay/lesbian families used this resource less frequently; for *urban camps*, it was immigrant families who used this resource less when it came to caring for their children.

*1 Translator's note: morning classes are an option offered by the child's school that supervises the child for approximately 2 hours prior to the actual commencement of class, during which time, the child has breakfast, brushes his/her, draws, watches TV, with time to read and perhaps study.

Table 21. Resources for child care by family type

	Two heterosexual parents %	Two same sex parents %	Immigrant parents %	Single mothers %	χ^2
Morning class	25 ^b	34.5	50.8 ^a	62.7 ^a	27.2**
School cantine	46.7 ^b	66.7	59.3	71.6 ^a	13.2**
Extracurricular activities	62.2	36.9 ^b	47.5	82.1 ^a	31.5**
Recreation center	26.7	30.3	16.9	20.9	3.8
Urban camp	20.7	12.3	3.4 ^b	25.4 ^a	13.5**

** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residual above 1.96

b. Corrected standardized residual below - 1.96

Upon comparing the different uses of resources by regions, there were significant differences, as shown in table 22. There were important differences in the use of extracurricular-school-activities in the three regions, being widely used in Andalusia (more than half of the families used this resource) and was used less in Stockholm. The data from Malopolska for the use of this resource was closer to those of Andalusia than those of Stockholm.

Table 22. Resources for child care by region

	Andalusia %	Malopolska %	Stockholm %	χ^2
Morning class	37.2	48.5 ^a	---	3.2
School cantine	61	49.5 ^b	64.2	28.02**
Extracurricular activities	65.9 ^a	58.6	39.7 ^b	12.8**
Recreation center	23.8	20.2	32.8	3.4
Urban camp	20.7	15.2	9.5	4.3

* p <.05

a. Corrected standardized residual above 1.96

b. Corrected standardized residual below - 1.96

Similarly, as shown in table 22, there are important differences by regions when it comes to using the *school canteen*. Essentially, these differences were due to the reduced use of this resource by families from Malopolska with respect to families from Andalusia and Stockholm.

Table 23. Resources for child care by family type and region

		Two heterosexual parents	Two same-sex parents	Immigrant parents	Single mothers	χ^2
		%	%	%	%	
Morning class	Andalusia	23.1 ^b	34.5	34.5	63.4 ^a	17.7**
	Malopolska	72.1 ^a	----	33.3 ^b	38.5	13.03**
	Stockholm	----	----	----	----	----
School canteen	Andalusia	52.3	62.1	55.2	78 ^a	7.5†
	Malopolska	32.6 ^b	----	63.3	61.5	8.7*
	Stockholm	55.6	69.2	----	----	1.3
Extracurricular activities	Andalusia	66.2	58.6	41.4 ^b	87.8 ^a	17.1**
	Malopolska	53.5	----	53.3	73.1	3.05
	Stockholm	66.7 ^a	19.4 ^b	----	----	14.3**
Recreation / play centre	Andalusia	29.2	24.1	26.7	17.1	2.2
	Malopolska	20.9	----	13.3	26.9	1.6
	Stockholm	29.6	35.1	----	----	0.2
Urban camp	Andalusia	16.9	24.1	6.9 ^b	34.1 ^a	8.6*
	Malopolska	27.9 ^a	----	0 ^b	11.5	11.06**
	Stockholm	18.5 ^a	2.8 ^b	----	----	4.4*

* p <.05 ** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residual above 1.96

b. Corrected standardized residual below -1.96

Having seen the results by regions and family types, those results will be discussed when the care resources are analysed, and considering both aspects at the same time.

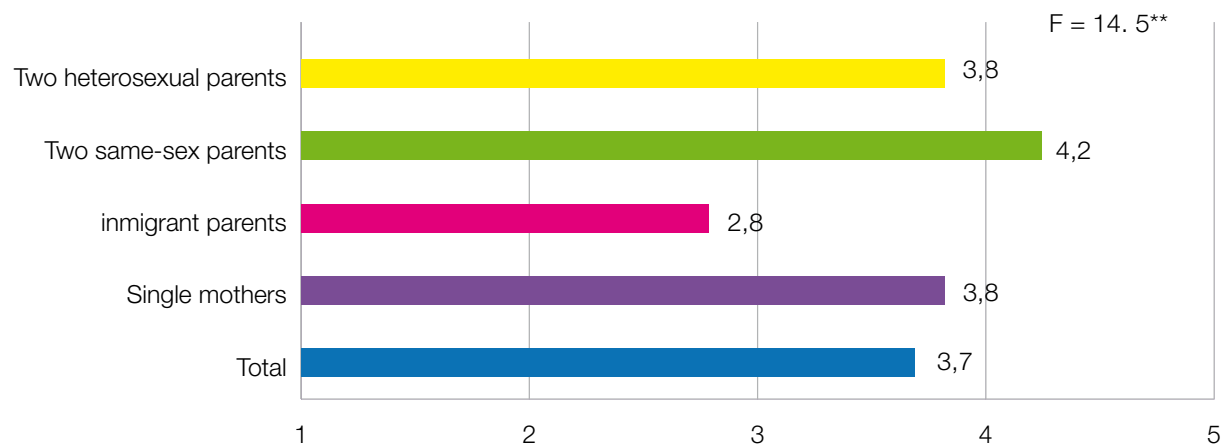
In this sense, as can be seen in table 23, the resulting data also show significant differences in some of the resources. Starting with the *morning class*, the results from Malopolska and Andalusia were well differentiated. While in Andalusia it was the single mothers who use this resource most, heterosexual families used it much less. In Malopolska, heterosexual families used this resource more frequently while immigrant families used *morning class* as a resource to care for their children much less.

As shown in table 23, the significant differences seen in the use of the *school canteen* stem from fact that heterosexual families in Malopolska made less use of this resource while single mothers in Andalusia used this more. When focusing on the use of *extracurricular activities*, significant statistical differences appear in the following aspects: in Andalusia, the differences between family types were due to the greater use of this resource by single mothers and lesser use on behalf of immigrant families. In Malopolska, on the contrary, there were no differences in the use of this resource in the various family types. In Stockholm, the differences were obvious due to the greater use made of *extracurricular activities* by heterosexual families with respect to that made by gay/lesbian families.

Finally, when focusing on the use of *urban camps*, there were interesting differences among the three regions. In Andalusia, it was single mothers who once again used this resource more, while immigrant families used this possibility significantly less. In the case of Malopolska, the differences were clearly obvious because immigrant families did not use this resource, while heterosexual families used it more frequently than single mothers. Lastly, in the case of the Swedish region, the differences in this sense was that heterosexual families used *urban camps* more frequently as a resource to care for their children than lesbian mothers or gay fathers.

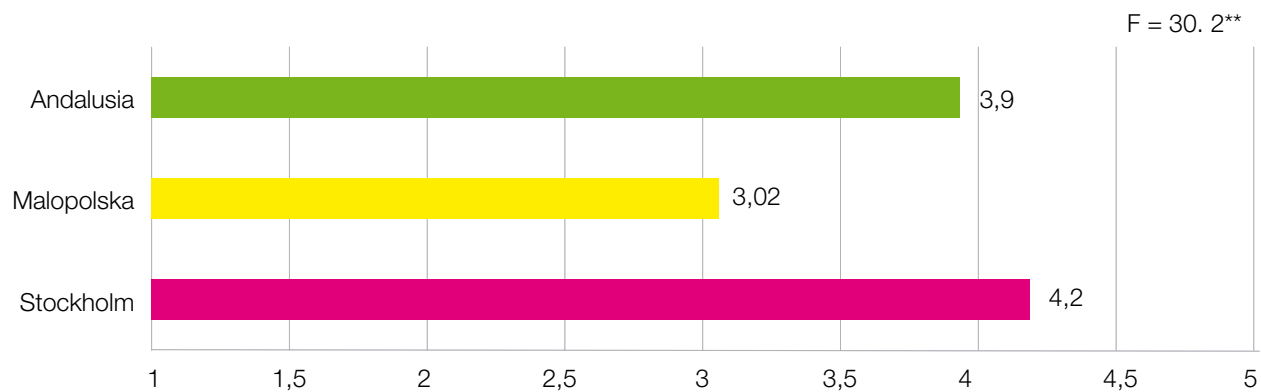
Once the resources to care for the children were analysed, the families were asked about their **level of satisfaction** with these resources. As can be seen in figure 10, all of the families generically responded a medium to high degree of satisfaction with the resources to care for their children. Thus, using a scale of 1 to 5, going from less to greater satisfaction, the average score of the families was 3.7.

Figure 10. Satisfaction with care resources for children by family type



** p < .01

Figure 11. Satisfaction with care resources for children by region

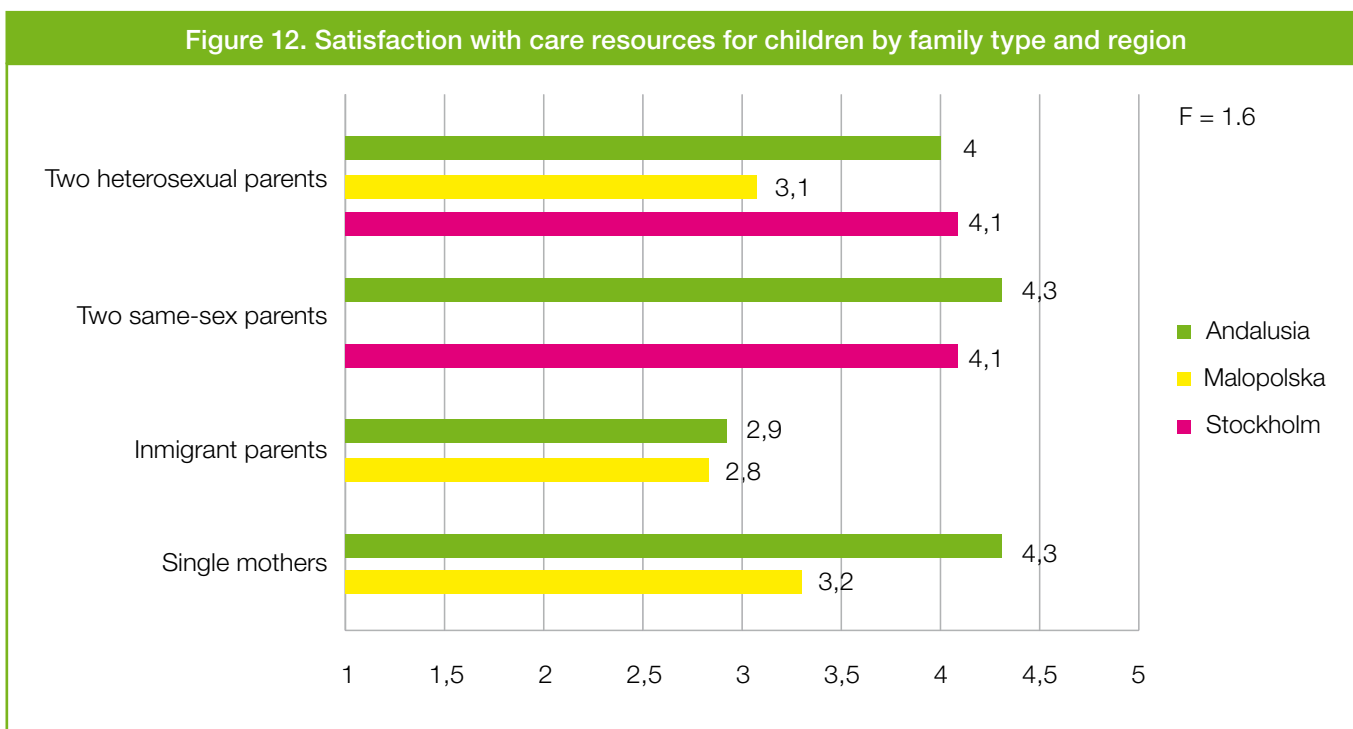


** p < .01

As shown in figure 10, the data with the average satisfaction based on family type, there were significant differences between one and another. Immigrant families differ from the other families, as they expressed a significantly lower level of satisfaction. There were no significant differences among the rest of the families.

The level of satisfaction with the resources to care for their children also showed significant differences depending on the region, as can be seen in figure 11. These differences were due to the lesser satisfaction with the resources shown by the families of Malopolska with respect to Andalusia and Stockholm.

To conclude this section relative to the use of resources to care for children and the satisfaction with these services, the cross-referencing of data by regions and family type were not significant, as can be observed in figure 12.



4.2.3. Reconciliation measures at the workplace

Space was reserved in the interview to explore the reconciliation measures offered by employers at the interviewees' work place, as well as if they took advantage of these measures and in the case that they did not use such measures, why.

The results shown in table 24 indicate that most companies offer reconciliation measures including: *have free days to attend unexpected family issues, work part-time to attend family obligations, flexible distribution of daily and weekly schedule and the possibility of enjoying maternity or paternity leave.*

Table 24. Existence of employer reconciliation measures and use of these

	Measure exist		The measure has been used	
	N	%	N	%
Flexibility in the distribution of daily work hours	192	58.2	154	46.7
Flexibility in the distribution of weekly work hours	166	49.7	127	38.5
Part-time work to attend family responsibilities	203	61.5	120	36.4
Leave of absence	179	54.2	62	18.8
Free days for extraordinary family situation	257	77.9	190	57.6
Teleworking	81	24.5	57	17.3
Two days of possible absence paid for parents who have children below 14 years old	64	19.4	47	14.2
Special arrangements upon returning to work after maternity leave	76	23	49	14.8
Reduced work hours for breastfeeding	160	48.5	83	25.2
Extended paternity/maternity leave	114	34.5	80	24.2
Financial assistance for family expenses	81	24.5	59	17.9
Workplace nursery	17	5.2	11	3.3

In terms of **using reconciliation measures**, the most frequently used by those included in this study were: *have free days to attend unexpected family issues, flexible distribution of daily and weekly work schedule, work part-time to attend family responsibilities and a reduced work schedule to breast feed.*

The reasons why the subjects failed to use reconciliation measures offered by their companies was also researched. The results (table 25) indicate that the fundamental reason for not using such resources was because there was no need. Other reasons given, to a lesser extent, included lack of salary, the impossibility of use, or simply, they were not interested.

Table 25. Reason for not using the employer reconciliation measures when these exist

	Why don't you use it?									
	No Need		No Interest		No Salary		Not Possible		Not Applicable	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Flexibility in the distribution of daily work hours	20	80	2	8	---	---	3	12	---	---
Flexibility in the distribution of weekly work hours	16	72.7	---	---	1	4.5	4	18.2	---	---
Part-time work to attend family responsibilities	40	58.8	1	1.5	22	32.4	4	18.2	---	---
Leave of absence	52	48.6	2	1.9	40	37.4	12	1.2	1	0.9
Free days for extraordinary family situation	43	84.3	3	5.9	---	---	5	9.8	---	---
Teleworking	3	17.6	7	41.2	---	---	7	41.2	---	---
Two days of possible absence. paid for parents who have children below 14 years old	7	100	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Special arrangements upon returning to work after maternity leave	9	56.3	1	6.3	1	6.3	4	25	1	6.3
Reduced work hours for breastfeeding	26	40	1	1.5	---	---	5	7.7	33	50.8
Extended paternity/maternity leave	19	82.6	1	4.3	---	---	2	8.7	1	4.3
Financial assistance for family expenses	9	56.3	---	---	---	---	7	43.8	---	---
Workplace nursery	2	33.3	4	66.7	---	---	---	---	---	---

Upon comparing the use of reconciliation measures offered by employers, depending on the type of family, (table 26) significant differences were found in the existence of all reconciliation measures at the companies where the interviewees worked. The five most common measures were focused upon, beginning with the possibility of *have free days to attend unexpected family issues*, it was found that this measure was significantly less common in the companies where immigrant families worked, in comparison with the rest. This difference was statistically significant with respect to single mothers, who used this measure more.

With respect to *part-time work to be able to attend family responsibilities*, it was found to be a significantly more common measure in those companies where members of gay/lesbian families worked, and less common in workplaces where immigrants worked. When it comes to using such resources, the results indicate that those who use them most are members of *gay/lesbian* and *heterosexual families* in comparison with immigrant and single *mother families*.

Heterosexual families have greater access to the *possibility of distributing their daily work hours in a more flexible manner* when compared to other family types, with this difference being statistically significant in the case of immigrant families. From here, it was found that heterosexual families make significantly more use of this measure than immigrant families.

In terms of leave of absence, it existed in firms where gay/lesbian families worked, and of course, these made the most use of this measure, while immigrant families and single mothers asked for fewer leaves of absence.

Finally, it was found that it was in companies where gay/lesbian families work that there was a greater percentage of possibility of distributing their weekly work hours in a more flexible manner, while in firms where immigrant families work, this option was less frequent. As far as the use of this possibility, the results indicate that immigrants used this measure less in comparison with all of the other family types.

Upon comparing regions, (table 27) significant differences were found in all measures explored. Starting with the possibility of having free days to attend extraordinary family issues, the results indicate that this measure was significantly less available in companies from the region of Andalusia than in the other two regions studied. When it comes to using this option, it was found that somewhat more than half used this option, with no significant difference among the three regions.

Part time work to attend family responsibilities was found to be a measure that was significantly more common in companies in Stockholm (Sweden) than firms in Andalusia (Spain) and Malopolska (Poland). When it comes to taking advantage of this possibility, it was the Swedish families who used it most, which resulted in significant differences with respect to Andalusian families who used this possibility to a much lesser degree.

Table 26. Existence/presence of employer reconciliation measures and use of these by family type

	Two heterosexual parents		Two same-sex parents		Immigrants parents		Single mothers		Measure exist χ^2	The measure has been used χ^2
	Measure exist	The measure has been used	Measure exist	The measure has been used	Measure exist	The measure has been used	Measure exist	The measure has been used		
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
Flexibility in the distribution of daily work hours	67.4 ^a	54.8 ^a	68.1	52.2	35.6 ^b	32.2 ^b	49.3	37.3	22.09**	11.7**
Flexibility in the distribution of weekly work hours	55.6	43.7	60.9 ^a	40.6	33.9 ^b	27.1 ^b	43.3	35.8	12.24**	5.1
Part-time work to attend family responsibilities	65.2	45.9 ^a	72.5 ^a	49.3 ^a	33.9 ^b	16.9 ^b	67.2	20.9 ^b	24.17**	26.8**
Leave of absence	53.3	18.5	84.1 ^a	43.5 ^a	16.9 ^b	5.1 ^b	58.2	6 ^b	58.24**	42.05**
Free days for extraordinary family situation	82.2	60	79.7	59.4	57.6 ^b	33.9 ^b	85.1	71.6 ^a	17.67**	19.4**
Teleworking	30.4 ^a	23 ^a	37.7 ^a	20.3	3.4	1.7 ^b	17.9	16.4	24.75**	13.5**
Two days of absence paid for parents with children below 14 years old	18.5	13.3	0 ^b	0 ^b	35.6 ^a	22	26.9	23.9 ^a	28.96**	19.5**
Special arrangements upon returning to work after maternity leave	27.4	17.8	39.1 ^a	24.6 ^a	5.1 ^b	3.4 ^b	13.4 ^b	9	25.75**	14.1**

Reduced work hours for breastfeeding	54.1	37 ^a	40.6	18.8	20.3 ^b	8.5 ^b	70.1 ^a	22.4	34.72 ^{**}	20.5 ^{**}
Extended paternity / maternity leave	35.6	26.7	43.5	31.9	11.9 ^b	6.8 ^b	43.3	26.9	18.18 ^{**}	12.6 ^{**}
Financial assistance for family expenses	25.2	20	30.4	15.9	8.5 ^b	6.8 ^b	31.3	25.4	11.22 [*]	6.1 [*]
Workplace nursery	3	0 ^b	11.6 ^a	8.7 ^a	1.7	1.7	6	6	8.72 [*]	12.7 ^{**}

* p <.05 ** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residual above 1.96

b. Corrected standardized residual below -1.96

With respect to the possibility of distributing their daily work hours in a more flexible manner, the results indicate that this measure was significantly more commonplace for companies in Stockholm than those found in other regions. However, it is interesting to note that there was no difference in the percentage of usage of this possibility among the three regions because somewhat more than half of the families in Stockholm took advantage of this possibility and almost half of the families from the region of Andalusia and Malopolska also used it (most of those who had this possibility).

In terms of leave of absence, it was found that this measure was more common place in companies located in Stockholm and Andalusia, which differed from Malopolska. However, those using this possibility significantly more were those from Stockholm.

Finally, *possibility of distributing their weekly work hours in a more flexible manner* was more commonplace in Stockholm. This result was statistically significant with respect to companies located in Andalusia. Nevertheless, there were no significant differences in the use of this measure in the different regions.

Table 27. Existence/presence of employer reconciliation measures and use of these by region

	Andalusia		Malopolska		Stockholm		Measure exist χ^2	The measure has been used χ^2
	Measure exist	The measure has been used	Measure exist	The measure has been used	Measure exist	The measure has been used		
	%	%	%	%	%	%		
Flexibility in the distribution of daily work hours	57.3	45.1	45.5 ^b	42.4	79.1 ^a	56.7	18.7**	3.6
Flexibility in the distribution of weekly work hours	44.5 ^b	36	43.4	38.4	74.6 ^a	44.8	19.9**	1.5
Part-time work to attend family responsibilities	59.8	31.1 ^b	51.5 ^b	32.3	80.6 ^a	47.8 ^a	71.3**	46.3**
Leave of absence	64 ^a	11 ^b	20.2 ^b	12.1 ^b	80.6 ^a	55.2 ^a	14.7**	12.9**
Free days for extraordinary family situation	72.6 ^b	59.8	80.8	55.6	86.6	55.2	6.1*	0.6
Teleworking	17.7 ^b	12.2 ^b	18.2	16.2	50.7 ^a	31.3 ^a	31.1**	12.3**
Two days of absence paid for parents who have children below 14 years old	0 ^b	0 ^b	64.6 ^a	47.5 ^a	0 ^b	0 ^b	185.2**	127.8**
Special arrangements upon returning to work after maternity leave	1.8 ^b	1.8 ^b	34.3 ^a	24.2 ^a	58.2 ^a	32.8 ^a	95.5**	46.04**
Reduced work hours for breastfeeding	67.7 ^a	31.7 ^a	41.4 ^b	28.3	11.9 ^b	4.5 ^b	62.01**	19.4**
Extended paternity/maternity leave	43.9 ^a	33.5 ^a	23.2 ^b	15.2 ^b	28.4	14.9 ^b	13.08**	15.3**
Financial assistance for family expenses	34.8 ^a	25 ^a	14.1 ^b	13.1	14.9 ^b	7.5 ^b	18.3**	12.1**
Workplace nursery	9.8 ^a	6.1 ^a	0 ^b	0 ^b	1.5	1.5	14.3**	8.01*

* p <.05 ** p <.01

a. Corrected standardized residual above 1.96

b. Corrected standardized residual below -1.96

When it came to family **satisfaction** with the reconciliation measure offered by their employer, the global results indicate that those participating in this study showed an average satisfaction with these measures. (Average score of 3.02 on a scale of 1 to 5).

Based on the family type, it was found that immigrant families were significantly less satisfied with the reconciliation measures their employer offered than the gay/lesbian and heterosexual families (figure 13).



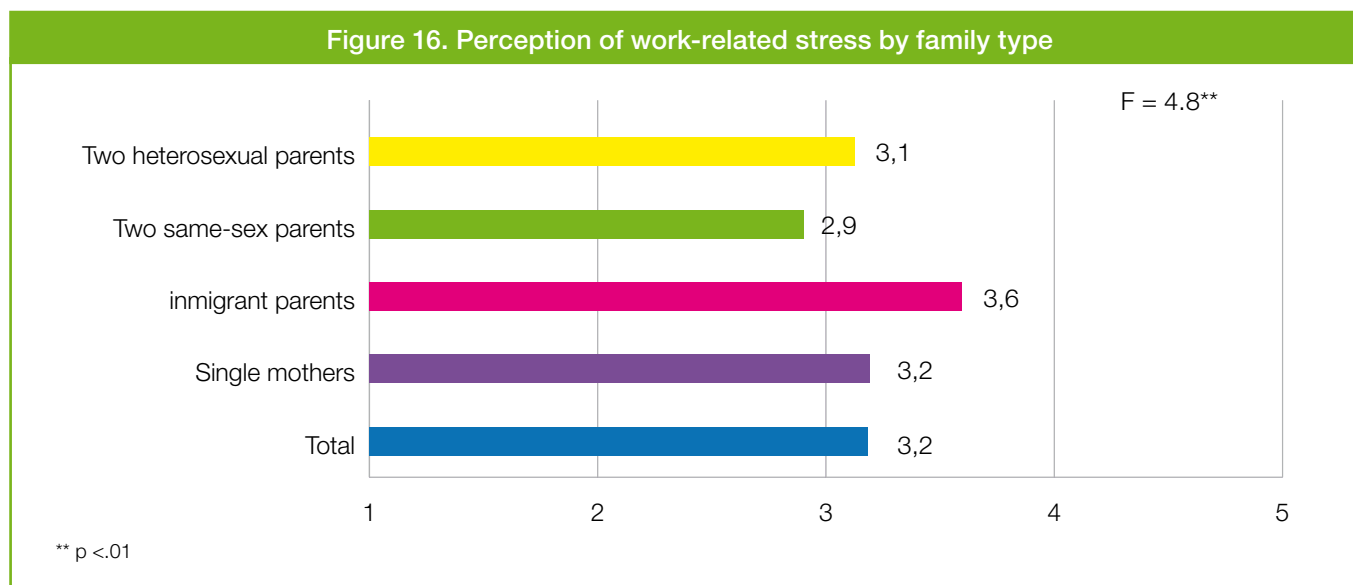
When comparing regions, it was found that families in Stockholm were significantly more satisfied with the reconciliation measures offered by their employers. (Figure 14)

Likewise, the satisfaction with employer reconciliation measures was also compared based on the family type in all three regions. As shown in figure 15, there were significant differences. To better understand these differences, how this variable behaved in each region was explored depending on the family type. In this sense, the differences were denoted by the following data: while there were no significant differences in Malopolska and Stockholm between one family type and another, in Andalusia there was a clear difference in terms of less satisfaction among immigrant families when it came to employer reconciliation measures in comparison with gay/lesbian, heterosexual and single mother families.



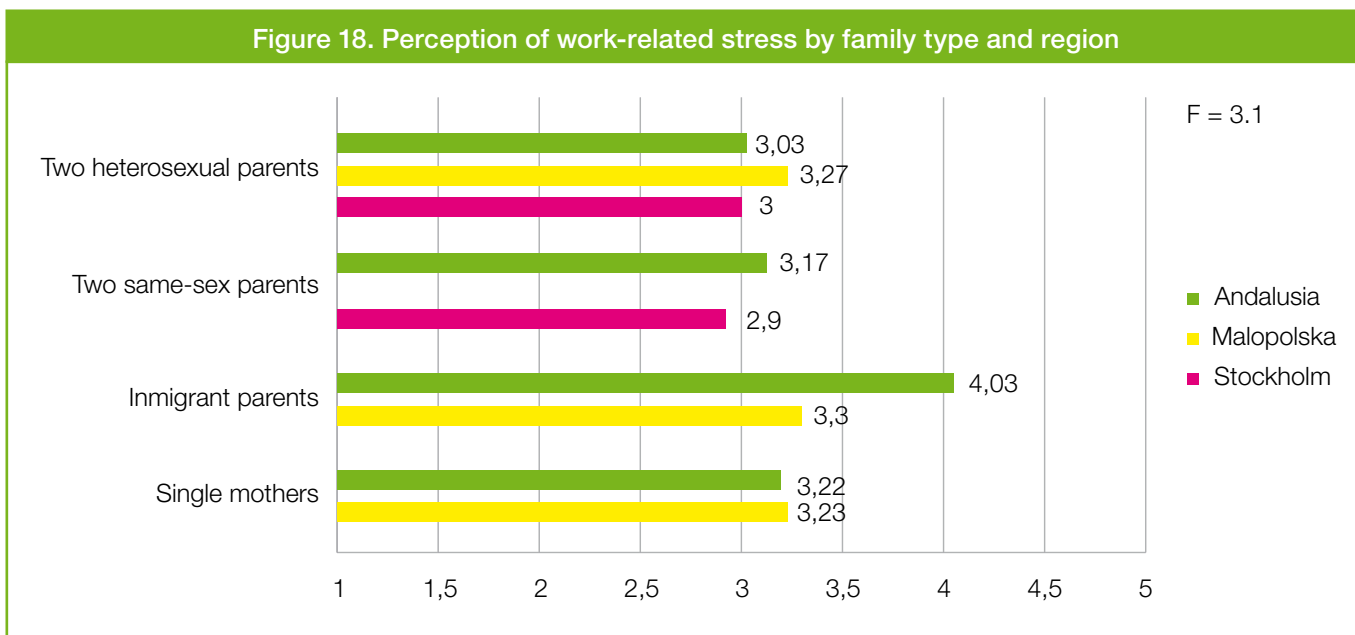
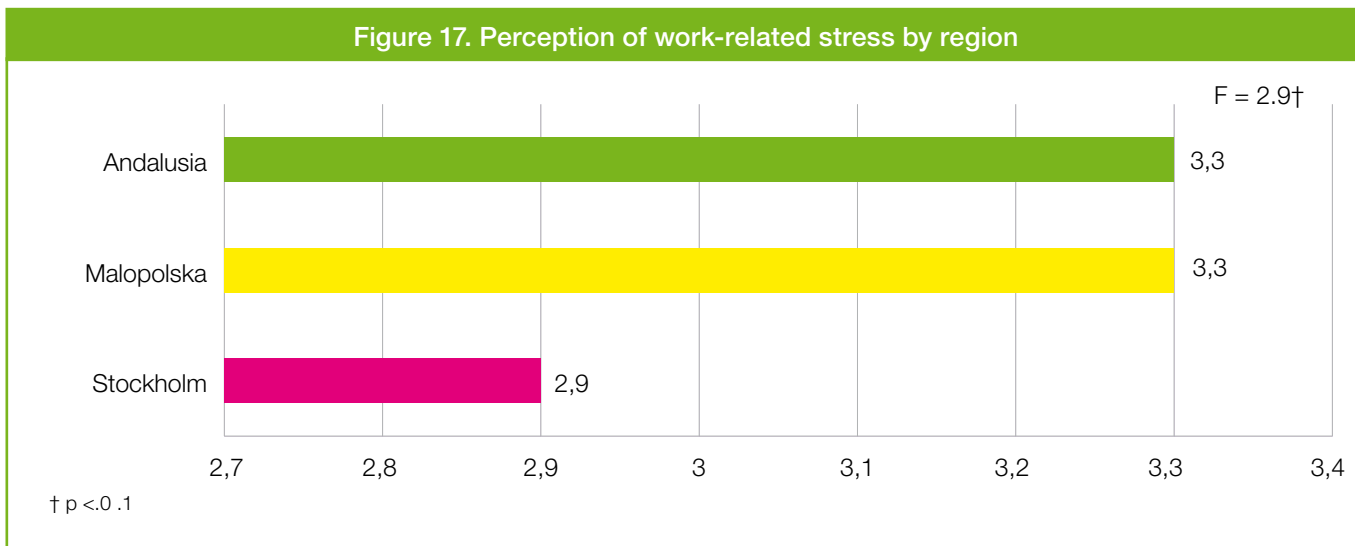
Upon researching other aspects related to employment and the professional career of the interviewees, the perception they had of their employment causing stress in their lives was also researched. It was found that those interviewed expressed a higher level of work-related stress; using the 1 to 5 scale, the average score was 3.2.

When comparing work-related stress depending on the family type, as can be observed in figure 16, it was found that those interviewed who were members of immigrant families present a significantly greater perception of work-related stress than those who were members of a heterosexual or gay/lesbian family.



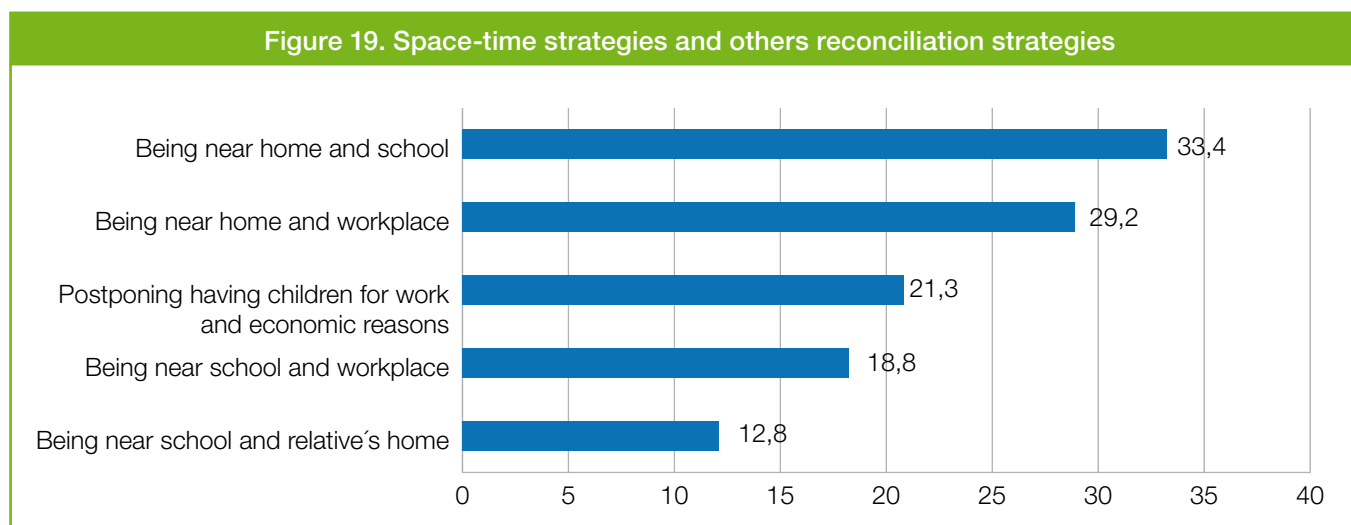
When comparing regions (figure 17), it was found that people from Stockholm had less work-related stress than people from Andalusia and Malopolska. Nevertheless, this difference in statistical terms was not significant, but rather marginal.

Upon comparing by family types and region, no significant differences were found in the level of work-related stress for the interviewees from the various families in the three regions studied (see figure 18).



4.2.4. Other reconciliation strategies

After exploring the reconciliation measures provided by employers, a space was reserved in the interview to ask about other strategies the family used to reconcile their personal, family and professional life. Essentially, it was found that families frequently develop strategies of a space-time nature, such as the children going to a school near the family home, the workplace or the home a relative or living near the workplace. See figure 19.



The comparison based on family type in these reconciliation strategies showed no significant differences, as can be seen in table 29.

Significant differences were found upon comparing regions. For example, families from Andalusia used strategies such as sending their children to a school near their home, although these same families, to a lesser extent, live close to their place of work. This difference was statistically different when compared with families from Malopolska. With respect to other space-time strategies analyses, no differences were found among the three regions.

Table 29. Space-time strategies and others reconciliation strategies by family type

	Two heterosexual parents	Two same sex parents	Immigrant parents	Single mothers	χ^2
	%	%	%	%	
Being near home and school	38.5	26.5	30.5	32.8	3.3
Being near home and workplace	31.9	25	23.7	32.8	2.3
Being near school and workplace	20	22.1	15.3	16.4	1.3
Being near school and relative's home	16.3	11.8	8.5	10.4	2.8
Postponing having children for work and economic reasons	25.9	23.5	11.9	17.9	5.5

With respect to delaying maternity or paternity due to labour or economic issues, as can be seen in figure 19, one in four of those interviewed stated that they had followed this strategy. There were no significant differences between types of families in this strategy; (table 29) however, significant differences between regions were found when it came to the strategy of delaying maternity or paternity due to career or economic reasons. Specifically, it was seen that families from Andalusia had, to a greater degree, postponed maternity or paternity due to work or economic difficulties, with the families from Malopolska who, to a lesser degree, were forced to use this strategy. All of this information is expressed in table 30.

Table 30. Space-time strategies and others reconciliation strategies by region

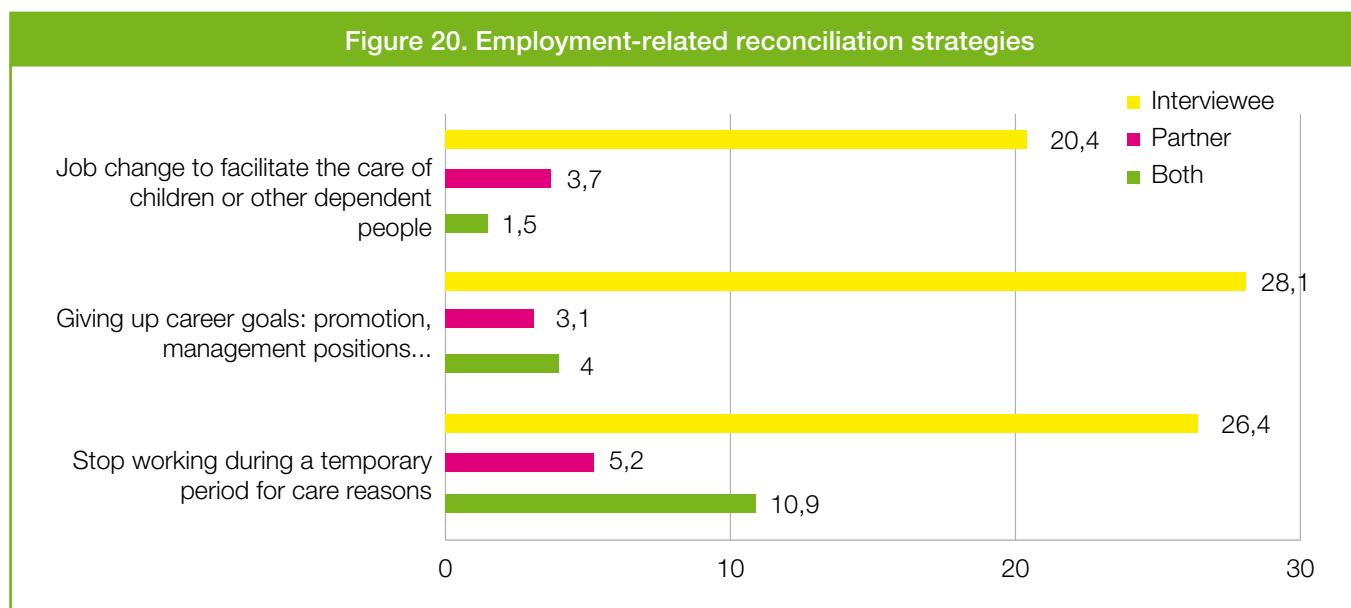
	Andalusia	Malopolska	Stockholm	χ^2
	%	%	%	
Being near home and school	51.2 ^a	12.1 ^b	21.2 ^b	47.9 ^{**}
Being near home and workplace	22.6 ^b	37.4 ^a	33.3	7.2 [*]
Being near school and workplace	18.3	19.2	19.7	0.7
Being near school and relative's home	11.6	17.2	9.1	2.7
Postponing having children for work and economic reasons	28.7 ^a	12.1 ^b	16.7	11.1 ^{**}

* p <.05 ** p <.01

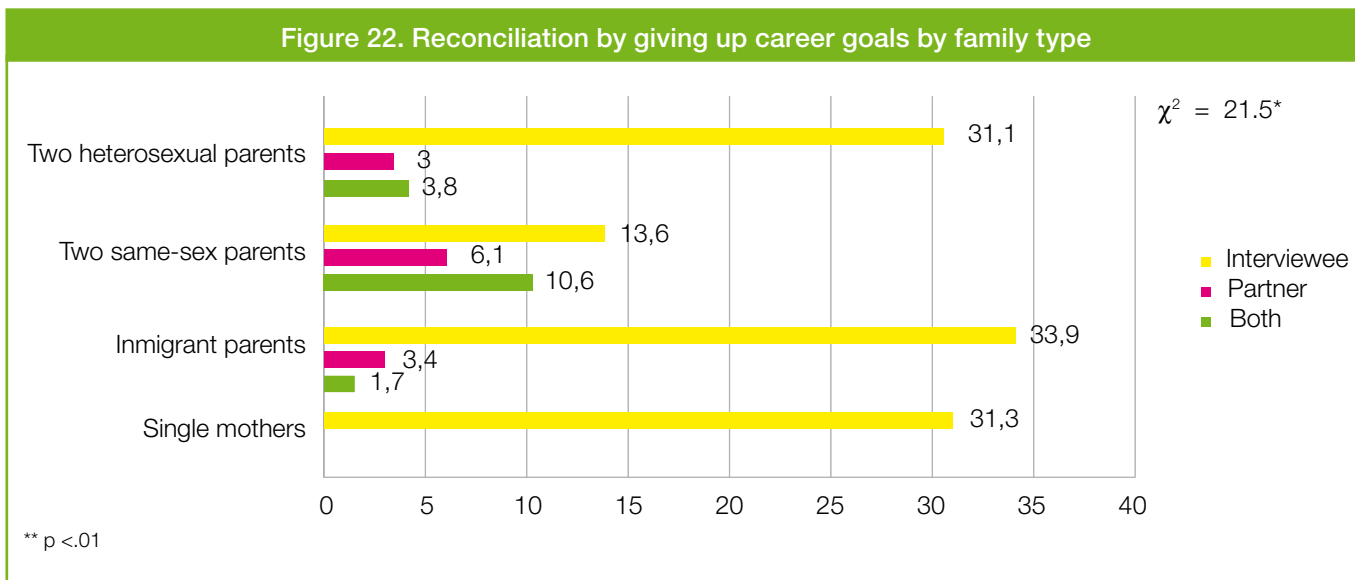
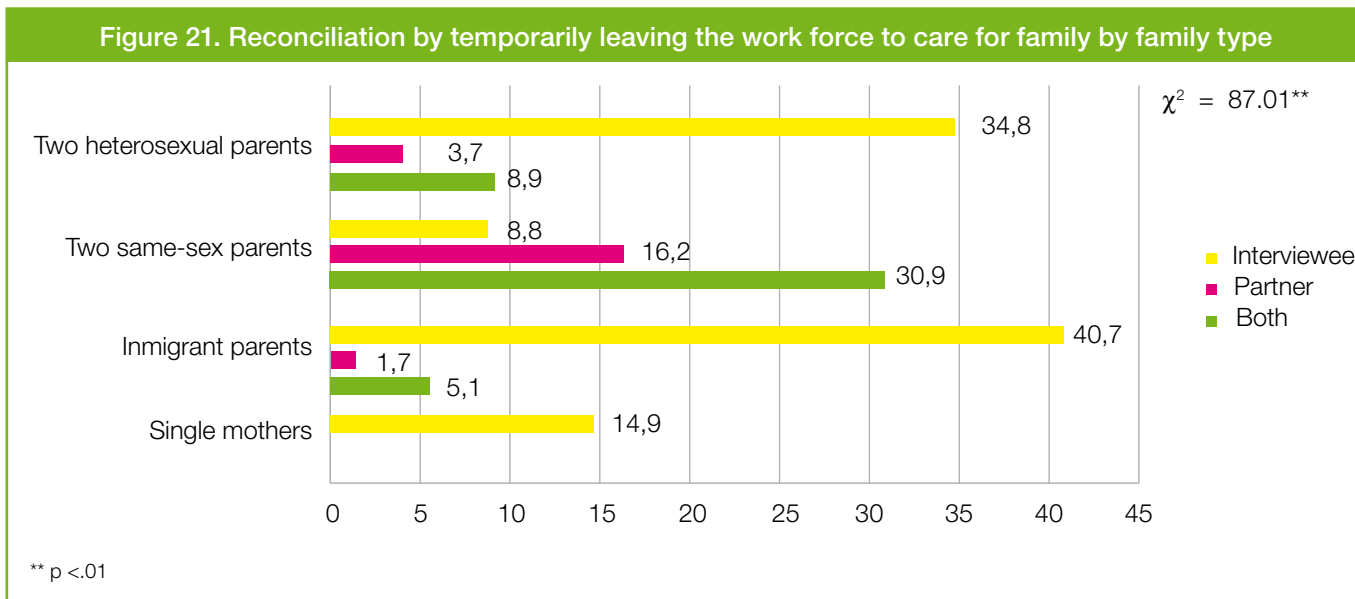
a. Corrected standardized residual above 1.96

b. Corrected standardized residual below -1.96

In addition to the previous strategies, those participating in the study indicated that they have sometimes made **adjustments in their professional life** to reconcile their family and personal life. Thus, the most frequent strategy was *stop working for a given period of time to care for younger children or a dependant relatives*, that was present in more than 40% of the families, followed by those who have *given up new career goals, or executive posts which would demand greater dedication* or who have changed jobs to be able to care for children or dependant relatives. Within each family, those who generally put these measures into practice were the interviewees, more than their partners, as can be seen in figure 20.

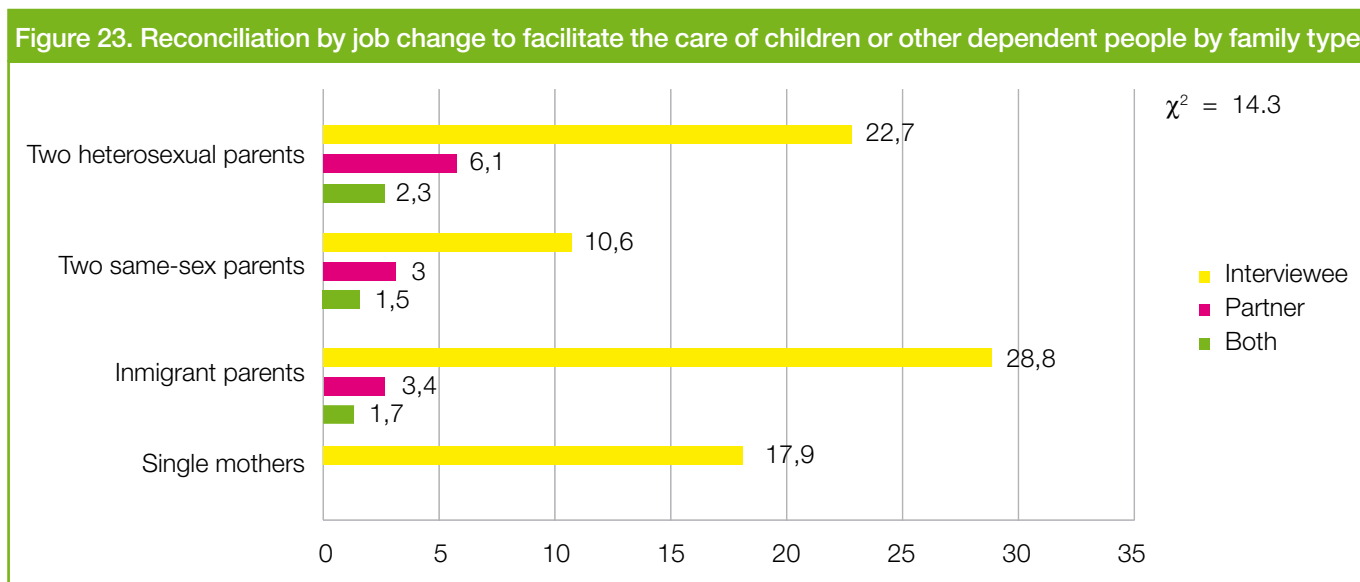


Upon comparing possible differences in the use of these strategies or adjustments in the various types of families, significant differences were found. For example, women married to men (both native and immigrants) had relinquished working for a period of time to dedicate their efforts towards caring for younger children or other dependant family member more frequently than single mothers or those forming a couple with another woman. It was in the gay/lesbian families where it was more commonplace to see either the partner or both had chosen this measure (Figure 21).



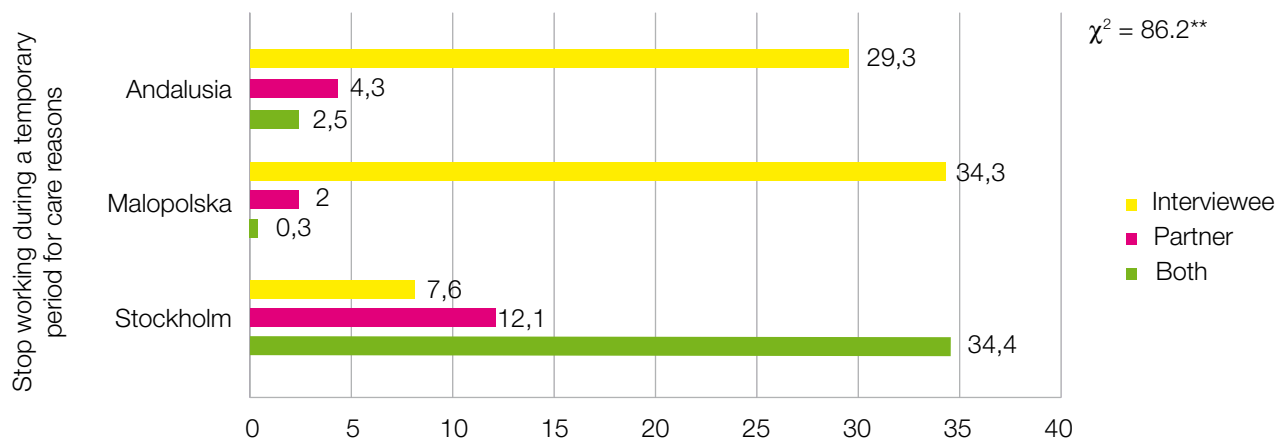
In terms of the strategy linked to renouncing new goals or professional responsibilities to care for the family, in general, it was seen that it was the interviewee—whatever the family type—who mainly had to renounce new career goals (executive posts, promotions, etc.). All the same, it was once again in the gay/lesbian families where it is more probable that the partner or both use this measure to reconcile family, career and personal responsibilities than other dual parent families. See figure 22.

Finally, there were no significant differences among the family types with respect to the percentage of parents who changed jobs to care for their children, although residual margins indicate that this was less frequent in lesbian mother or gay fathers. See figure 23.



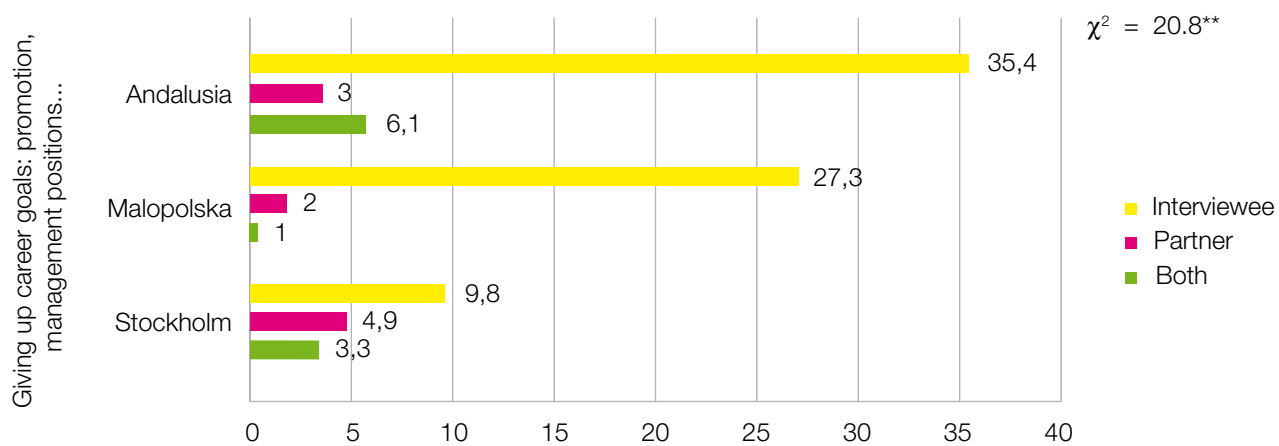
When comparing the three regions, once again, there were significant differences in the three reconciliation strategies. Thus, it was found that interviewees from Malopolska had left the workforce in significant higher numbers than those from the other two regions studied. Upon looking at the uses of this strategy on behalf of the interviewee's partner, it was found that the partners from Stockholm had, to a greater extent, left the workforce at a given point to care for others. As expected, in this same region, there was a greater percentage in which both the interviewees and their partners had chosen this strategy to be able to reconcile their personal, family and career life. See figure 24.

Figure 24. Reconciliation by temporarily leaving the work force to care for family by region



** p <.01

Figure 25. Reconciliation by giving up career goals by region

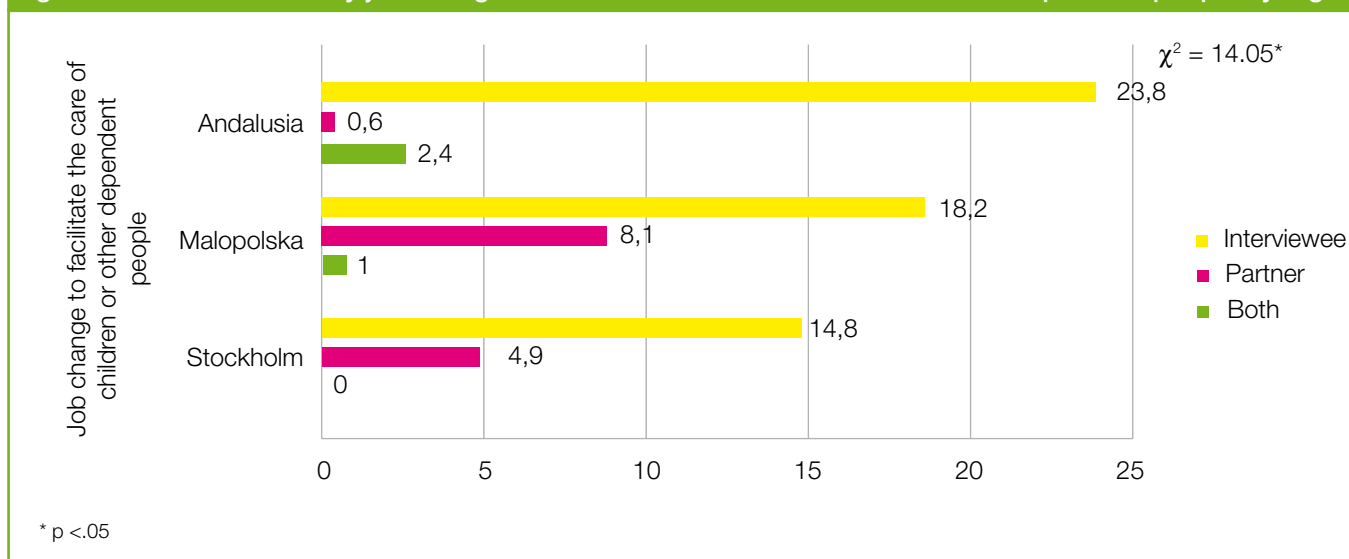


** p <.01

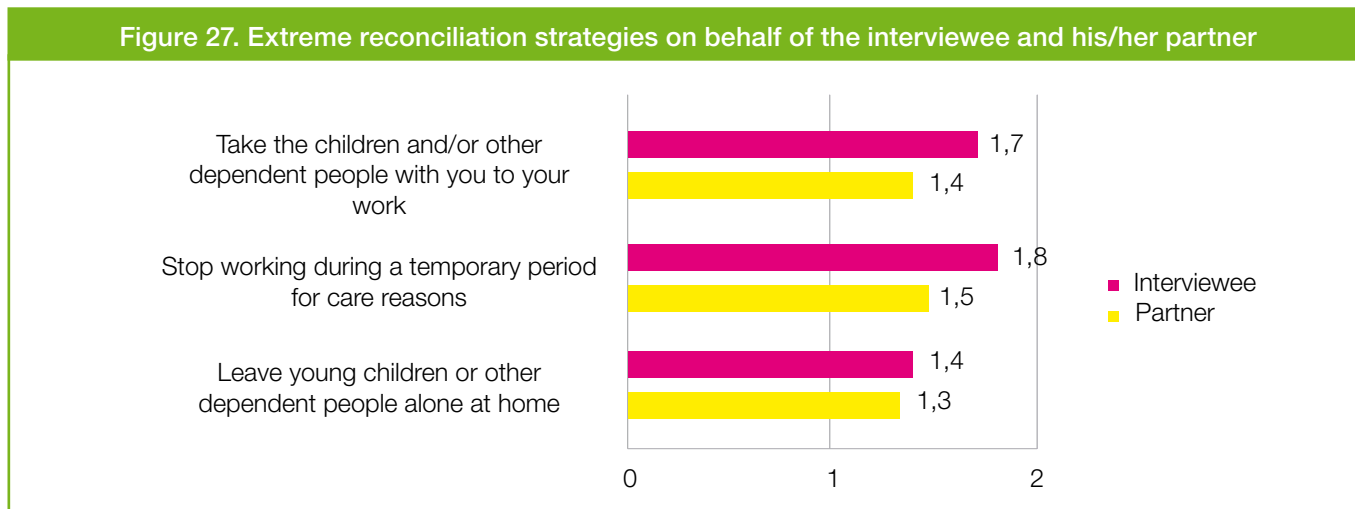
In terms of renouncing a new professional goal, it was found that this strategy has been used to a greater extent exclusively by the persons interviewed in the region of Andalusia and significantly less in Stockholm. However, it is more probable that in Stockholm, both members of the couple had renounced achieving new professional goals than those in Andalusia or Malopolska.

Finally, it was found that in general, it is the interviewees who had had to change jobs to care for their family, although in the case of families from Malopolska, the results indicate that there was a greater percentage of partners, with respect to the other two regions, who have changed jobs at a given point in their lives to care for their children or a dependant relative. See figure 26.

Figure 26. Reconciliation by job change to facilitate the care of children or other dependent people by region



During the interview, space was reserved to ask whether the interviewee or their partner had used **extreme reconciliation strategies** such as taking their children to work or leaving minors or other dependant relatives at home on their own. The results indicate that these strategies were used infrequently, fortunately, both by the interviewee as well as by their partner; in the 1 to 5 scale, it was found that the average frequency ranged from 1.3 and 1.8. See figure 27.



The use of extreme strategies by the interviewee is certainly low; thus, it is not surprising that there were no differences in terms of the family type. See table 35.

Table 35. Extreme reconciliation strategies on behalf of the interviewee by family type

	Two heterosexual parents	Two same sex parents	Immigrant parents	Single mothers	F
	M	M	M	M	
Take the children and/or other dependent people with you to your work	1.79	1.63	1.7	1.8	0.54
Stop working during a temporary period for care reasons	1.92	1.64	1.7	1.7	1.6
Leave young children or other dependent people alone at home	1.32	1.57	1.3	1.3	1.1

However, there were significant differences in the use of extreme reconciliation strategies in all three regions (Table 36). Starting with the strategy of taking the child or dependant relative to work, it was found that in the region of Andalusia, this was an option that was used more frequently (average score of 2.2 on a scale of 1

to 5) than in other regions. The difference was statistically significant in comparison with Malopolska. Finally, the strategy of leaving minors or dependant relatives at home on their own is used much more frequently in families from Stockholm, while families from Andalusia used this option much less. It must be noted that this option is used very little in all cases.

Table 36. Extreme reconciliation strategies on behalf of the interviewee by region

	Andalusia M	Malopolska M	Stockholm M	F
Take the children and/or other dependent people with you to your work	2.02	1.37	1.6	10.6**
Stop working during a temporary period for care reasons	2.01	1.60	1.5	11.09**
Leave young children or other dependent people alone at home	1.09	1.61	1.8	22.5**

** p <.01

When it comes to using these strategies on behalf of the partners, there were significant differences in terms of the type of family (Table 37). Specifically, take the children to work is a strategy that was used most frequently by parents of native heterosexual families than immigrant families. There were no significant differences among families when it came to the extreme measure of leaving the children at home on their own.

Table 37. Extreme reconciliation strategies on behalf of the partner by family type

	Two heterosexual parents M	Two same sex parents M	Immigrant parents M	F
Take the children and/or other dependent people with you to your work	1.5	1.4	1.1	5.5**
Stop working during a temporary period for care reasons	1.5	1.8	1.2	8.08**
Leave young children or other dependent people alone at home	1.2	1.5	1.4	2.4

** p <.01

Upon comparing regions, significant differences were found in the strategy of leaving the children or dependent relative at home. Particularly, it was found that this strategy was used significantly more frequently by families from Stockholm than in the other regions. This option was used much less in the region of Andalusia. See table 38.

Table 38. Extreme reconciliation strategies on behalf of the partner by region

	Andalusia M	Malopolska M	Stockholm M	F
Take the children and/or other dependent people with you to your work	1.4	1.3	1.4	0.9
Stop working during a temporary period for care reasons	1.6	1.4	1.6	2.5
Leave young children or other dependent people alone at home	1.1	1.5	1.7	13.8**

** p <.01

4.2.5. Domestic co-responsibility

To understand how the responsibility of *domestic tasks in each home* was distributed, the interviewee was asked who performed some of these tasks at home. As shown in table 39, those interviewed stated that they performed most of the household tasks themselves. Their partners, on the other hand, also played an important role, with percentages that ranged from 34.9% in the task of *washing clothes*, to 82% when it came to the task of *small household repairs*.

Table 39. Percentage of domestic tasks performed by the interviewee and his/her partner

	Interviewee %	Partner %
Prepare food	89.4	54.6
Wash the dishes	89.7	64.9
Make minor household repairs	47.3	82.4

Vacuum or mop the floor	85.8	46.6
Throw away trash	74.2	77.9
Domestic shopping	92.7	71.3
Pay bills. receipts	79.1	70.2
Washing clothes	93.3	34.9
Write letters. call family. friends	97.6	77.0

In addition to understanding just how the domestic chores were organized, the study was interested in having a more in-depth understanding of this distribution depending on the family type, the region and depending on the family type and the region jointly. To achieve this, a global score was calculated which would allow the average number of tasks performed by each interviewee with their partner to be studied. A differential score was then obtained, which came from subtracting the total number of tasks performed by the interviewee from the total number of tasks performed by the partner, as was the formula used for care-related tasks. Thus, the study could see whether or not the task distribution pattern was balanced or differential, at least in terms of the number of task performed by each member of the couple.

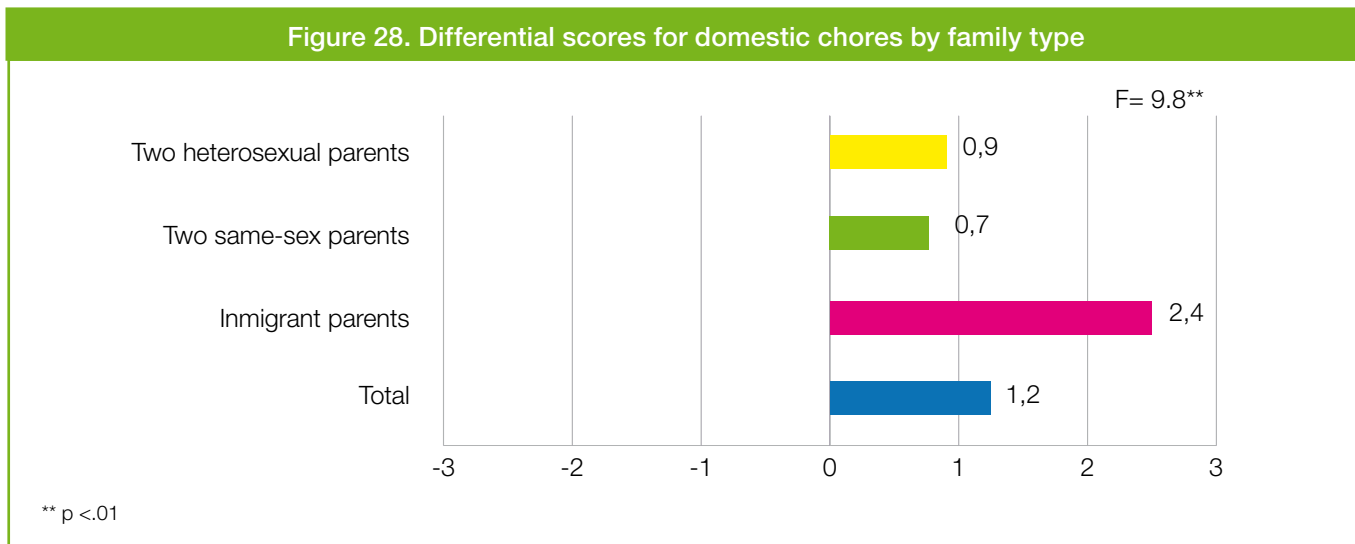
Upon performing the comparison based on family types with the global sum of the scores (Table 40), it was found that single mothers performed more domestic task than any other group, followed by interviewees from gay/lesbian families.

Table 40. Average of domestic chore total by family type

	Interviewee	Partner
	M	M
Two heterosexual parents	5.3	4.3
Two same-sex parents	5.8	5.1
Immigrant parents	5.7	3.3
Single mothers	6.4	---
<i>F</i>	18.2**	17.7**

** p <.01

From the analysis of the differences in the differential scores, based on family types (figure 28), it was deduced that immigrant families were less balanced, in comparison with gay/lesbian families who appear to have more balance in terms of domestic responsibilities between the interviewees and their partners.



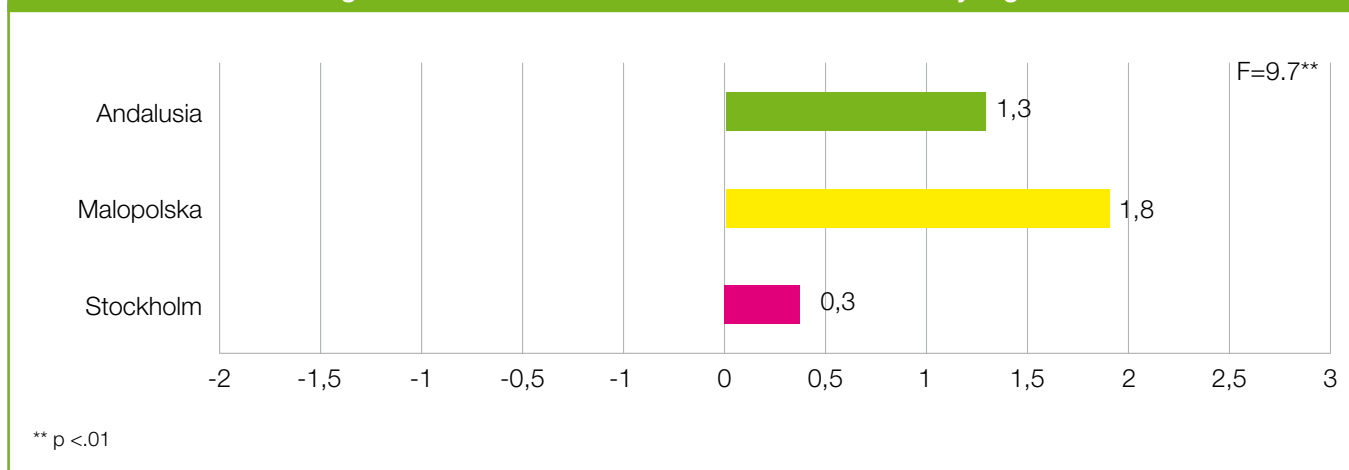
Upon comparing the differential scores by regions, it was found that the dynamics are similar in the regions of Andalusia and Malopolska: the interviewees performed more domestic chores than their partners, but in Stockholm, no differences were found. In the Swedish region, domestic chores were shared more equally and it was significantly different from the other regions. See table 41 and figure 29.

Table 41. Average of domestic chore total by region

	Interviewee	Partner
	M	M
Andalusia	5.6	4.0
Malopolska	5.9	3.6
Stockholm	5.7	5.6
<i>F</i>	1.8**	33.7**

** p <.01

Figure 29. Differential scores for domestic chores by region



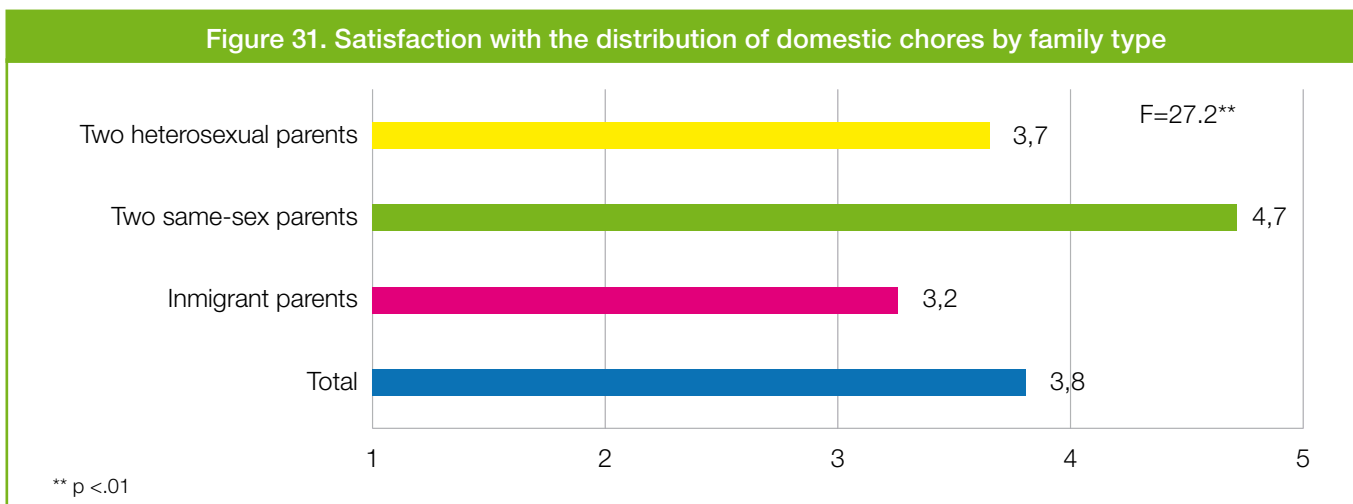
When sharing domestic chores based on the family type and region (Table 42), significant differences were found in the average of chores performed by partners. Upon seeing what happened internally in each region, these differences were obvious; while in Stockholm there were no differences in the number of household tasks performed by heterosexual and gay/lesbian families, in Malopolska there were important differences between the two family types studied: heterosexual and immigrant families.

Table 42. Average of domestic chore total by family type and region

	Two heterosexual parents		Two same-sex parents		Immigrant parents		Single mothers
	I M	P M	I M	P M	I M	P M	I M
Andalusia	5.2	3.9	5.4	4.4	5.6	3.8	6.4
Malopolska	5.2	4.1	---	---	5.7	2.7	6.6
Stockholm	5.6	5.6	6.1	5.6	---	---	---
F Interviewee					0.5		
F Partner					3.2*		

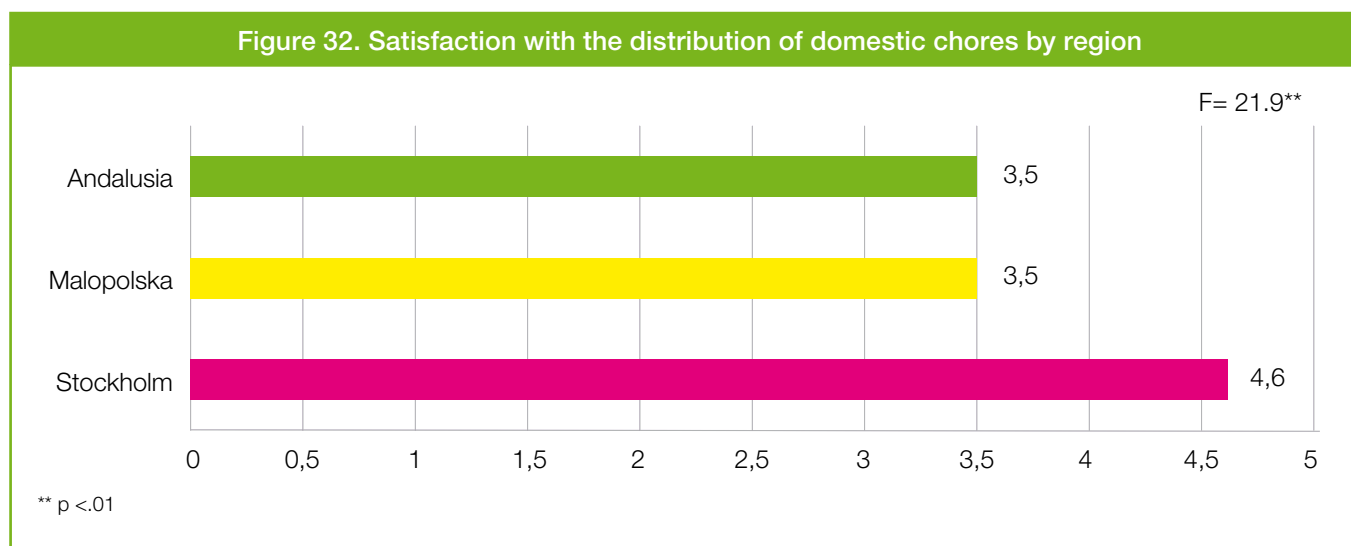
* p < .05

The comparison of the differential scores based on region and family type (Figure 30); these did not appear to be significant, although they did indicate a clear tendency in the same line as the averages: sharing domestic chores in the Swedish region was more balanced than in the rest of the regions.

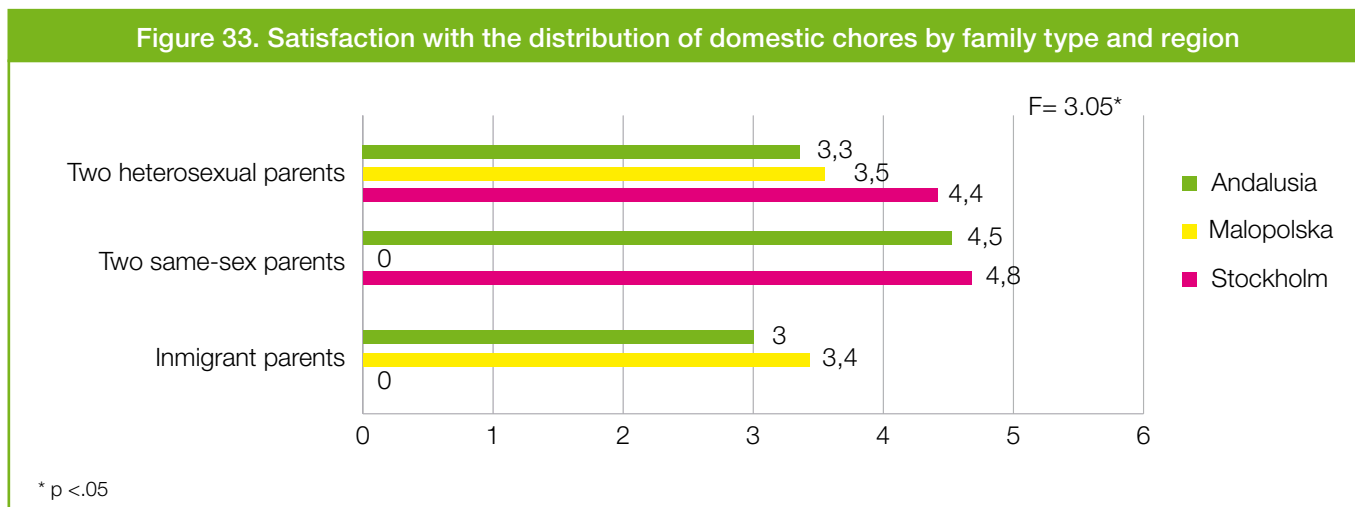


Due to the above, this study sought to understand the level of satisfaction of the interviewees; in this case the **satisfaction with the distribution of domestic chores**. In figure 31, it was observed that families interviewed had a medium-high level of satisfaction, as shown by the average score of 3.8 in the 1 to 5 scale. In terms of the differences based on family type, it was found that gay/lesbian families were highly satisfied with the sharing of domestic chores (an average value of 4.7 on the 1 to 5 scale) and significantly more than heterosexual native families and these more than immigrant families.

When the comparison by regions was performed (Figure 32), it was observed that interviewees from Stockholm are the most satisfied with the sharing of domestic chores, which differed significantly from those from Andalusia and Malopolska, which showed no differences between them.



Satisfaction with respect to domestic chores also shows significant differences when compared based jointly on family types and regions. As it can be observed in figure 33, the differences were due mainly to the Andalusia families, where the interviewees from gay/lesbian families were significantly more satisfied with the balance of domestic chores than all others, while in the Polish region and in Sweden, there were no significant differences between the diverse families studied.



Once the allotment of the domestic tasks of the families participating in the study was known, plus the degree of satisfaction they demonstrated with regards to this allotment, whether there was any relationship between the two variables was then explored. For this, a bivariate correlation analysis was carried out (Table 43).

Table 43. Correlations between the number of domestic tasks performed by the interviewee and their satisfaction with this distribution

	Differential scores for the distribution of domestic chores
Satisfaction with the domestic tasks distribution	-0.49**

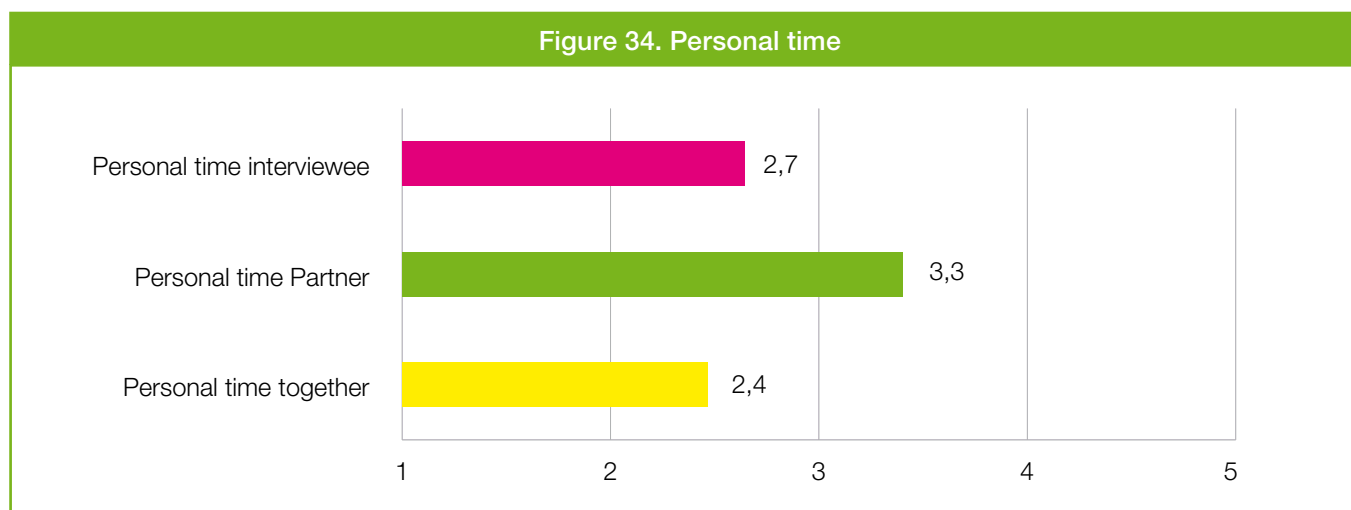
** p < .01

As can be seen in table 43, the degree of satisfaction with the domestic tasks has a negative correlation with the differential scores for the allotment of the domestic tasks (-0.49**); that is to say, the higher the differential (a less equal allotment), the lower the degree of satisfaction and, the lower the differential scores (a more equal allotment), the higher the degree of satisfaction. Obviously, people who perceived that the allotment of domestic tasks was more equal were also more satisfied.

4.2.6. Personal Life Reconciliation

The results for personal life reconciliation are presented herein, with aspects that are considered essential for family life. First of all, the frequency that the interviewees, their partners and both together have time for personal enjoyment will be covered.

In general, as shown in figure 34, the average time available for personal entertainment of the interviewees is 2.7. If the average scale that ranges from 1: Never to 5: Almost daily, it can be said that those interviewed perceived that they have medium-low personal time. In the case of their partners, the interviewees perceived they have slightly more time, with an average of 3.3. Lastly, the time for enjoyment as a couple was even less (average score of 2.4).



Upon analysing this data, based on the type of family, the results indicate that there are significant differences in the three cases: thus, as can be seen in table 44, the gay/lesbian interviewees have significantly more time than the other families. On average, immigrant families have less time with respect to heterosexual and gay/lesbian families. The data obtained also indicates that single mothers have, on average, significantly less personal time than lesbian mothers or gay fathers, but no less than heterosexual mothers, whether native or immigrant.

With respect to personal time available for partners, the differences were also significant in the sense that in gay/lesbian families, the partner has more personal time than in immigrant families. According to joint personal time, the differences were once again noticeable in immigrant families, who have much less joint time for the couple, in comparison with heterosexual and gay/lesbian families.

Table 44. Personal time by family type

	Single mothers	Immigrant parents	Two same-sex parents	Two heterosexual parents	F
	M	M	M	M	
Personal time Interviewee	2.4	2.01	3.48	2.88	18.3**
Personal time Partner	---	2.9	3.47	3.32	3.4*
Personal time together	---	1.9	2.56	2.52	7.9**

* p <.05 ** p <.01

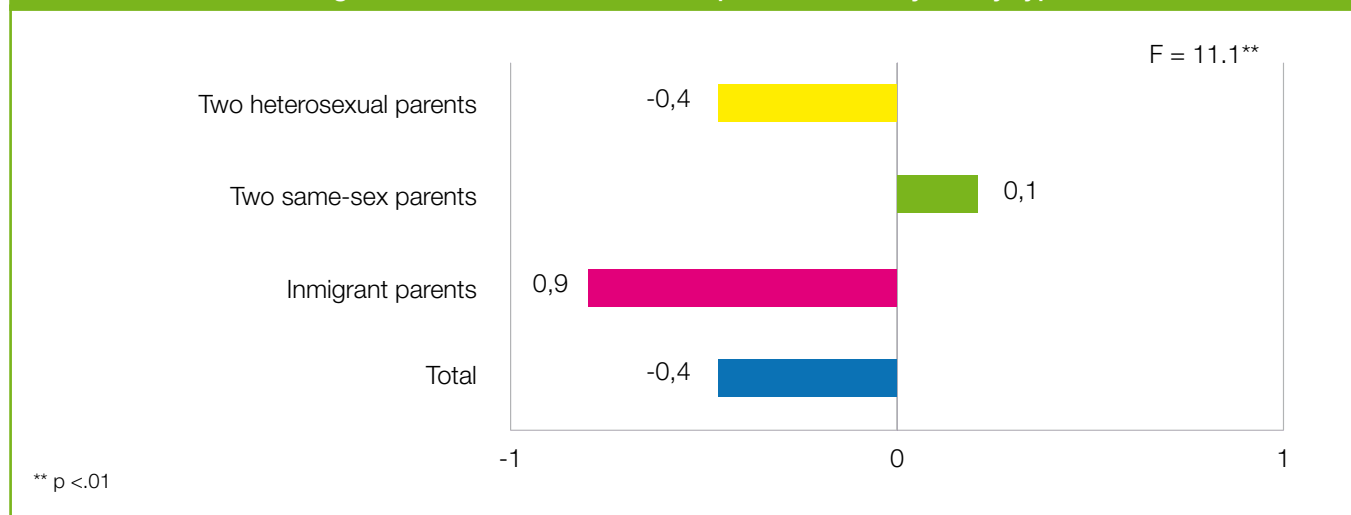
As was the case with care-related tasks and the sharing of domestic chores, a differential score between the personal time of the interviewee and that of their partner has been calculated for this variable (in native heterosexual and immigrant families and in gay/lesbian families). Remember that the closer to “0” the differential score, the more balanced the recreational or personal time. If the score is negative, this means less recreational time for the person interviewed, and more for their partner. If, on the contrary, the score is positive, it would be the interviewee who has more recreational time.

The differential score results, considering the three types of families, follow the logic found in the general average scores seen before in this section. Thus, as can be seen in figure 35, there is almost half a point difference between the personal time available to the person interviewed and their partner (-0.4) with the partner having more personal time than the interviewee.

The contrasts in the differential scores based on family types were statistically significant, with differences among the three types of families. Gay/lesbian families were more balanced, given that the difference between both members of the couple is really near 0. This would indicate that the people interviewed have slightly more time than their partner, but the score is so close to zero, thus, it cannot be said that there is a real difference in time between the members of the couple. In the other two groups, the differential scores

was negative, which indicates that the partner has more free time, with heterosexual immigrant couples in the sample showing much higher differences, followed by native heterosexuals.

Figure 35. Differential scores for personal time by family type



The contrast in personal time, based on region, was significant for the three measures, as can be seen in table 45. In the case of personal time for the person interviewed, the differences were significant among the averages for the three regions: in the region of Stockholm, the person interviewed had more personal time, followed by those from Spain and Poland, who enjoyed less personal time. In the case of personal time for the partner, there were also significant differences; the region of Stockholm stood out with higher averages when compared with the Spanish and Polish regions. Lastly, in the case of joint recreational time, the differences appeared between the Swedish and Polish regions, with the former enjoying more joint free time than the later.

Upon analyzing the results linked to the differential scores by regions, these follow a similar logic as the previous ones. See figure 36. There are significant differences and it is the region of Stockholm that marks this difference. In this sense, it is more balanced in terms of the personal time the people interviewed and their partners have. Therefore, the differential score is closer to 0.

Table 45. Personal time by region				
	Andalusia	Malopolska	Stockholm	<i>F</i>
	M	M	M	
Personal time Interviewee	2.68	2.26	3.7	35.3**
Personal time Partner	3.22	2.89	3.8	12.03**
Personal time together	2.34	2.2	2.7	3.9*

* p <.05 ** p <.01

It seems interesting to comment that there were no significant differences neither in the personal time data of the interviewees, nor in their partner or joint time, taking jointly in consideration the influences of the region and family type, as shown in figure 37 and table 46.

Table 46. Personal time by family type and region						
		Single mothers	Immigrant parents	Two same-sex parents	Two heterosexual parents	<i>F</i>
		M	M	M	M	
Andalusia	Personal time interviewee	2.60	2.10	3.10	2.80	0.06
	Personal time partner	---	3.10	3.03	3.35	
	Personal time together	---	1.93	2.31	2.53	
Malopolska	Personal time interviewee	2.19	1.93	---	2.53	0.7
	Personal time partner	---	2.76	---	2.97	
	Personal time together	---	1.86	---	2.44	
Stockholm	Personal time interviewee	---	---	3.75	3.62	1.1
	Personal time partner	---	---	3.79	3.77	
	Personal time together	---	---	2.55	2.51	

Figure 36. Differential scores for personal time by region

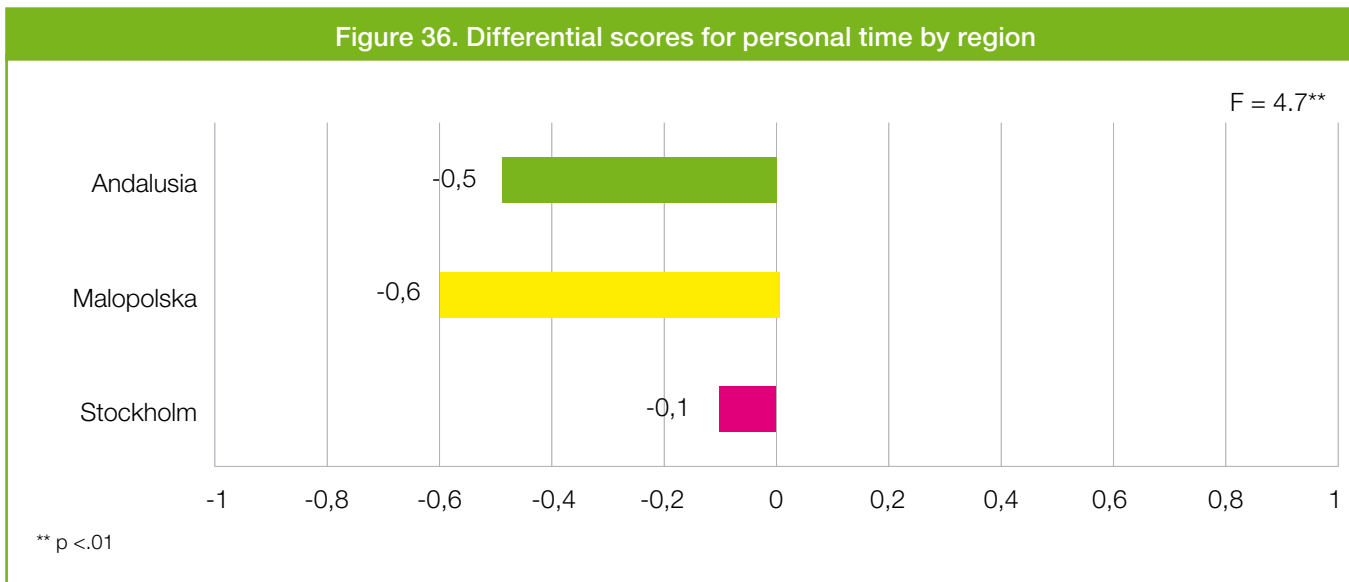
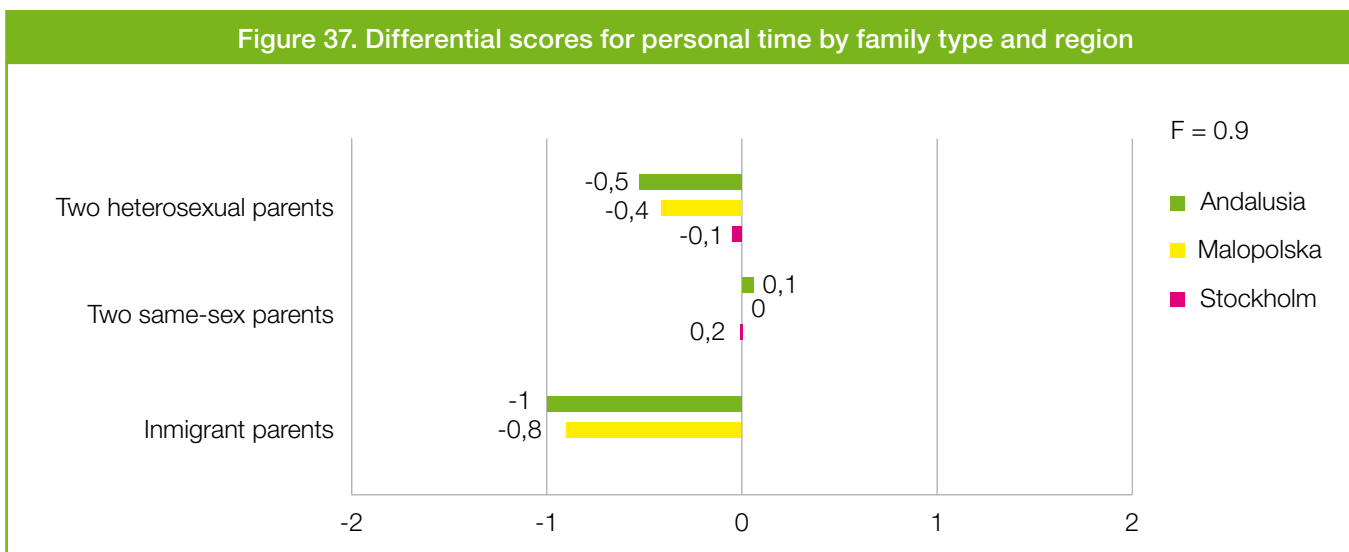
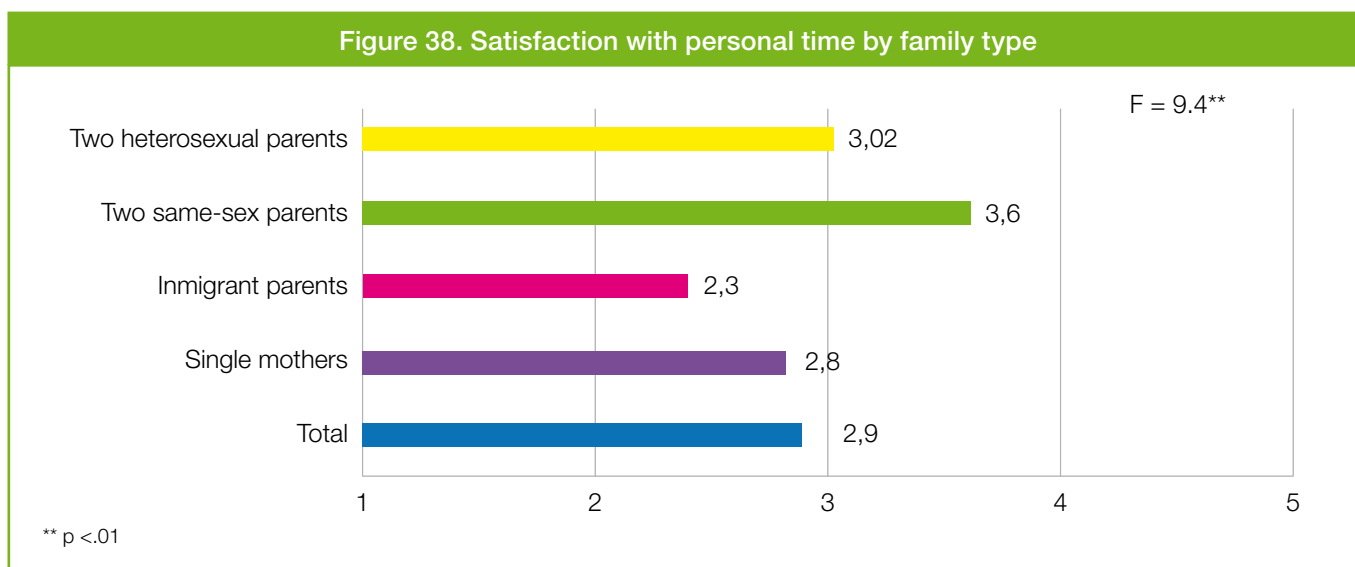


Figure 37. Differential scores for personal time by family type and region



To conclude this section, the level of **satisfaction of the families with their personal time** will be covered. As can be seen in figure 38, the total number of families interviewed expressed an average degree of satisfaction with respect to the recreational time they have. Thus, on the 1 to 5 scale, which goes from less to greater satisfaction, the average score for the families was 2.9. These results are logical when considering that the average amount of personal time is quite low.



As can be seen in figure 38, the information with the average satisfaction based on the type of family indicates that there are significant differences between one and another. These differences were perceptible for the higher level of satisfaction of gay/lesbian families when compared with the rest of the families. In the case of single mothers, they have a significant lower level of satisfaction with their personal time than the gay/lesbian families, but they were not different in this aspect from the other two groups of families. Moreover, there were significant differences between the lower level of satisfaction of immigrant families with respect to heterosexual and gay/lesbian families.

The data about satisfaction with personal and recreational time also shows significant differences based on the type of region, as can be seen in figure 39. These differences arise from the greater satisfaction with the

availability of personal and recreational time that the families from Stockholm have with respect to those from Andalusia and Malopolska, which is logical data if considering that they have more available time.

Figure 39. Satisfaction with personal time by region

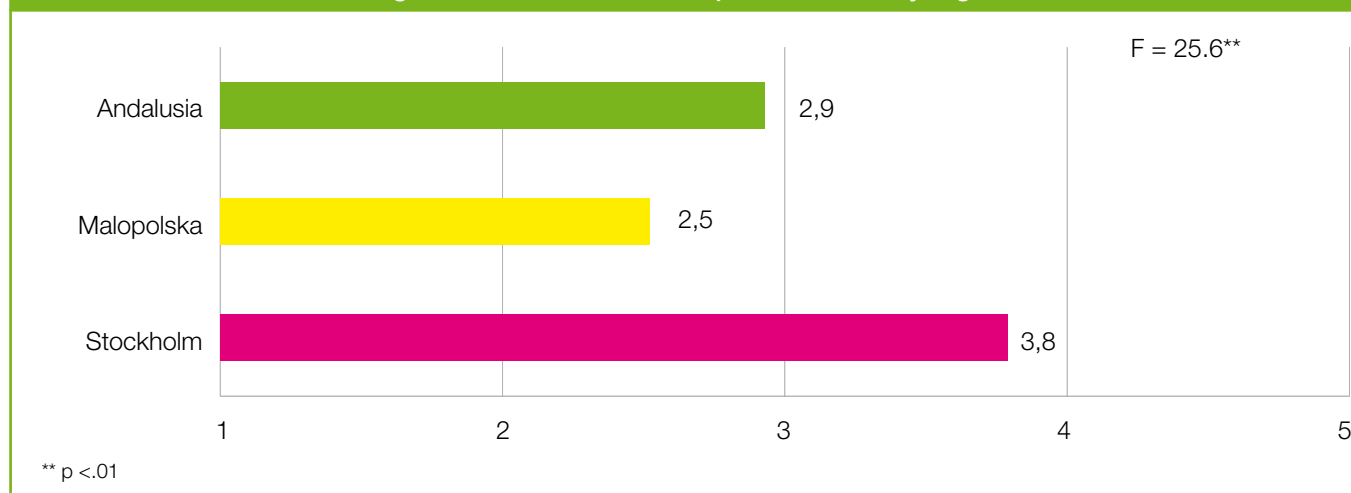
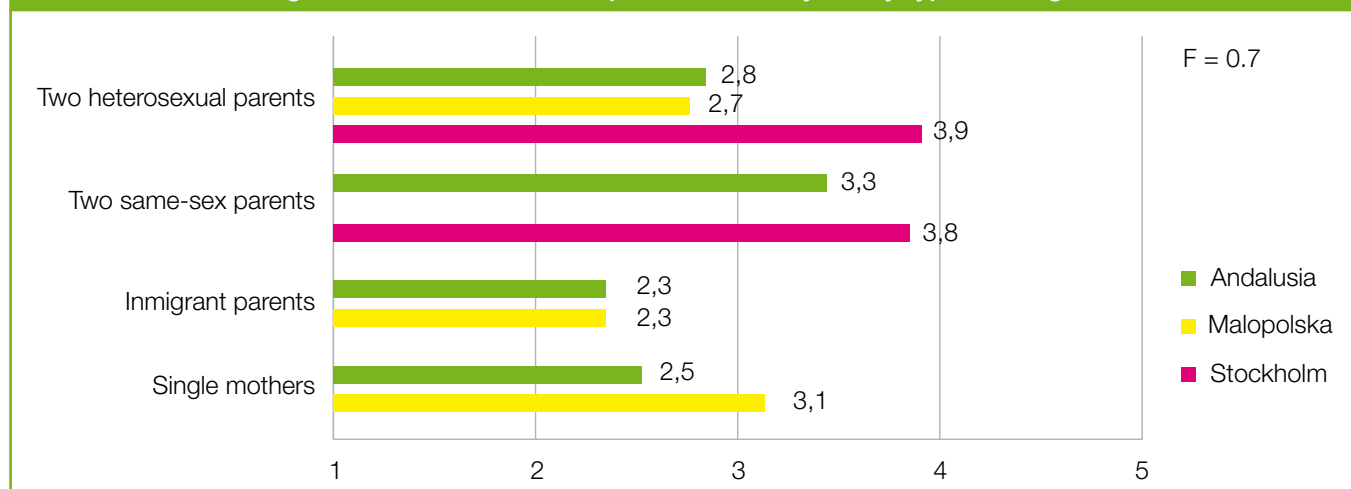


Figure 40. Satisfaction with personal time by family type and regions

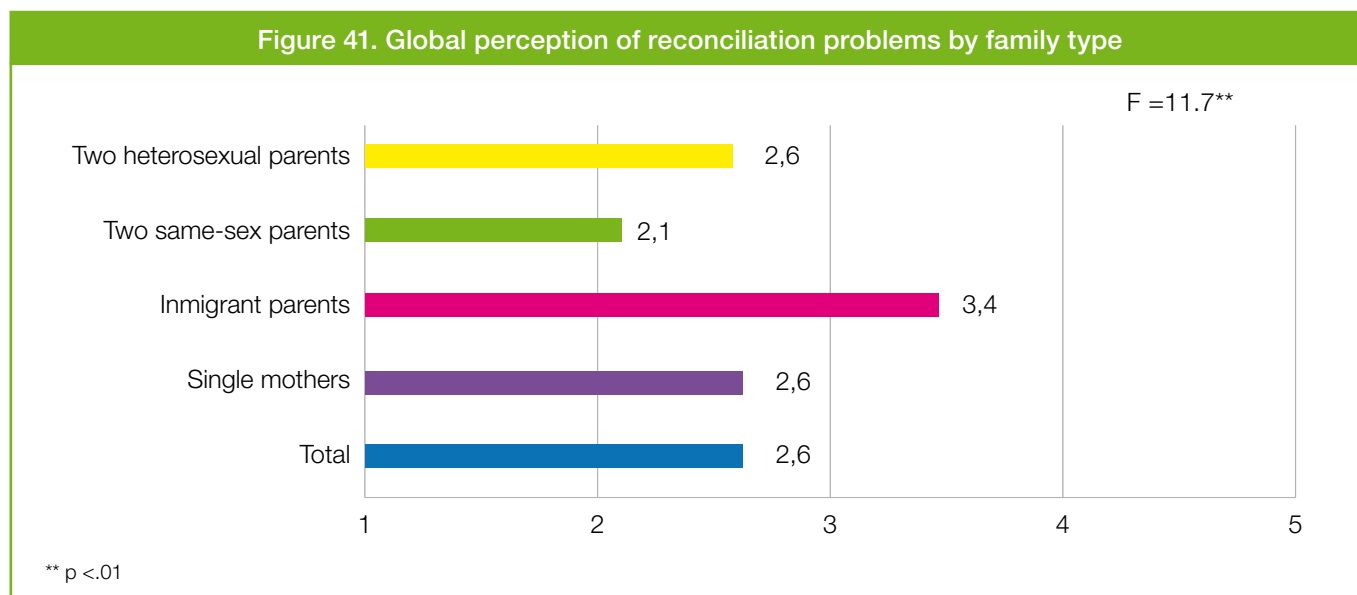


Congruent with the results obtained when cross-referencing personal time (differential scores) based on the type of family and region, there were also significant differences in the satisfaction with personal time when the joint influence of the family type and the region was analysed. This can be observed in figure 40 and is congruent with the data obtained with the differential score in personal time.

4.2.7. General remarks about reconciliation

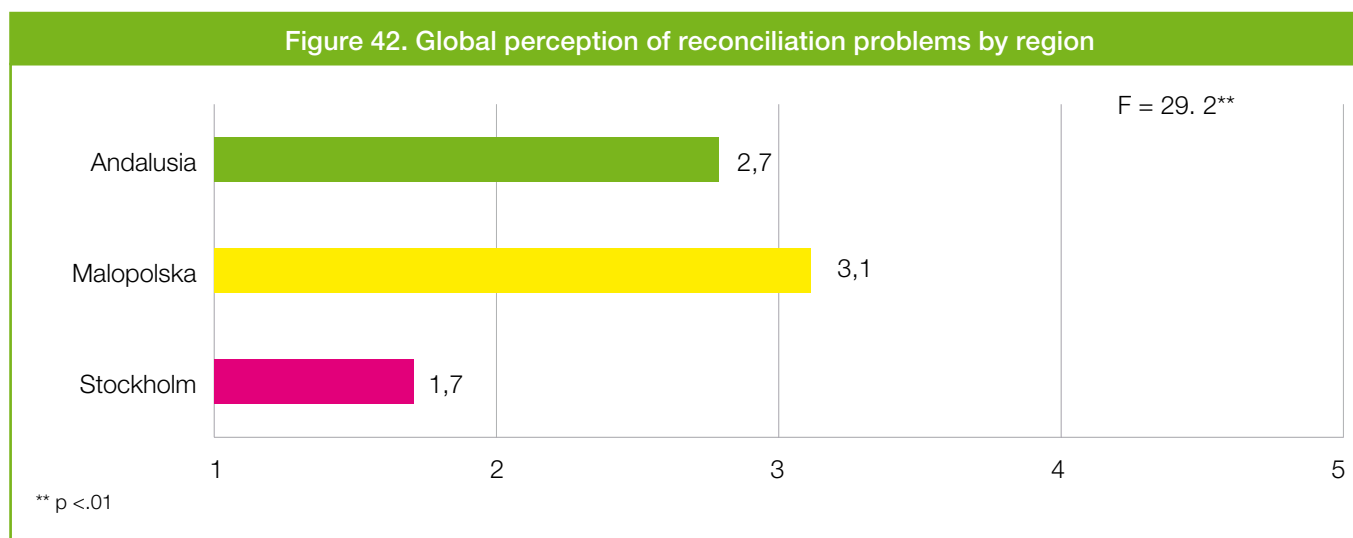
After having analyzed the main aspects relative to family reconciliation of family, personal and career life, it is interesting to note the broad perception that families have of their reconciliation problems. Moreover, they were asked to note their main problems, and above all, to offer suggestions in terms of measures to improve their situation.

To start with, the **perception of the actual families about their problems of reconciliation** will be reviewed. As shown in figure 41, the average obtained (2.6) on the scale from “1: I have no problems to reconcile” to “5: I frequently have problems,” indicates that the families interviewed have a medium-low perception of reconciliation problems.

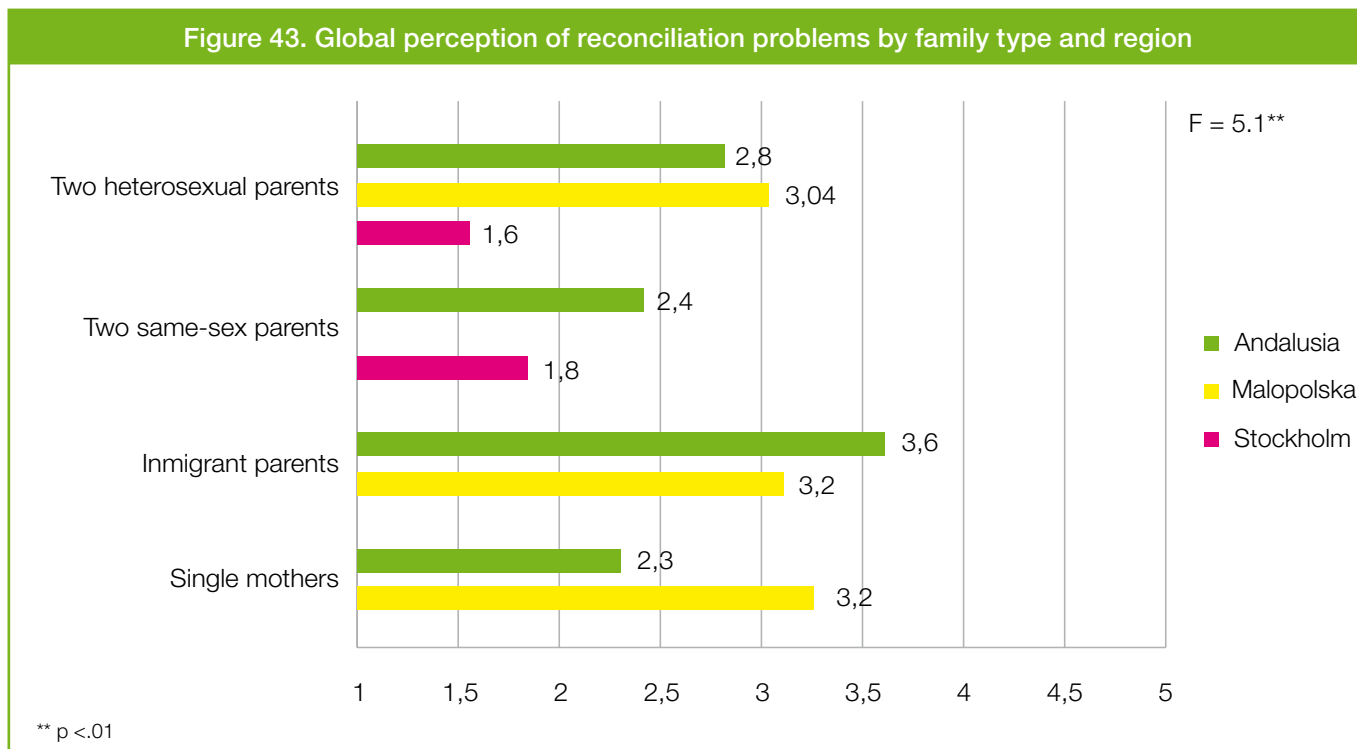


If this variable is also analysed—based on the family type—figure 41 shows that there are significant differences. These differences were frequently denoted by a greater perception of reconciliation problems that immigrant families had in comparison with all other families and a lesser perception of reconciliation problems in gay/lesbian families. There were no statistical differences between the average perception of single mothers and heterosexual families.

The information for the perception of reconciliation problems also shows significant differences based on the region, as shown in figure 42. These differences were due to the greater perception of problems that families from Malopolska see with respect to families from Andalusia and those of Stockholm, who perceive reconciliation problems to a much lesser extent, generically speaking.



There were significant differences when analyzing the information for this variable, taking into consideration jointly the region and the type of family, as can be seen in figure 43. To understand these differences, how this variable behaves for each region depending on the type of family, was explored. In this sense, the differences were denoted by the following aspects: while in Malopolska and Stockholm there were no significant differences between one family type and another, in Andalusia there were clear differences, denoted by the greater perception of reconciliation problems that immigrant families had with respect to gay/lesbian, heterosexual and single mother families.



More than the generic perception of the problems, **specific reconciliation problems** that the families mentioned spontaneously will be covered in this section. The dynamics of the analysis followed to date has changed, as it is believed that this section is more interesting in the light of the conclusions and recommendations. First, the most frequent problems found in the total sample were studied, and later, the five most frequent problems of the families in each region. In this particular case, the differences based on the family type were studied in depth, as it seemed extremely relevant for the recommendations.

As observed in table 47, *lack of personal time* is the most referred to problem by the interviewees, followed by *incompatibility of work hours to care for the children*, and *the sensation of being overwhelmed by the task*. This same table indicates, in order of frequency, the rest of the problems referred to by the families interviewed.

Table 47. Main reconciliation problems

	%
Lack of personal time	44.9
Incompatibility of work hours with school hours	33.2
Sense of being overwhelmed	31.4
Lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, summer and other school holidays.	30.6
Lack of family support network	18.1
Lack of co-responsibility from partner	12.5
High costs of care resources	12.5
Distance home-workplace-school	12.9

The five most frequent problems per region are stated in tables 48 (Andalusia), 49 (Malopolska) and 50 (Stockholm). As can be seen, and following the logic of the generic information, the main problem in the three regions, individually, continues to be a *lack of personal time*. The second of these problems, in the case of Andalusia, corresponds to *lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, the summer and other school holidays*, followed by *incompatibility of work hours to care for the children*. In the case of Malopolska, as shown in table 49, the second problem is the *sensation of being overwhelmed* and the third is *lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, the summer and other school holidays*.

Table 48. Main reconciliation problems by region (Andalusia)

	Andalusia %
Lack of personal time	33.5
Lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, the summer and other school holidays	32.3
Incompatibility of work hours with school hours	31.7
Sense of being overwhelmed	22.6
Lack of family support network	12.8
Lack of co-responsibility from partner	12.8

Table 49. Main reconciliation problems by region (Malopolska)

	Malopolska %
Lack of personal time	63.6
Sense of being overwhelmed	48.5
Lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, the summer and other school holidays	42.4
Incompatibility of work hours with school hours	34.3
Lack of a family support network	28.3

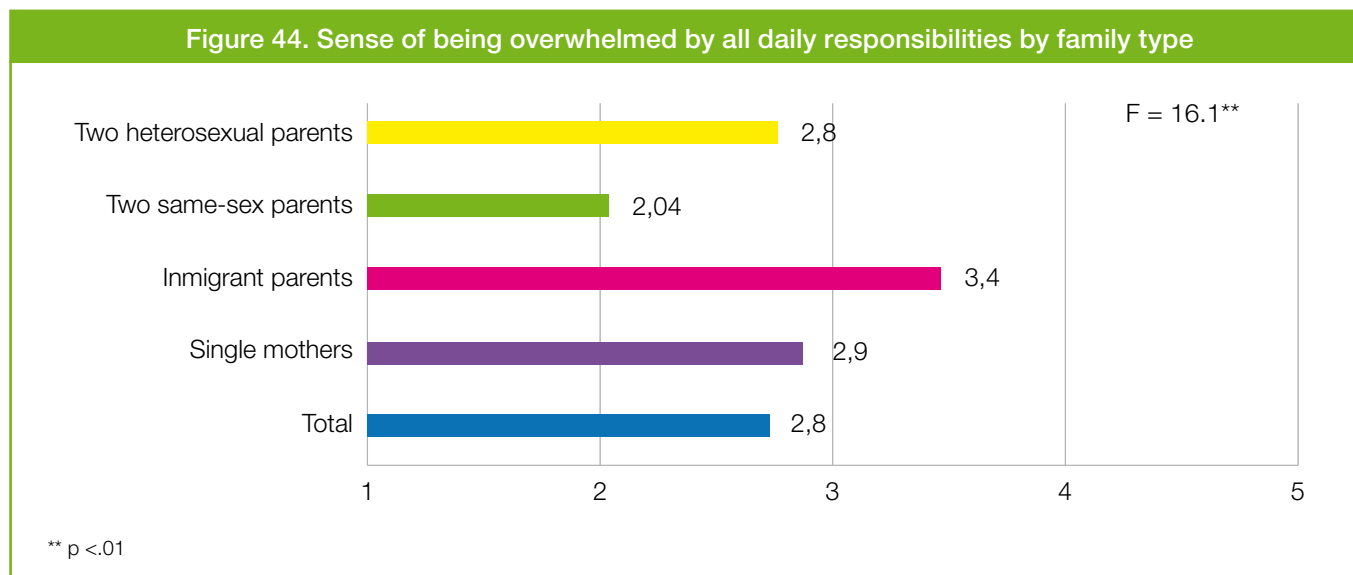
Lastly, in the case of Stockholm, and considering the very low percentage of families that mentioned some type of reconciliation problems, these were the *incompatibility of work hours, lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, the summer and other school holidays and sense of being overwhelmed*.

Table 50. Main reconciliation problems by region (Stockholm)

	Stockholm %
Lack of personal time	16.42
Lack of care resources for children during extraordinary situations, the summer and other school holidays	9
Sense of being overwhelmed	7.5
Distance home-workplace-school	7.5
Lack of a family support network	4.5

In the interview, a question was included to measure the **sensation of being overwhelmed**. This question was especially interesting as one of the problems mentioned by the families in all three countries is precisely *the sensation of being overwhelmed* with daily responsibilities.

The interviewee must place him/herself, thinking about facing daily responsibilities, on a scale that went from “1: without difficulties, relaxed” to “5: With many difficulties, overwhelmed”. The results, as expressed in figure 44, show that the families interviewed have an average perception of being overwhelmed as shown by an average score of 2.8.



Considering the differences based on family type, it will be seen that there are significant differences in the sensation of being overwhelmed (figure 44). As expected, these differences were strongly denoted by a greater sensation of feeling overwhelmed in the case of immigrant families over other families and a lesser sensation of being overwhelmed in the case of gay/lesbian families.

The results of the comparisons by regions show that there are also significant differences between these, as can be seen in figure 45. These differences were due to a lesser sensation of being overwhelmed shown by families from Stockholm in comparison with families from Andalusia and from Malopolska.

When jointly considering family types and regions, in terms of the sensation of feeling overwhelmed, no significant differences were found among the three regions when considering the types of families (figure 46).

Figure 45. Sense of being overwhelmed by all daily responsibilities by region

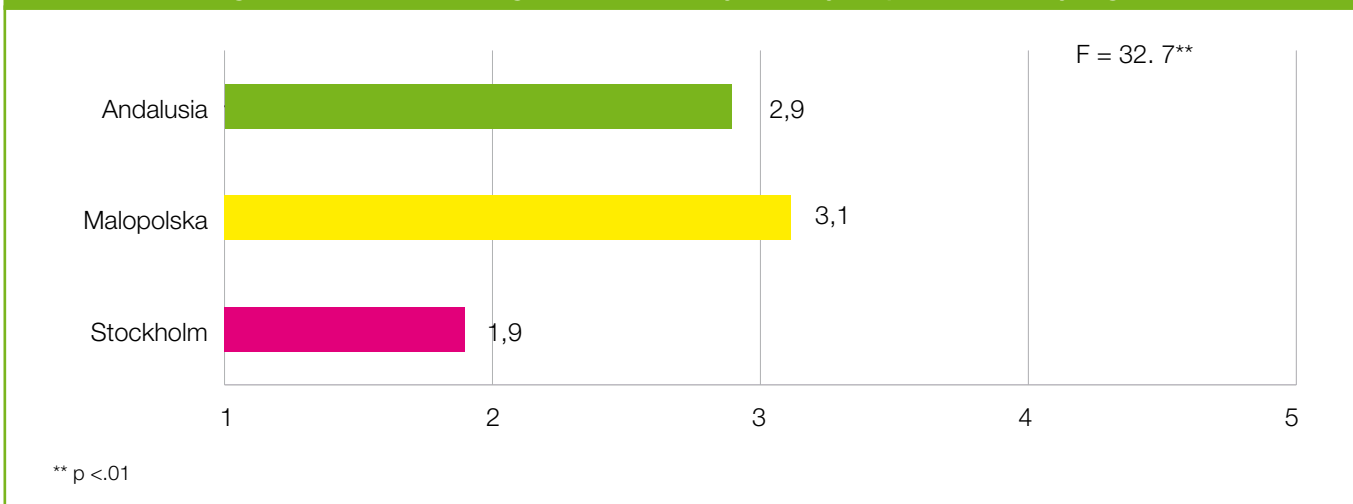
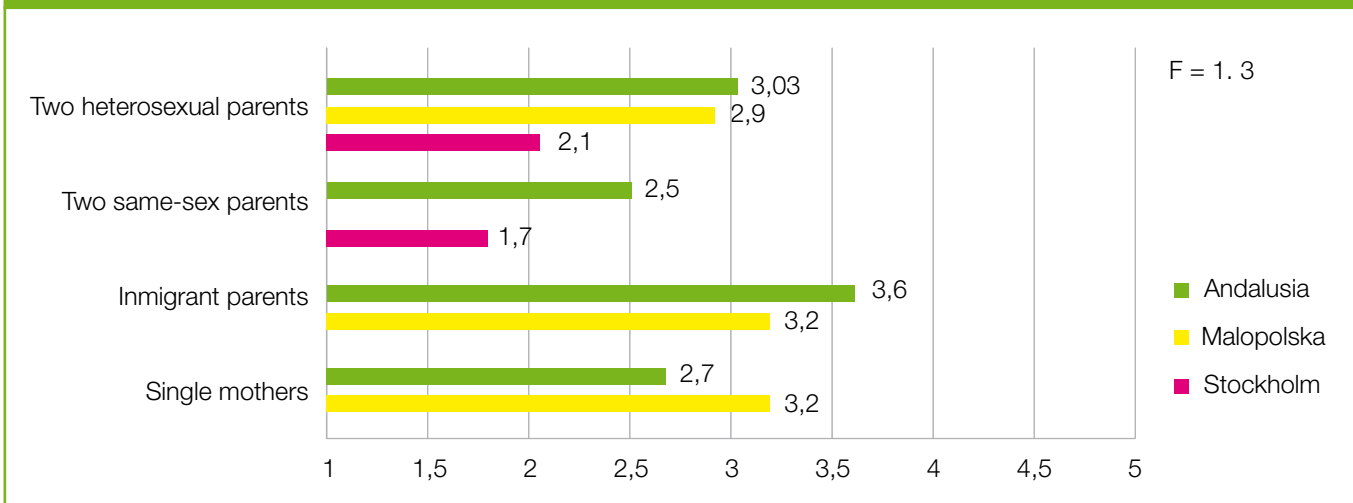


Figure 46. Sense of being overwhelmed by all daily responsibilities by family type and region



With respect to the **reconciliation measures** proposed by the families interviewed, first of all, the most frequently proposed measures by the entire sample are reviewed. Later, the five most frequently seen measures in families in each region are listed.

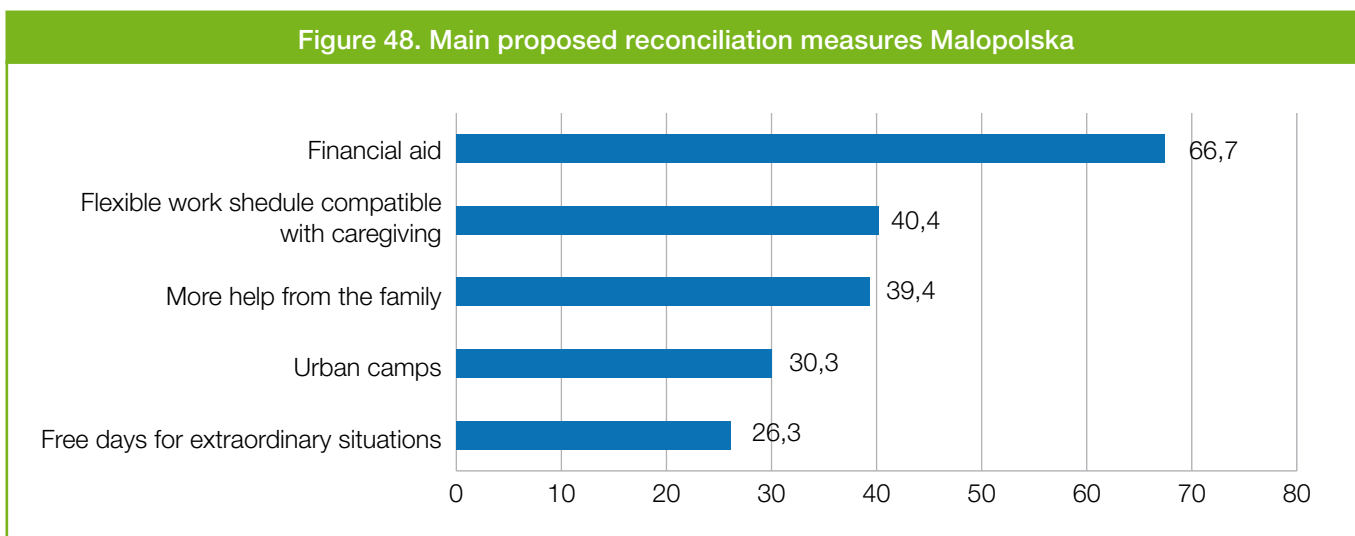
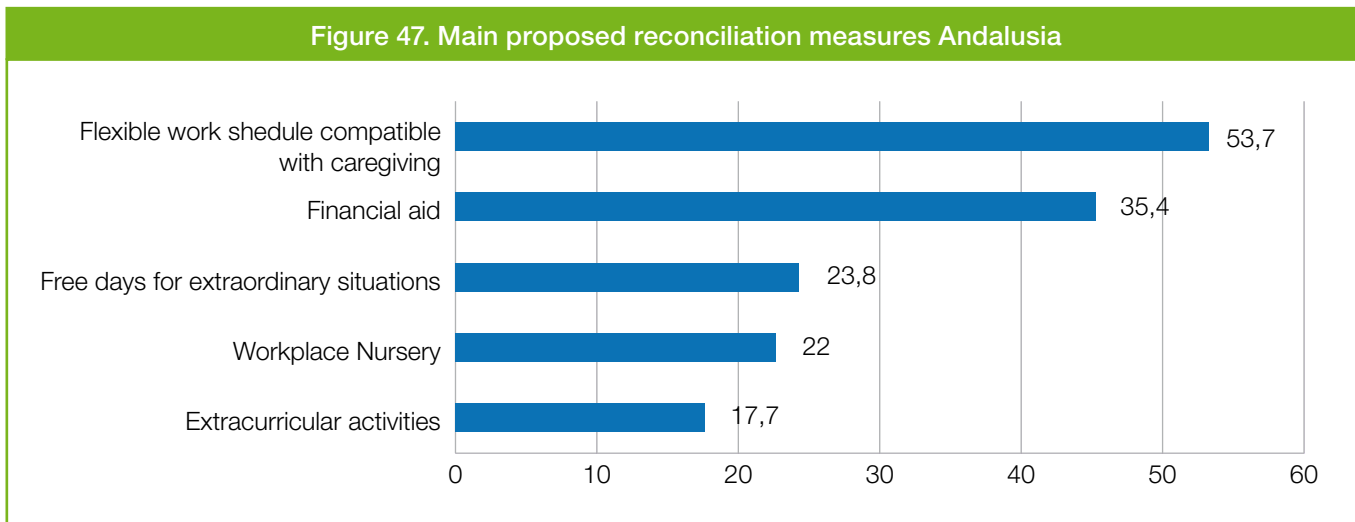
Table 51 offers all the measures, organized from greater to lesser frequency. As can be observed, more than half of the sample proposes having *a flexible work schedule that was compatible with the tasks of caring for family*. Secondly, the families suggested that there be more financial aid. Thirdly, the measures proposed having *days off for extraordinary situations to care for the family*.

Table 51. Main proposed reconciliation measures

	%
Flexible work schedule compatible with care giving	51.2
Financial aid	39.3
Free days for extraordinary situations	25.6
Part- time work	18.6
Extracurricular activities	19.8
More help from the family	18.6
Workplace Nursery	15.5
Extending paternity/maternity leave	14.3
Teleworking	14

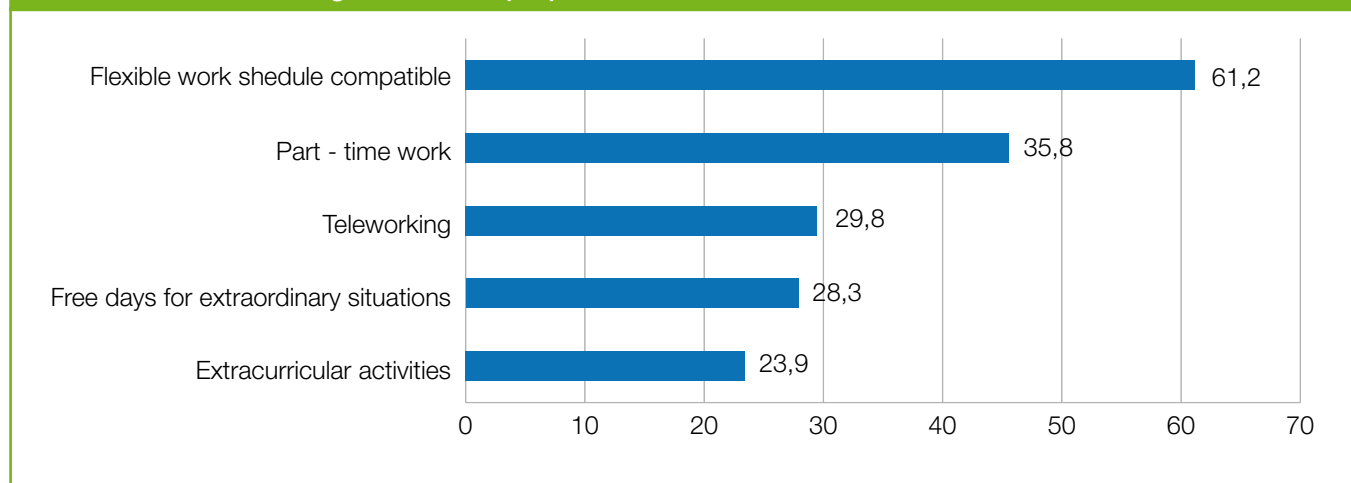
The five most frequent measures per region are presented in figures 47 (Andalusia), 48 (Malopolska) and 49 (Stockholm). As can be seen, in the case of Andalusia, the measure proposed by more than half of the sample was to have *a flexible work schedule compatible with the task of caring for the family*. Secondly, the families from Andalusia proposed having *more economic aid* and thirdly, they requested *days off for special situations*.

In the case of Malopolska, as can be seen in figure 48, more than half of the families proposed *more economic aid*. Secondly, the measure sought was *a flexible work schedule that is compatible with the task of caring for the family* and thirdly, *more help on behalf of the family*.



Lastly, in the case of Stockholm, the three most frequently proposed measures, in order of frequency were: *a flexible work schedule that is compatible with the task of caring for the family, part time work and tele-work.*

Figure 49. Main proposed reconciliation measures Stockholm

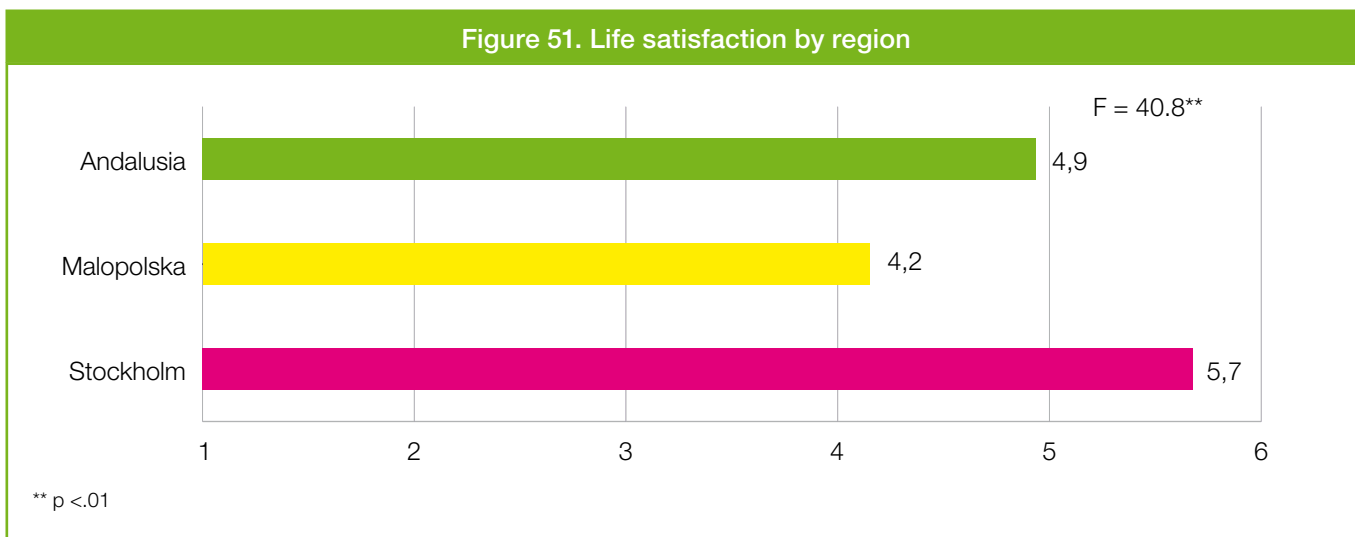
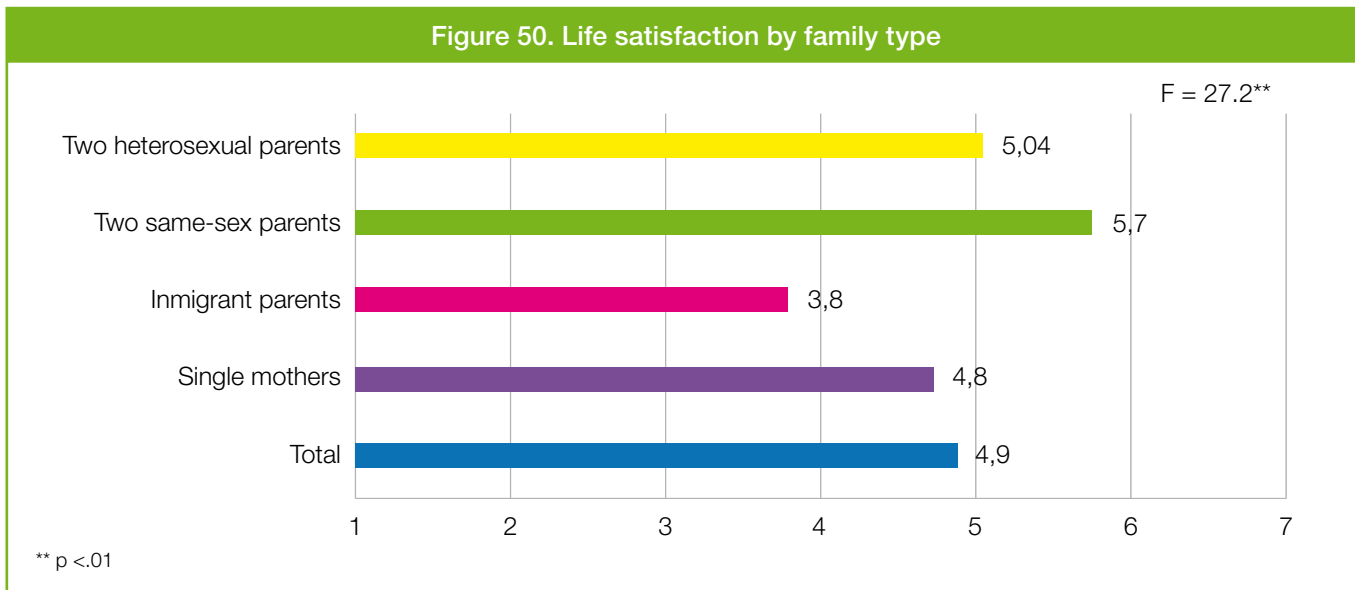


4.2.8. Life satisfaction and its relationship with reconciliation

One of the objectives of this study is linked to the effect that difficulties with reconciliation resources had on the well-being of the family. With this in mind, as stated, a life satisfaction measure was taken using the *Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)*, which was related to the rest of the assessment measures for reconciliation that have been mentioned throughout this section of the results.

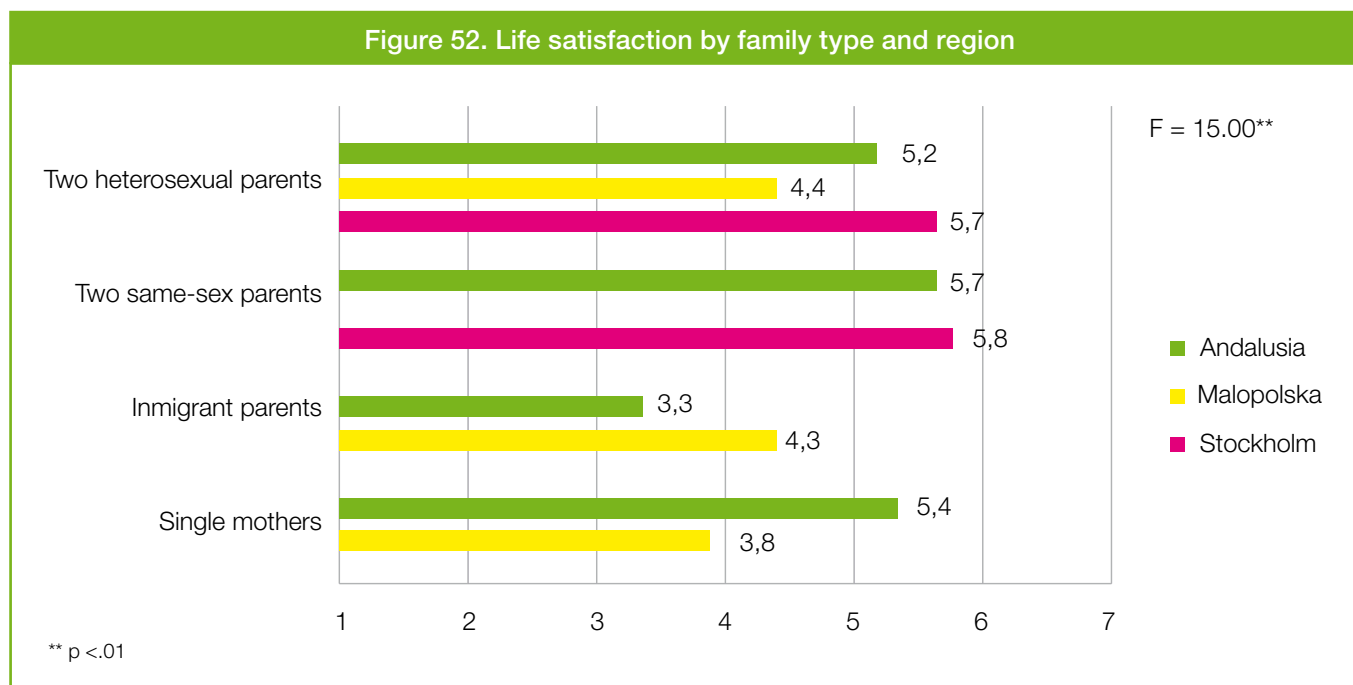
The general results show, as seen in figure 50, that the families interviewed have a general average of 4.9, (using a scale of “1” to “7”), in which case, it can be said that that they have a medium to high level of satisfaction.

If comparisons by family types were made, as seen in figure 50, there were significant differences in their life satisfaction level. Once again, these differences were strongly marked by the low level of life satisfaction shown by immigrant families in comparison with the rest of the families. Moreover, gay/lesbian families showed a higher level of life satisfaction than the rest of the families. There were no differences, however, between the life satisfaction of heterosexual married mothers and single mother families.



The information about life satisfaction also shows significant differences depending on the region, as seen in figure 51. These differences were due to the greater satisfaction shown by families from Stockholm, followed by those from Andalusia and Malopolska, with significant differences among the scores of the families from the three regions.

When analysing the data for this variable, considering jointly the region and family type, there were significant differences as can be seen in figure 52. As shown, in Malopolska, the significant differences were denoted by a lower level of life satisfaction by single mothers when compared to heterosexual families. In Stockholm, there were no differences between the two types of families studied in terms of level of life satisfaction. Lastly, in Andalusia, the differences appeared again due to a lower level of life satisfaction of immigrant families when compared with the other families studied.



The study also sought to answer if the life satisfaction level shown by the interviewees was linked to the assessment they had made throughout the interview for the various aspects related to reconciliation: perception of difficulties when caring for children; work-related stress; satisfaction with resources to care for children; satisfaction with the distribution of domestic chores and satisfaction with personal and recreational time. To see whether or not there was a relationship among these variables, a correlation matrix was created. These results are shown on table 52.

Table 52. Correlations between life satisfaction and several reconciliation measures						
	Perception of children care difficulties	Work-related Stress	Children Care Resources Satisfaction	Company Reconciliation Measures Satisfaction	Distribution of Domestic Chores Satisfaction	Personal Time Satisfaction
Satisfaction with Life	-0.49**	-0.31**	0.44**	0.38**	0.51**	0.48**

** p <.01

As shown in table 52, the life satisfaction score negatively correlated with the perception of difficulty in caring for the children and with work-related stress. These results imply that the life satisfaction perceived by the interviewees decreased when the families perceive more difficulties when it came to facing the care of children and when there was greater work-related stress.

On the contrary, life satisfaction increased when there was greater satisfaction with the resources for child care, with the reconciliation measures provided by employers, with the distribution of domestic chores and with personal or recreational time.

A multiple lineal regression analysis was performed with most of these variables over the life satisfaction perceived as the dependent variable. In the initial analyses, the variable *satisfaction with the distribution of domestic chores* was not included because the entire sample was included and this variable would exclude the single mother families. Regression analysis informs of the joint influence of several independent variables over the dependent variable. These analyses also informed about the degree to which each independent variable determined the variation in the level of life satisfaction (dependent variable), following step-wise procedures.

The program excluded the work-related stress from the equation and included the following variables in the equation in the following order in four steps: satisfaction with personal or recreational time, satisfaction with child care resources, difficulties in caring for the children and satisfaction with the reconciliation measures offered by the employer. Table 53 shows the determination coefficient (R square), which indicates that when taken together, the four independent variables included in the analysis explain a 46% variance of the dependent variable for “life satisfaction”. The regression model was statistically highly significant [$F(4,287)= 62,65^{**}$], as was the relationship between each predictable variable and the independent variable (*value t*). Upon looking at the sign of the Beta value, life satisfaction increased at the same time as the satisfaction with personal time, with child care resources and with on-the-job reconciliation measures and decreased simultaneously as the perceived difficulties caring for the children increased.

Table 53. Regression analysis without the satisfaction with domestic tasks distribution

	Not Standardized Coefficient	β	t-values	R ²	R ² change
(Constant)	3.06		9.14**		
Satisfaction with Personal Time	0.29	0.29	5.88**	0.28	0.28
Satisfaction with Children Care Resources	0.29	0.26	5.64**	0.39	0.10
Perception of Children Care Difficulties	-0.24	-0.23	-4.51**	0.44	0.05
Satisfaction with Company Reconciliation Measures	0.18	0.17	3.60**	0.46	0.02

** p <.01

Due to the high correlation found between life satisfaction and satisfaction with the distribution of domestic chores, it was decided to perform a new regression equation to include all of the above, but also adding this latter variable as independent. In this case, single mothers could not be included in the analysis. Table 54 shows the indexes of that regression equation.

The regression equation included the following variables, in the following order, in five steps: satisfaction with personal time, satisfaction with child care resources, satisfaction with the distribution of domestic chores, satisfaction with the reconciliation measures offered by the companies and difficulties caring for the children. Once again, the regression equation forsook the variable for work-related stress. As observed in table 53,

the determination coefficient (R square) indicates that taken together, the five independent variables included in the analysis explain 54% of the dependent variable “life satisfaction” variance. The regression model was statistically highly significant [F(5,222)= 52,10**], as well as the relationship between the predictable variable and the independent variable in all cases (*value t*). When looking at the signs for the Beta value, life satisfaction increased at the same time as the satisfaction with personal time, with child care resources, with the distribution of domestic chores and with on-the-job reconciliation measures and decreased in the measure that the perceived difficulties caring for the children increased.

Table 54. Regression analysis including the satisfaction with domestic tasks distribution

	Not Standardized Coefficient	β	t-values	R ²	R ² change
(Constant)	2.26		6**		
Satisfaction with Personal Time	0.15	0.15	2.56*	0.29	0.29
Satisfaction with Children Care Resources	0.24	0.22	4.45**	0.38	0.09
Satisfaction with the Domestic tasks Distribution	0.34	0.28	5.39**	0.46	0.07
Satisfaction with Company Reconciliation Measures	0.23	0.21	4.27**	0.50	0.04
Perception of Children Care Difficulties	-0.23	-0.21	-4.01**	0.54	0.03

* p <.05 ** p <.01

4.3. Conclusions and Discussion

This section--which discusses the data obtained and establishes the conclusions--will revolve around the main objectives proposed at the start of the report. Due to this, reconciliation in the various new family models as drawn from the data has drawn will be discussed, followed by the differences found in reconciliation matters and family diversity among the regions included in the study. This will be followed by how these aspects relate to the psychological well-being perceived by those interviewed.

4.3.1. Native heterosexual families: men are involved in family life, but not equally

This analysis begins with the most traditional of the families in terms of its structure and origin: two parents, heterosexual and from the native population. In these families, nevertheless, both parents worked outside the

home and that fact introduced a substantial change with regards to the patriarchal model. It was expected that this circumstance would close the gap in terms of the roles performed by men and women, not only in their professional life, but also within the scope of family and personal life.

The data indicates that although women continue to perform most domestic chores and child care, there are an ever growing number of men involved in these tasks, as the interviewees stated. This data confirms the results obtained by periodic surveys about how men and women use their time, which indicate that the gap between the amount of time that women and men spend on domestic chores and care is decreasing. In the case of Spain, for example, the data indicates that between 2003 and 2010, the difference in time dedicated to such tasks decreased by 41 minutes in this seven year span (INE, 2010).

Despite these advances, this data shows that the pattern of involvement in family life by men and women is still not equal: the amount of time that men spend on domestic chores and child care continues to be clearly inferior to that the amount spent by the women in these families. These results are coherent with what has been found in other research into the involvement of women and men in domestic chores and child care (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer and Robinson, 2000; Craig, 2006; Meil, 2005; Tobío, 2005). It confirms that although a firm step forward is being taken towards co-responsibility, equality has not yet been reached. It is the opinion of these authors, the differences would be even more noticeable if, rather than measuring “chores” performed by one or the other, the amount of time invested in these chores was measured, because there are some tasks that demand a certain degree of diligence (taking the children to school, for example) while others require a greater investment of time (helping with homework, for example). In fact, the aforementioned survey of time uses (INE, 2010) clearly stated that despite the reduction of the gap in the proven amount of time of time dedicated to household chores, women continued to spend two and a quarter hours more than the men on family and domestic chores daily. An identical differential pattern of temporary dedication of men and women to unpaid work (domestic and care), were found by Gálvez-Muñoz et al. (2011) in their analysis of 15 European countries, including Spain, Poland and Sweden, but with some differences between then that will be approached later.

To have a complete perspective of the reality of reconciliation in these families, it is advisable to introduce other points of view. Among these was that of time spent at work. The data in this study indicates that in these families, men spent significantly more hours at work than their wives and that they were much less likely to work a standard workday. Moreover, this study reveals that only in very exceptional circumstances did men

decide to temporarily giving up work, change jobs or reject a promotion for family reasons. However, based on the careers of their wives, it can be deduced that these women have a greater commitment with reconciliation: shorter working days and in a considerable percentage of cases they temporarily left the workforce, changed jobs or gave up a career promotion to attend to family obligations. Therefore, it was found that in these couples, a high percentage of men had retained a traditional masculine working pattern, even though their wives had entered into the labour market. The wives, however, appear to have opted for a working pattern that is more reconcilable with their family responsibilities.

To complete the picture of reconciliation in these native heterosexual families, when analyzing personal time, it was found that the women interviewed were less likely to enjoy free time than their partners. Therefore, in these families, although a change can be seen with regards to traditional role models, this study can only conclude that the reconciliation efforts are unequal between the two members of the couple. For the most part, it is women who adapt in terms of their dedication or time spent at work. It is women who are more involved in caring for the children and in performing domestic chores and who, to be able to do all the above, give up a large amount of their personal time. The men, however, still maintain a rather traditional pattern in terms of their career dedication and only partially include domestic and care activities in their agenda, while at the same time, retain their personal time. Therefore, it can be concluded, as Craig (2006) stated, that the fact that the women have “masculinized” their work patterns (and we have seen that this is not exactly the case), the consequence of this has not been that the men have “feminized” their care patterns, nor have women “masculinized” theirs. It is understood that “care,” in this case, is not only of the care of others but also for themselves.

In any case, it must be noted that when studying the internal diversity within these families, depending on the region of origin, certainly different reconciliation patterns were found: Swedish heterosexual couples showed a clearly more equal pattern when compared with those of the other two regions studied. In fact, there were hardly any differences between the members of heterosexual couples from Stockholm when it came to performing domestic or care-related activities or in the personal time available, while these differences were notable in Andalusia and Malopolska. Those differential data are coherent with the ones obtained by Gálvez-Muñoz, et al. (2011) in their analysis of the similarities and differences between men and women in their total work (paid and non-paid care work): Swedish members of the heterosexual couples showed less differences between them than Polish and Spanish ones.

4.3.2. Immigrant heterosexual families: the more traditional gender role patterns and less access to reconciliation resources at the work place

As established in the initial format of this study, the analysis of reconciliation within heterosexual immigrant families was carried out with families of foreign origin residing in Andalusia and Malopolska--all these being first generation immigrants. These families were characterized by having the lowest levels of education and working without a contract. This fact that was particularly prominent in the Andalusian sample (almost four out of every ten).

In these families, traditional patterns were found in terms of household chores undertaken women. Undoubtedly, in these families, there were reconciliation tensions, which were suffered almost exclusively by the women. It was the women who undertook most of the child care tasks; in this case, the data were comparable to those of single mothers. In other words, they take as much responsibility for the care of their children as do those who do not have a partner; it is as if this was a task for which they were sole responsible. Therefore, it is not surprising that these women perceive the most difficulties when it comes to the task of child care or that in this perception is closer to that of single mothers than of mothers with a partner.

In these families, a similar pattern was found in the allotment of household tasks: the couples are less equalitarian as they showed a less balanced distribution of tasks. Moreover, it must be remembered that the measurement of the domestic tasks in this study did not take into account whether the time and effort spent on each task was the same one or not, but rather whether, at any time during the week, the said chore was performed by each person. If the measurement in this study had been sensitive to those other parameters, the differences may have been even greater in these families. It is quite understandable that it is the mothers who show less satisfaction with the allotment of household tasks within the couple.

It must be added, along these same lines, that it was also in these families that were found to have the greatest difference in the personal time available to both partners. Immigrant mothers not only stated that they had less personal time than other mothers interviewed, but also, they perceived more difference between the personal time available to them and the amount of time available to their partners. It is not surprising, therefore, that they were also the most unsatisfied in this regard.

Out of the entire sample, it was the immigrant mothers interviewed who were the more likely to have left the workforce at a given point in their lives to take care of their children, or who, for those same reasons, changed

jobs or forsook a possible career promotion. The percentage in which their partners used these same strategies was, however, insignificant.

These deeply patriarchal patterns for the distribution of responsibilities and the time dedicated to these tasks in the immigrant couples are possibly related to those patterns found in the societies and cultures where these immigrant families originated. It could be that at this level, what happens coincides with what has already been verified in the case of fertility patterns in immigrant women, who straddle the fence between their countries of origin and the countries where they are living (Monllor & Gómez, 2004; Toulemon, 2004).

Another particularly relevant aspect with regards to the life of immigrant families is related to the resources they use for reconciliation. Starting with resources provided at their place of work, these mothers state that they have less possibility to take advantage of measures such as flexible working hours, extended maternity leave, leave of absence or reduced hours for breast feeding; therefore, they use these resources less. It is more than probable that this fact should be directly linked to the fact that these women have more precarious labor conditions. It must be remembered that a high percentage of immigrant mothers work without a contract. This was particularly true in the Andalusian sample; consequently, they lacked the benefits associated with a legal contract, including aspects that facilitate reconciliation. It is not surprising that these same women expressed less satisfaction with the resources provided by the firm where they worked and stated that they experience more stress at work.

Based on the information provided in this section, no-one would find it unusual that the immigrant mothers interviewed were those who stated they had more problems with reconciliation, they felt more overwhelmed by their daily responsibilities and they were less satisfied with life. It must be added that the immigrant families interviewed showed virtually no differences in their reconciliation patterns when comparing residents in Andalusia and in Malopolska. It is a shame that there is no comparable data from Stockholm, which would have allowed a more complete picture of the reconciliation patterns to be drawn. The data contributed by the Swedish regional report, with regards to second and third generation immigrant families, clearly shows that these immigrant families have taken on the equalitarian patterns of the native population, which is a positive sign of hope.

4.3.3. Two same-sex parent families: reconciliation from a joint responsibility of the couple

This project studied same-sex parent families in the regions of Stockholm and Andalusia. If one aspect characterized homosexual families in both regions, it was the co-responsibility with which both members

of the couple accepted the tasks and tensions of reconciliation in terms of their professional, family and personal lives.

As seen throughout the results, it was these families who presented a more equal pattern when it came to caring for the children, both on a daily basis, as well as in extraordinary situations. It is therefore not surprising that it is these couples who perceived fewer problems in the tasks of child care. In the same way, these families presented less difference in the number of domestic tasks carried out by each member of the couple and, due to all of this fact, these families demonstrated the greatest satisfaction with the allotment of household tasks.

It was a similar scenario when it came to how they enjoyed their free time. Members of homosexual couples stated that they enjoyed more time for themselves, in comparison with all other participants interviewed. Also in this regard, these couples were the most equalitarian, since they were the only ones who enjoyed an equal amount of free time. Due to all of this, it was the homosexuals interviewed--almost all lesbian mothers--who were by far more satisfied with the personal time available to them.

Homosexual families were not only equalitarian in their family and personal spheres, but it was more probability that they would also be in the career sphere. Thus, these couples dedicated a similar number of hours to their careers, which implied that their partners worked significantly less hours that their heterosexual counterparts. In the same way, they carried out reconciliation strategies related with their working environment in more equal manner: these were the families in which it was more probable than measures had been taken by both members of the couple, such as having given up a promotion or having left the workforce temporarily for reasons of family reconciliation. Remember that in heterosexual families, it was more probable than these measures had been taken by the women, but not by their male partner.

In another aspect related to reconciliation within the labor environment that differentiates homosexual families from the other participants was that these were most likely to have adopted reconciliation measures in their place of work, which could be reduced working hours, either by working part time, by a reduction of hours following maternity or even by the enjoying leave of absence. The data in this study fails to inform whether these strategies were assumed by one or another member of the couple. However, the remaining measurements lead the authors to believe that they were more than likely to be carried out by both.

Based on the above, it is not unexpected that the homosexual parents interviewed stated that they had fewer reconciliation problems, felt less overwhelmed by all the responsibilities that they had and showed a higher rate of satisfaction with life than any other group.

The data obtained is coherent with existing scientific literature about the shared responsibility in domestic tasks and child care in homosexual couples with children. In those other studies, carried out in the United States, Holland and Spain, it was also found that gay or lesbian couples presented very egalitarian patterns with regards to household tasks and child care (Bos et al. 2007; Chan, et al., 1998; Ciano-Boyce & Shelley-Sireci, 2002; González, Chacón, Gómez, Sánchez, & Morcillo, 2003), as well as in their contribution to the maintenance of the family (Fulcher, Sutfin, & Patterson, 2008). In the same way, results have also been found that confirm the greater satisfaction shown by lesbian mothers when compared with heterosexual mothers, when it comes to the allotment between the couple of domestic chores and child care, as well as with the role performed by their partner as “co-mother or co-father” (Bos, van Balen, & van den Boom, 2004; Patterson, 1995, 2002).

The authors would like to add a final comment along the lines of the internal comparison between Swedish and Spanish homosexual families. There were no differences for the measurements regarding the distribution of the household tasks, child care or personal time. Nor was there any difference with regards to their perception of life satisfaction, which was very high in both cases. Therefore, it would seem that homosexual families are the group of participants who have the most similarities of the various groups studied in countries that are so geographically and culturally distant as is the case of Sweden and Spain.

4.3.4. Single mother families: reconciliation through a greater use of resources

Single mothers, whose difficulties and reconciliation strategies have been analyzed in this report, were interviewed in Malopolska and Andalusia. As was stated earlier, they all lived alone with their children, although there were differences in other socio-demographical characteristics: single mothers from Andalusia were older and had higher educational and economic levels. These differences were very possibly associated with the different circumstances under which they achieved maternity: in the case of the Andalusians, all were single mothers by choice (adoption, assisted reproduction). There is no prior data regarding the degree of decision that accompanied the single maternity of the Polish mothers interviewed.

As seen in the previous chapter, single mothers are most likely to seek the help of family or institutional resources to take on the tasks of child care, both in day to day situations and in extraordinary situations. The support of the relatives was particularly important in Malopolska, while the institutions played a unique role in Andalusia. In both cases, the fact that these mothers were solely responsible for their children meant that they themselves had to perform more care-related tasks than the mothers with a partner, although, as seen,

they did not differ in this respect from heterosexual immigrant mothers. Nor did they differ from these or native heterosexual mothers in their perception of the difficulties associated with child care; however, they did perceive more problems than lesbian mothers or gay fathers who, as stated, received more support from their partners.

These mothers said they made more use of the child care resources made available by institutions. Thus, their children went, significantly more frequently, to morning classes, it was more probable that they ate at school and also more probable that they attended extra-scholar activities and urban camps than the children of the other families studied. It seems clear that these mothers had learned how to seek out and effectively handle the formal care resources as a reconciliation strategy that is particularly useful and necessary when you have no other means to share the task.

These mothers found it more difficult to use some of the reconciliation measures offered at their workplace. Obviously, these mothers were less likely to use such strategies in which the working hours were reduced, which went hand-in-hand with reduced income. Since they are the only breadwinners, it was much more difficult for them to be able to make use of measures such as a reduced work schedule or request a leave of absence. Nevertheless, they made the most use of other measures (such as days off for family necessities), which does not involve a reduction in income and when forced to resolve unexpected family situations (for example, their children's illnesses, medical appointments, school appointments).

The introduction of this report stated that there was not much previous data about reconciliation in single mother families, but the available data agrees with what this study found. Thus, this data confirms that single mothers are skilled managers of care resources, habitually by means of the combination of formal and informal care, as had been found in previous studies (González et al. 2008; Hertz & Ferguson, 1998; Jiménez et al., 2005; Tobío, 2005).

The fact that family resources were more relevant in Malopolska, while the formal resources had a greater presence in Andalusia, could have, in the opinion of these authors, two complementary explanations. On the one hand, this could be related to the different institutional child care support, broader in Andalusia than in Malopolska, as seen in the initial chapter. On the other, it could possibly also be related to the differences in educational and economic level between one group of mothers and the other. As Hertz & Ferguson (1998) found, it is more probable that mothers with less economic resources will resort to their informal support networks (family, friends), which are more economically affordable, to resolve reconciliation tensions.

It is possible that the differences found between mothers from one region and the other in their perception of having to confront reconciliation problems or being overwhelmed by the daily tasks is related to this different access to formal care resources: single Polish mothers were comparable with immigrants in these evaluations, while in Andalusia, they obtained considerably lower scores in these measurements, comparable with those presented by the lesbian mothers or gay fathers interviewed. A symmetrical pattern was obtained when the life satisfaction of the single mothers was evaluated, clearly and significantly less in the single mothers from Malopolska than in those from Andalusia. It would certainly have been extremely interesting to have had comparable data for single mothers from the region of Stockholm, because this would have provided very valuable information about how they resolve their reconciliation tensions, along with the use that they make of the resources made available by the institutions, and their global evaluation of these tasks.

4.3.5. Reconciliation in Malopolska: Limited resources, little co-responsibility within the couple and low satisfaction.

This region showed the least equal patterns with regards to co-responsibility when caring for the children and performing household tasks, since they were the families with greater difference found between the involvement of mothers and fathers in those tasks. Therefore, no-one should be surprised that this is the region where the interviewees perceived greater difficulties in attending to the children and who were less satisfied with the allotment of domestic shores. It must be stated that although the scores obtained for the aforementioned indexes were the lowest, they only differed systematically from those obtained in the Swedish sample; however, only on some occasions did they differ significantly from the Andalusians. The results with regards to enjoyment of personal time were very similar: it was the Polish mothers who said they had less time for themselves and who stated that within their couples there was a greater difference between both members in the enjoyment of personal time, while in this latter they only differed from the Swedish couples.

These families were also the least satisfied with the resources that companies provide to facilitate reconciliation. Polish families, in a larger number of cases, recognize their impossibility of accessing these resources and therefore, in absolute terms, they least used resources such as flexible hours, a reduction of hours for breast feeding, the extension of the maternity leave or workplace nurseries. Hence, their dissatisfaction is more than understandable. It was these women, however, who make more use of requesting unpaid days off to take care of family needs.

These were also the least satisfied with the institutional resources for child care, although this dissatisfaction does not exactly correspond to a smaller percentage of their use. Certainly, the number of children making use of the school dining room in Malopolska was significantly lower, but there was also a larger number of children in this region that attend morning classes and there were no differences in the use of the other two resources analyzed. It is very possible that this negative assessment of the child care resources was not linked so much to the resources that can be used at the time when the interview took place, but also to their previous experience. Remember that the children of these families were, on average, older (6 years). The Polish families could also be showing their dissatisfaction with the public child care resources for earlier ages, which are very scarce, as seen in the introduction. It is quite possible that due to this, the Polish families, at least in those first years, had to appeal to private resources that are expensive, or to the support of relatives.

In fact, using the support of relatives was revealed as one of the most characteristic and unique aspects of the ways in which the Polish families resolved reconciliation conflicts. This was the region where families appealed, on more occasions, to grandmothers and other relatives to help them in child care tasks, both on a day to day basis as well as in extraordinary circumstances. This role was particularly relevant in the case of the single mothers.

It is therefore not surprising that this is the region where families have a smaller number of children (1.2 per family). This fact coincides with the information collected by the European Alliance for Families (2011b) and that places it below the European average. The case of Poland exemplifies the idea expressed by Inés Alberdi (1998) and that this study mentioned in the introduction of this report, about the fact that women decide to reduce the number of children when there is no sharing of tasks between spouses and childcare services are expensive and scarce.

The families studied in this region not only had fewer children, but also, their children were slightly older. Nevertheless, the Polish mothers were the youngest, in comparison with the Swedes and the Spaniards. This data is perfectly coherent with other data that indicated that the Polish women interviewed were the least likely to have postponed maternity as a reconciliation strategy.

Based on the data included herein, it seems that Polish mothers have been faced with the tasks of reconciliation from a much younger age, with scarce institutional resources or those supplied by the companies where they work, with little collaboration from their partners and who frequently had to seek the support of family. Due to all this, it is understandable that they are the mothers who state they have more reconciliation problems, who feel more overwhelmed by their daily responsibilities and who show less satisfaction with life.

The proposals these mothers seek to facilitate reconciliation clearly reflect the pressures they suffer. First of all, they demand economic help, which is more than understandable when public care resources are scarce; there is hardly any economic aid from companies and there is no government support for families with small children, except in exceptional situations as seen in this study (European Alliance for Families, 2011b).

These mothers also requested flexible work schedules that were compatible with of their families, but it must not be forgotten that these mothers were the least likely to have this possibility. They also asked for urban camps as a resource to care for their children during school holidays. These last two measures are probably the most necessary while the children are growing up and attending school during the day; nevertheless, this option appears to be insufficient as a resource when there is no coordination between work or school calendars, as suggested by Tobío (2005).

These are the only families, from among the three regions analyzed, who, in a considerable percentage, requested more family help. In the opinion of these authors, there are two possible reasons for this. On the one hand, they have no confidence that the government will supply child care resources and, therefore, know that they will have to continue to count on their families, which can be complicated if they do not live close by or if, in turn, their relatives have other incompatible obligations. On the other hand, from the cultural standpoint, these mothers retain the idea that family should care for the children. This study lacks data to choose between these options and these are perhaps complementary: when the government does not assume its co-responsibility in child care, it continues to be the family who carries out, when able, a supporting role and the family is perceived as an essential resource in this regard.

4.3.6. Reconciliation in Stockholm: Good resources, equalitarian involvement, high life satisfaction

The analysis of the data obtained from the Swedish families shows an equally clear but contrary profile with the previous region. For example, Swedish couples show the most equal patterns of all those studied: they shared the care and domestic tasks most, shared the decision to temporarily leave the workforce to attend family responsibilities, as well as those who showed the least differences regarding the amount of personal time available to the members of the couple. Therefore, it is not strange that it is also the Swedish participants who affirm that they are more satisfied with the allotment of responsibilities and time within their couples. It must be add that in this respect, there are hardly any differences between homosexual and heterosexual Swedish couples, which, as will be seen, it not the case in Andalusia.

It is more than possible that this data is linked to the extended tradition in Sweden of equality policies, as was commented in the introductory chapter of this report. In addition to having created a culture of equality and co-responsibility for decades, one of the distinctive elements of the equality policies in Sweden is specific measures dedicated to including male parents in the daily tasks of child care, as seen in this study. Undoubtedly, having cultural, legal and economic measures available that favour co-responsibility has borne fruit in the medium term. The involvement of Swedish partners of this study is clearly evident.

Swedish families are also the most satisfied with the institutional care resources available and with the resources offered by the companies where they work. It is not surprising that this is the case, as they are more likely to be able to distribute their working schedules flexibly throughout the day or the week. Likewise, they make greater use of working from home (tele-work). They are more likely to have requested a leave of absence or to have reduced their work day to take care of their family obligations. Obviously, they could not have taken advantage of these measures, which also imply an economic reduction, if the government had not made generous economic contributions to families with young children, contributions that, as seen, are universal in Sweden. Given this economic support from the state and the existence of extended maternity/paternity leave, it is not surprising that these families have least used the economic help of the companies or an extended maternity/paternity leave.

Due to everything explained here, it appears to be a logical consequence that these are the families who state that they have fewer difficulties with regards to caring for their children, who state that they have fewer reconciliation difficulties, and are less overwhelmed by their daily responsibilities.

In this situation, it is not surprising that a very high percentage of Swedish families recognized that they did not have reconciliation problems; the only aspect highlighted by more than 10% of the interviewees was the absence of enough personal time. As seen, a lack of personal time was the one aspect with more similarities among interviewees from Sweden, Poland and Spain in other studies: in all three cases, dissatisfaction with personal time was above the average (Eurostat, 2009).

In terms of reconciliation measures demanded by these families, most suggested measures referring to the work environment: greater flexibility of work schedules, which would facilitate improved adaptation to family responsibilities, possibility of working from home (tele-work), working part-time or being able to have days-off for extraordinary situations. Only one institutional care measure was repeatedly suggested by these participants: the setting up of “extracurricular activities.” The data from this study indicates that this care resource

was used significantly less in Stockholm than in the other two regions. Therefore, it can be concluded that this was scarcely used due to limited availability and not because they failed to think it was necessary, as it was a repeatedly request.

In summary, the evidence from Swedish families very clearly shows that reconciliation tasks need not be the cause of stress and conflict within the families, particularly that of the women, who were, for the most part, interviewed in this study. The data from this study indicates that to the extent that these families have enough support resources at the different levels, as well as a good co-responsibility within the couple, reconciliation can be bearable and approachable. In fact, it is the opinion of these authors that this is the key to why the Swedish families in this study have, on average, more children, which coincides with the national data collected by the European Alliance for Families (2011c). It would have been interesting to have had data from single mothers and first generation immigrant families in Sweden, to confirm whether this situation is the same in those families with greater needs.

4.3.7. Reconciliation in Andalusia: Highs and Lows in reconciliation

Based on the description made by Andalusian families of their reconciliation problems and resources used, there are some clearly contrasting highs and lows. When it comes to co-responsibility within the couple, the data obtained is certainly complex and varies depending on the family type studied. Thus, in heterosexual Andalusian couples, both native and more specifically immigrants, clearly differential implication patterns can be seen when it comes to child care and household tasks. In these families, mothers took on these tasks to a much greater extent than the fathers, both on a daily basis and under extraordinary circumstances; these values were similar to those found in Malopolska. A very similar pattern was obtained when the personal time available to the members of the couple was analyzed: the mothers interviewed said that they had less time for themselves than their partners. For that reason, it is not unexpected to discover that heterosexual Andalusian mothers were not very satisfied with the allotment of tasks and time within the couple, as seen in the Poles, which was described previously.

However, very different data was obtained from homosexual couples in Andalusia. These couples developed equal patterns both with regards to household tasks and child care and in the possibility of enjoying personal time. The patterns discovered in these families were, in fact, similar to those found in the Swedish homosexual families. Therefore, homosexual families from Andalusia seem to constitute the spearhead in the

social movement towards equality. This data is congruent with that found in previous studies carried out in this same region (González et al, 2003) and also in other countries (Bos et al. 2007; Chan, et al, 1998; Fulcher, et al, 2008). As seen, however, these differences were not discovered between the Swedish heterosexual and homosexual couples, which would tend to indirectly confirm that it could be that the differences between one and the other have nothing to do with sexual orientation itself, but with the gender ideology that they profess and that both types of couple take on, pointing in the direction of the findings by Fulcher et al. (2008).

With regards to the institutional resources for child care, it must be said that a high percentage of Andalusian families used the various care resources when these were included in the interview. From among all the Andalusian families, it must be highlighted that it was the single mother families who made greater use of child care resources, as has already been mentioned in the previous section. This indicates that the families had access to the care resources for their children in those cases when they were particularly necessary. It was possibly due to this reason that the Andalusian families were seen to be fairly satisfied with the child care resources; this satisfaction was similar to that of Swedish families. It must be added, in any case, that the resources used most were those contemplated in the Family Support Decree (2002), while other resources that are not foreseen in this law were less used (urban camps, for example). Therefore, these are not universal, but rather subject to specific political or company wishes.

When contemplating the panorama of the resources offered by companies, the results are much less optimistic. In this case, Andalusian families are clearly less satisfied, particularly immigrant families. The Andalusian sample showed the lowest percentages of families from among the three regions studied who have access to such reconciliation resources such as tele-work, flexible distribution of work hours throughout the week or days-off to attend to family needs. On the other hand, it is also the Andalusian families who used a leave of absence or part-time work as reconciliation strategies, possibly because both translated into a loss of payment, and in this region, there is no universal economic aid to compensate this loss. Andalusian families are more likely to enjoy measures such as free hours for breast feeding, extended maternity leave, and complementary economic help, all of which are measures that Andalusian companies use to compensate the scant institutional support with regards to maternity/paternity leave and economic subsidies.

Considering the above, it is not surprising that three of the five measures proposed to facilitate reconciliation for a large number of Andalusian families refer to companies: flexible working hours to be compatible with child care, having nursery schools at work and having days off for extraordinary family situations. The families

interviewed in Andalusia also demanded economic help, thus claiming institutional co-responsibility for the economic support of childhood that is not found in this region (except in the 0-3 years) and which, nevertheless, exists in other many European regions.

When the global values provided by Andalusian families with regards to whether they have resolved their reconciliation problems or not, the authors found that they are located in a mid-point on the scale for both their perception of reconciliation problems and feeling overwhelmed by all the daily responsibilities. It must be stressed that in both aspects, this study found quite a lot of internal diversity within the sample studied and, as stated earlier, it was immigrant families within the Andalusian sample who granted the most negative evaluation. Remember that, in addition, this group had the most precarious work conditions (one third of the immigrants interviewed worked with no contract). Also, they suffered more stress and were predictably subject to labour conditions that were hardly compatible with reconciliation.

The life satisfaction scores obtained from the Andalusian mothers interviewed were in positions intermediate between those obtained in the other two regions studied; at the same time, these results were slightly above the average on the scale used. These results seem to be in agreement with the portrait drawn of this region in terms of reconciliation, in which, as seen, there are positive aspects in this matter that coexisted with others showing clear deficiencies; groups appeared that were reasonably satisfied with the co-responsibility or the resources they had access to, while there were others that were at a clear disadvantage in these regards. In the opinion of these authors, Andalusia demonstrates that it is moving forward along the path of reconciliation, but still has some distance left to go.

4.3.8. Reconciliation and life Satisfaction

As stated, one of our main objectives of this study versed upon the possible relationship between the conflicts, difficulties, strategies and resources of reconciliation of the people interviewed in the three regions and their psychological well-being, measured through a specific indicator, life satisfaction.

The data obtained overwhelmingly confirms that the life satisfaction of the interviewees in the three regions, for the most part women, is due, to a great degree, to their perception of having resolved their reconciliation problems between work, family and personal life. Remember that the values obtained were about a 50% of variance, explained by the life satisfaction based on the combined influence of several variables related with a successful reconciliation. These values are undoubtedly much higher than those obtained by Böhnke (2005)

in his study of life satisfaction in Europe, but it is also true that included in this the reconciliation indicator was the equation along with others that were unrelated. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the participants in this study fulfilled a series of conditions that maximized the need for good reconciliation: both the women and their partners (as would be the case) had careers, they had children under the age of 13 years, and therefore very dependent and they lived alone with their children. It is probable that under such stressful circumstances the perception of successfully facing their reconciliation needs had more weight within their personal well-being.

Having analyzed the combined effect of the different variables linked to reconciliation on life satisfaction, it would be interesting to perform a detailed analysis on at least some of these variables. Thus, life satisfaction was positively and very significantly associated with the satisfactory perception of the distribution of the household tasks within the couple. Or, it could also be said that those who considered the allotment of household tasks to be equal felt more satisfied with their life. The authors are unaware of other research that has analyzed this same objective, but there are others that are indirectly related. The already mentioned research by Chan et al. (1998) discovered that satisfaction with the allotment of the domestic chores and child care within the couple correlated with greater satisfaction with their marriage. On the other hand, there is considerable literature that underlines the close relationships between enjoying a satisfactory relationship as a couple and demonstrating a high life satisfaction (See Diener et al, 1999 for a summary). Being that this study did not evaluate the satisfaction with the relationship as a couple, it is unknown whether or not this would be a mediating variable, but what this data clearly underlines is the relationship, direct or not, between satisfaction with the allotment of tasks within the couple and general life satisfaction.

Also, it was found that life satisfaction was positively associated with the existence of resources that facilitate reconciliation, both those offered by companies and others that aid the adjustment between work life and family needs, and those supplied by other institutions to facilitate child care. Therefore, the data in this study shows how having the perception that the necessary resources to facilitate reconciliation between family and career life being available is related with the psychological well-being of the people interviewed. The authors are unaware of research into the exact same objective as this study, but some are similar. In the already mentioned study by Böhnke (2005), it was found that the life satisfaction of European citizens had significant modifications if they perceived that the society where they lived had good support services rather than if they perceived that this was not the case.

Lastly, the authors are of the opinion that the association found between satisfaction with the personal time available and general life satisfaction was extremely interesting. It seems clear that having free time to dedicate to exclusive activities, beyond work and family responsibilities, bears a very close relationship with the psychological well-being of those interviewed, measured through the life satisfaction indicator. This fact should not be a revelation for anyone given the pressure any mother or father with small children endure to combine all their obligations in the work and the family sphere. If, under these circumstances, they manage to have some time on their own, which is judged as satisfactory, it is not surprising that this perception has beneficial effects on their psychological well-being. Only some of the data from the study by Böhnke (2005) point in a similar direction: those who perceived they had little time for social relationships showed lower life satisfaction than those who stated they had all they needed.

Therefore, it seems clear from this data it can be confirmed that there is a relationship between life satisfaction, the perception of having a good balance between family, career and personal life, with sufficient resources for this and perceiving that there is good co-responsibility within the couple, in those cases where there is one, when confronting shared obligations. The authors believe that this area has, up to now, been scarcely explored in the research and that it is worth advancing in this regard and corroborating these results with new studies carried out with larger samples and in other countries. It is evident that based on the data in this study, it can be deduced that there is a need to take in consideration a successful reconciliation between career, family and personal life as a decisive element of life satisfaction.



5. Good practices of reconciliation

5.1. Methodology for detection and transference of best practices relative to reconciliation between women and men in Europe

The knowledge and the transferability of actions, described as good practices, to other institutions, agencies and technical and political personnel acting on reconciliation, is essential for the advancement and improvement of those public and private strategies aiming to be developed in this matter in the different territories. Therefore, one of the achievements of the sub-project DIVERSIA has been to facilitate the transfer of good practices in different contexts and territorial realities.

There are many definitions of good practice. One of the most comprehensive defines it as any action or experience introduced, driven by an entity, based on a previous project and planning and responding in an innovative and successful manner to a problem of context. A good practice is chosen, first, for its innovation, not only for its process but also for its results, objectives or context. In addition, a good practice should be potentially transferable.

The detection, analysis and transfer of a good practice is therefore an important tool for the advancement of the policies of European public administrations on equality and reconciliation.

From the definition above, the elements that have defined a best practice, in the context of the Diversia sub-project, are:

- a) **Innovation.** The introduction or improvement of elements in a system, by actions taken both with regard to the management and the service provided, with the aim of improving its internal functioning and its relationship with the environment, and with a visible impact on the outcome of these performances.
- b) **Transferability.** The capacity of a good practice to allow the repetition of its key elements in a different context from which it was created and with a high probability of success.
- c) **Effectiveness.** Related to the quality of the methodology, a good practice should achieve the objectives for which it is planned and developed.

- d) **Feasibility.** A characteristic by which an initiative is likely to succeed in its implementation, because its design has taken into account the context in which it must be performed.
- e) **Positive impact.** The effectiveness of the action, defined as the achievement of the stated objectives; this achievement implies the existence of an impact, an observable change and is positively evaluated within the field on which the conducted action has focused. So, an experience that will not produce the expected impact, or will not achieve the desired objective, is an unsuccessful experience.

In addition, the specific objectives marked to enable the drafting of a compilation and explanation document of those experiences implemented by each regional partner of the Diversia subproject (Andalusia, Malopolska, Sodertalje), have been considered good practices in order to allow their portability and distribution. These have been used to identify those actions, to select them using the standards of excellence required: efficiency, effectiveness, planning, innovation, evaluation and transfer, to develop this report, included in the final report of the Diversia subproject, and to compile the examples of each region and to disseminate the results.

In relation to the contents or concrete aspects in which a given experience, which may constitute a good practice to be acted upon, these have been to improve the supply of quality employment for women in sectors where they have an important presence and also in the more masculine sectors. These have also been to improve parental leave and care benefits and to make these benefits transferable between parents; to encourage parents to use them more, while increasing business' awareness and employees understanding of the benefits of enjoying parental leave; to introduce mechanisms within the social protection system to recognize that life cycles are individual and are formed by periods of professional activity and inactivity, taking into account, where necessary, the time spent on informal care; ensuring availability of flexible and negotiated agreements for men and women, particularly with regard to permits, that will not affect long-term participation and position in the labour market and to provide various forms of infrastructure for the care of children and older people which is accessible, of a high quality and is affordable, and which does not undermine labour market mobility.

Phases for the compilation of good practices

The phases developed for the study and selection of good practices in each region partner have been:

1. **Identification:** In this phase, each region has researched and identified those actions which may constitute a good practice in terms of the criteria specified above.

In order to facilitate and systematize the collection of initial information it has developed a Card for identifying Good Practices

- 2. Analysis and sharing:** Following the identification of best practices, it has been necessary to collect all of this information by filling in the identifying cards and attaching an explanation to facilitate a thorough analysis of the initiative described.

The partners have sent all the information once it has been all gathered. It has also been important to collect experiences concerning each one of the aspects or content described above. It has been necessary to do a considerable amount of research work.

- 3. Selection:** Once selected, those activities or attitudes considered “best practices”, have gone through a process to give them a structure and organization to facilitate replication, that is, its transfer, in this way achieving an initial product which will reflect those patterns of action that will help the development or implementation initiatives to improve the balance for men and women in contexts other than those territories in which they originally started.
- 4. European Good Practice Report on Reconciliation:** This report has been included, as a chapter, in this Final Report of the subproject, to enable both professionals and politicians, as both governments and companies know the excellent work taking place in this field at European level, and also to provide a useful tool with which to implement these actions in the field at European level and to implement them within the field of their competence.

5.2. Examples of Good Practice in reconciliation in Andalusia, selected by the Andalusian Woman’s Institute

The search for and identification of Good Practices in reconciliation performed by the Andalusian Woman’s Institute concluded with the selection of two examples of Good Practice in Andalusia: the University of Seville Service Office (SACU) and the Maracena City Council (Granada). Both initiatives are an international reference for this subject thanks to the excellent work carried out by two bodies, which are both part of public administration, but with different profiles and target groups with different needs.

The SACU—a pioneer service in Andalusia, created in 2005—offers several programs the objective of which is none other than to help and promote the reconciliation of the career, personal and family life. Among these, the Gender Equality Plan must be underlined. This program was promoted by the Unit for Gender Equality at the University of Seville and was approved in 2009. Within area 6 of this plan, the commitment to favour co-responsibility and reconciliation within the university community appears.

Another measure developed by the SACU was designed specifically by the Pedagogic Consultancy to create nursery schools. In short, it was a kindergarten and nursery school service that not only offers subsidised places for the university community but also—in some cases—to parents who need this services, but who were not members of the university community.

Also, a play centre was created, as well as a quality program to facilitate reconciliation between the work and family life with a set of educational activities grouped together by topics and adapted to participants between approximately 3 and 12 years of age. The play centre is an area created for the integral development of the participants, focusing on the care and educational entertainment of the children of University professionals and students, while work outside actual of school hours (evenings, Christmas, summer, for example).

A List of Baby-sitters was another reconciliation measure that the SACU developed. In this case, a list of students was made available to the University Community, generally young people, who accepted the responsibility for caring for small children, children of parents from the University Community, during short absences, in exchange for a payment agreed by both parties. The choice of baby-sitter for the care of the children is free, and is not subject to restrictions of any type, except those that occur due to the baby-sitter's prior commitments or due to the baby-sitter's own schedule.

Another SACU action promoted by the Unit of Gender Equality was the creation of a Time Bank, a mutual help network that promotes cooperation services within the community, aiding reconciliation between the personal, family and work lives of the beneficiaries. In a Time Bank, services and educational and leisure activities are exchanged. The currency exchange is always time. One hour is exchanged for another hour, independently of the services and activities offered or requested.

Lastly, the University of Seville, through the SACU Social Work unit launched the “Integral Care Program for Elderly People within the University Community” (Family Respite Centre), designed to improve the quality of life of these people while at the same time facilitating reconciliation between family and work life. Thus, it offers services and benefits that supplement those offered by the public administration; it counts on professionals, services and a fundamental resource: a large community of young people being trained to professionally care for people in a dependent situation, who benefit from the contact with real situations to supplement their academic training. At the same time, these real situations help them to develop human values such as solidarity, respect for our elderly, and patience.

Below, the Good Practice file has been included, which lays out the details of this example together with the most significant advantages and results.

Good practice 1: S.A.C.U. - Reconciliation program

Name of the Good Practice	S.A.C.U. (University Community Care Service for the Reconciliation Program)
Scope of application	University community at the University of Seville (Seville)
Applicable Body	SACU Unit for Equality, Pedagogical Consultancy, Social Work Unit at the University of Seville
Context	<p>The University of Seville has more than 70,000 people in its various sectors: students, teaching and research staff (PDI) and administrative and service personnel (PAS). It is an extremely large community in which most of the educational staff, administrative personnel and a large percentage of its students demonstrated serious reconciliation problems and they demanded a series of services to aid in this reconciliation.</p> <p>These services dedicated to reconciliation began and were set up in 1992 as one of the most defining initiatives of the University Community Care Service. From then on, this demand has been growing and the offer has not only grown but also diversified, as seen in the previous section.</p> <p>In 2009, the University of Seville drafted its First Gender Equality Plan; area 6 is “Co-responsibility and reconciliation.” The objective of this area is “to Facilitate co-responsibility and reconciliation of the work, family and personal life of the members of the university community. Thus, the university promoted and made its reconciliation policy visible while at the same time making a firm commitment to its development.</p>
Description of the good practice	A series of measures were carried out to guarantee the reconciliation between the career, family and personal life of people who are a part of the university community at the University of Seville in their different sectors: educational and research staff, administrative and service personnel and students. The following are among these measures:

1. Nurseries and Kindergartens. The university offers places for the children or grandchildren of those who form apart of the university community at two subsidized nursery schools and at other nursery schools owned by the University. This service began in 1993 with places in a subsidized nursery school. For the 2010-2011 academic year, 140 places were offered in their own nursery schools and 147 subsidized school places, distributed around the four University of Seville campuses.

2. University Play Centre. The university launched a complete group of services under this umbrella, the main objective of which was to aid reconciliation, replacing the maladjustment between work and school schedules and calendars. Thus, there are leisure and entertainment workshops during the various school holidays, as well as others throughout the school year, in the afternoons to offer leisure activities and study rooms. Thus, various initiatives take place, including:

- Summer School
- Winter School
- Christmas, April Fair and Easter Week School

These services began in 2001 with the summer school, for which 400 places were offered at one campus, and have increased annually so that in 2011, there were 1,960 places among the various campuses.

3. List of Baby-sitters. The SACU has, since 1995, offered the possibility that University of Seville students with specific training in child care can perform child care tasks when requested by another member of the university community.

4. Time Bank. In 2002, the university activated a Time Bank, by which the various members of the university community can exchange services. The exchange unit is an hour, something that also allows reconciliation problems to be resolved. There are currently some 120 people involved in this bank.

5. Care Program for dependant relatives: This program is complex and includes various initiatives; two can be highlighted:

5.1. Family Respite Centre Program. Since 2008, the university offered the university community the possibility for students with specific training to accompany people from the university community or their dependant relatives at home or on short trips. In 2010, 35 applications were attended.

5.2. Home Food Delivery Program. Since 2010, this program offers the distribution of food delivered to the homes of members of the university community requesting this service. The meals are traditional and there are menus suited to all types of diets. 204 members of the university community were involved in 2010.

6. Students living with the elderly and disabled. The SACU also offers the possibility for elderly and disabled people from the university community and outside the system to benefit from sharing their home with students from the university who would benefit from free lodgings. This service began in 1992 and in 2010, 56 disabled-student pairs benefited from this program.

Results or improvements obtained

The results are based on the number of facilitating measures that translate into an extra in the current legislation and in the diversity and innovative nature of these measures, which all lead to an increased number of people from the university community, and their older and younger relatives being able to benefit from them.

The lines indicated by the Plan for Equality until 2012 suggest working on the following improvements within the two specific objectives of area 6 of the Plan.

Specific objectives

- a. Facilitate a change of mentality that propitiates co-responsibility and reconciliation.
 - b. Promote and strengthen the services offered by the SACU, which lead to reconciliation, and to facilitate their use.
1. Analyze the applicable minimum regulations with regards to reconciliation and the design of proposals for improvement.
 2. Perform informative campaigns about legislative measures that aid reconciliation.

3. Perform informative and educational activities for members of the university community to aid in a change of mentality that bring about co-responsibility.
4. Study and assess PDI schedules, including meetings and teaching periods that, permitting the continuous education and research and without being detrimental to the excellence that characterizes the Institution, facilitate co-responsibility and reconciliation and make people sensitize to the promotion of their use by faculty members with family obligations.
5. Study and evaluate PAS holiday schedules to facilitate co-responsibility and reconciliation, urging the PAS with family obligations to use said measured.
6. Guarantee that any PAS obligatory courses or for promotion takes place within the standard work schedule.
 - a. Promote and strengthen the services offered by the SACU that aid reconciliation, and facilitate their use.
7. Analyze and disseminate the current resources that facilitate co-responsibility and reconciliation of career, family and personal life.
8. Promote improvements in the nursery school services offered by the SACU.
9. Promote improvements to facilitate breast feeding among mothers who are members of the university community
10. Promote measures that facilitate the undertaking of university work during children's school holidays by consolidating and increasing the number of places at children's camps (Project Buho).
11. Promote improvements in those programs that facilitate the development of university tasks compatible with care of dependant elderly and/or children by consolidating family respite centre programs and university student lodging with the elderly, disabled and parents with children in their care.

12. Facilitate improvements in other services that aid reconciliation between career, family and personal life (Time Bank, List of Baby-sitters, laundry and ironing services, home food delivery program...)
13. Program of grants for students in particularly vulnerable situations.

Possibilities of application in other locations

Several universities, institutions and bodies in Spain have requested information about the reconciliation plans developed by the SACU at the University of Seville, for their implementation in their own situations and contexts.

These authors believe that possible application of such plans will depend on two fundamental aspects:

1. Type of contexts for such plans, whether they are facilitators or not.
2. The use of work methods in keeping with the interests and complexity of the practices being applied.

Among these, the formal creation of work groups made up of specialized technical personnel in charge of the practical development and implementation of the good practises and carrying out visits to learn about/train in the process and analysis as well as adapting to different contexts.

Documentation and Appendices

www.sacu.us.es

In second place, **the Maracena Town Council** was selected as an example of Good Practice in reconciliation in Andalusia. This is a municipality in the province of Granada, with 20,815 inhabitants, which, in 2008, created the Plan Maracena-Concilia (Maracena Reconciliation Plan). One of the general objectives contemplated was the “Reality of Reconciliation” both in the families and the citizens of Maracena, and in the companies located in the municipality. This plan was created with a clear objective: to guarantee real equality between women and men, while changing and reorganizing social timetables to give priority to people ahead of market demands. For this, the townspeople in general, together with its social, economic and political agents, signed the Local Reconciliation Agreement, a commitment that was to make the Plan Maracena-Concilia a reality. Thus, different “Work Tables” were created, during which the idea arose to carry out a population diagnosis, to research the different realities of the population when it came to reconciling their personal, family and career life. The proposed study focused upon drafting questionnaires directed to four social segments: the general population, those managing SMEs in the town, those working at SMEs and the self-employed.

Upon analyzing the results obtained, a number of measures were developed to favour reconciliation among the citizens of Maracena. Among these, the most outstanding include: the opening of the Town Council offices two afternoons a week, reconciliation training aimed at the workers of the Town Council, an extension of the play centre services and an increase in the potential of the home help service within the framework of the law 39/2006, dated the 14th of December, regarding the promotion of the personal autonomy and care of people in dependent situations.

Below is the identification record of this Good Practice, in which the results and improvements obtained after its application are detailed.

Good practice 2: Maracena-concilia

Title of the good practice:	Maracena-Concilia
Place / town of application:	The Town of Maracena (Granada), Andalusia, Spain.
Programme of application	<p>Plan Maracena-concilia: action by the local public powers, aimed at men and women being able to reconcile their personal, family and career lives.</p> <p>The objective is the implication and participation of all citizens and all the socials, political and economic agents to transform the relationships between the work world, the household environment, public powers and social needs.</p>
Context:	<p>This is an initiative undertaken by the Macarena Council but it also has a local level, for a population of the 20,815 people (10,323 Men and 10,492 Women)</p> <p>Social Workforce Field</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy makers and technical staff of the Maracena municipality • Business Associations: ACOPEMA, CGE, AGRADE • Trade Unions representatives: CCOO, UGT, CESIF • Technical Staff Groups or Programmes involved in the employment area: Consorcio Vega-Sierra Elvira, UTDLT, Andalucía Orienta, Caritas, Cruz Roja, FEAPS, Academia FOC. • Companies' representatives present in the locality: Mercadona, Supergran, Coviran, Payan Hnos., Caja Granada, Multiservicios Lonater, Coop. Sierra Nevada <p>Service Fields</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy makers and technical staff of the Maracena Municipality • Women's Associations • Neighbourhood Associations

- Red Cross
- Association Banco de Tiempo de Maracena
- Cultural Association
- Youth Associations

Productive Field

- Policy makers and technical staff, Maracena municipality
- Municipal Education Centres: Management and personnel responsible for co-education.
- AMPAS

Description of the good practices in reconciliation:

- Previous Action Plan Proposals (Confluence of policy initiative and technical project)
- Awareness training and diagnosis: Constitution and operation of three de sectoral working tables: Education, Services. Social – workforce. Seminar on reconciliation (October 2008). Production and administration of questionnaires. Conducting diagnostic study (Public presentation May 2010)
- Approach to understanding the reality on reconciliation in the municipality: Diagnosis of departure.
- Development: Approval of Local Reconciliation Pact.
- Implementation / development of the agreement
- Assessment (ongoing and participatory)

Results and improvements

1. Expansion and improvement of reconciliation rights in the Agreement and Collective Agreement:

Schedule flexibility formula

2. Extension of certain opening hours for the public

Opening of City Hall two afternoons a week

3. Training on reconciliation aimed at municipality staff: Professional training.

Continuous Training Program

4. Extension of Recreation Centre (Children's Club) services:

Starting up Recreation Centre (Children's Club) services at the Municipal Children's School

Starting up the Family Respite Service

5. Enhancement of the home help service as part of the Dependency Law
6. Coordinating the schedules of the City Sports to facilitate reconciliation
7. Encounters for equality: Co-education for reconciliation

Nature's Classroom "Las Alpujarras"

8. Boosting Summer Schools
9. Creation of two proximity lines of urban transport

Possibilities of application in other locations

This Good Practice is considered a good local practice and is transferable. A good example is the CONCILIAM PLAN, which has been registered by 34 Councils, each with a different population (between 704,414 inhabitants, for example the city of Seville and 847 inhabitants, for example the town of "El Almendro "(Huelva).

Ultimately, it may become necessary for the relationship between the world of work, the domestic sphere, public authorities and social needs to be transformed.

It requires the involvement and participation of all citizens and all social, political and economic agents.

Documentation and Appendices

www.maracena.es

5.3. Examples of Good Practice in reconciliation in Malopolska

The Association of Cities and Counties of the Malopolska Region (Poland) has selected the following examples: Bank Zachodni WBK S.A. and the Lanckoroma Municipality.

Good practice 3: Bank Zachodni WBK S.A.	
Title of the good practice	Bank Zachodni WBK S.A.
Programme of application	The BZWBK Policy is supporting expectant and new mothers.
Country / town of the application	Poland, all the cities where the Bank Zachodni has its branches.
Context	The goal of the Bank Zachodni WBK S.A. is to be recognized as an employer who assists new mothers in combining their family and work commitments, recognizing their potential for the company's development and ensuring not only compliance with the provisions of the Labour Code but also additional privileges and solutions to those required by law.
Description of the good practices in reconciliation	<p>The objective of this Policy is to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. encourage new mothers to return to professional activity; 2. facilitate their return to work at the Bank after the break related to childbirth; 3. assist new mothers in continuing their career; 4. promote solutions among BZWBK management and staff which will enable new mothers to combine family and work commitments.
Results and improvements	A successfully implemented policy which supports mothers and families
Possibilities of transferability	Agreed, after including the specific environment of the institution.

Good practice 4: Gmina Lanckorona

Title of the good practice	Gmina Lanckorona
Programme of application	Ecological and Cultural Association “On the Amber Route”
Place / town of application	Gmina Lanckorona, Malopolska Region
Context	<p>Lanckorona is a rural commune (administrative district) in Wadowice County, Malopolska Voivodeship, in southern Poland. Its centre is the town of Lanckorona, which lies approximately 16 kms (10 miles) east of Wadowice and 27 kms (17 miles) south-west of the regional capital, Krakow. Gmina covers an area of 40.61 square kms (15.7 sq miles) and, its total population in 2006 was 5,819 inhabitants.</p> <p>Lanckorona is one of the few communes in Poland where the whole government board consists only of women.</p> <p>The strategy of the commune is based mainly on the development of tourism and cultural sectors. Great strength is placed on women’s participation in local development and social life of the commune and for this reason, many projects were, and are still are, run by them in the commune.</p>
Description of the good practices in reconciliation	<p>The Association was created in 2004 as a result of the work of local leaders and is located in Lanckorona. Its activities focus on three main areas: tradition, culture and enterprise. It focuses on activities such as: preservation and promotion of regional culture, local community development, support and promotion of handcrafts, promotion of traditional local products: both food and handcraft, ecological education and all activities connected with the development of rural areas. The Association’s focus is on undertaking projects connected with sustainable development and the development of the social economy in areas which have a strong impact on local development.</p>

The Association is supporting all the initiatives and activities which focus on women's development, especially in their intellectual and production spheres, those connected with cultural and natural heritage through participation in an international programme called 'Babiniec' ('Hen Party') which is aimed at supporting local women leaders from rural areas.

Projects undertaken by the Association:

- 'Babiniec' ('Hen Party')
- Resuscitation of the Lanckorona Ecomuseum
- Shops with Local Products
- Initiatives connected to the 'Amber Route'
- European Voluntary Service – the Youth programme

'Women for heritage preservation and local development in rural areas. Polish-Slovakian-Czech common initiative BABINIEC'. This is a joint initiative and named after the activities of local leaders (mainly women) from rural areas of Central Europe. It is a part of a 3 year international programme, "Workshops and consolidation of women leaders in rural areas". The aim of the programme is to increase the number of women-leaders in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Poland, through training in leadership skills, study trips to New England, an exchange of experience and also through relaxing and gaining positive energy which could be derived from general contacts and the achievement of common aims. The project was coordinated by QLF – an American-Canadian Ecological Foundation, Association for Sustainable Life (STUZ) – White Carpathian Mountains and the Foundation Partnership for Environment.

The project was undertaken by the Cultural Centre of the Lanckorona Commune. Its aim was to lead to the creation of a practical background to 'market' the women's initiatives from partner regions. Participation in international fairs, creation of Ecological and Cultural Association "On the Amber Route" or the Partner Group, "Partnership for the Wadowice region" aimed at the content-related and economical support for the initiative.

Realization of the project was very successful and, because of active participation of the women of Lanckorona, the cultural and tourism potential on offer in the region, this became its main source of economic and social development.

Results and improvements	The creation of shops with local products, the ‘Angel Festival’ which takes place every year, a community initiative HORYZONTY ITD, a new NGO, the Ecological and Cultural Association “On the Amber Route”
Possibilities of transferability	It is a fact that every rural commune has a great deal of potential within their community in the women who are employed in the home bringing up their children. Introducing the women to the fact that they have many valuable talents to use and to share. All of the Lanckorona commune projects were financed using EU funds. It is a fairly simple matter for each commune to apply for funds and start a project for women
Appendices and data explanations	http://www.nbs.org.pl

5.4. Examples of Good Practice in reconciliation in Stockholm

Finally, Stockholm region has chosen the Gender Equality Bonus and the Single Parent’s Temporary Parental Support projects, both examples of good action on reconciliation.

Good practice 5: Gender Equality Bonus

Title of the good practice	Gender Equality Bonus
Programme of the application	Addition to the Swedish National Law on Family Policies: Socialförsäkringsbalken
Place / town of application	Public Administration of The Swedish National Insurance Agency; City of Sodertalje, Stockholm Region, Sweden, parents in Sodertalje, Sweden.
Context	Sweden has a main-stream, highly-developed and flexible, publicly funded, parental leave scheme that allows and encourages both parents to spend time with their children.

The mother and the father are, collectively, entitled to up to 16 months paid leave per child. Each parent has a personal, non-transferable entitlement to two months of paid parental leave (from the total 16 months). The remaining 12 months can be freely shared between both parents. The right to be absent from full time work is restricted to the child's first 18 months.

Despite the positive consequences on fathers' involvement in childcare, the flexibility of the system, in terms of who takes the leave, results in the lion's share of parental leave days being taken by mothers. Fathers in Sweden take about 22% of the total amount of parental leave days. (This is still considerably more than most EU Member States). This is an economic incentive for mothers and fathers, or the equally shared parental leave between same sex parents, to share childcare more equally and to improve, especially the mothers' participation, in working life. In July 2008, the Swedish government introduced a 'Gender Equality Bonus'.

Description of good practices in reconciliation

Parents of children born or adopted after 1 July 2008, who share their parental leave equally between the couple (i.e. eight months each if all the available sixteen months are taken) are entitled to the full tax relief bonus, on condition that they work while the other parent is taking parental leave. This bonus can be as high as SEK 3,000 (around €275) per month, with the maximum amount available set at 13,500 SEK per child, per year. To obtain the full allowance per month and per child, the family cannot use a publicly funded pre-school establishment for childcare. Parents are not eligible to receive the bonus until both have used their initial two month quota of parental leave.

If one parent takes less than half of his/her share of the parental leave then the amount of the bonus is reduced accordingly. The precise amounts depend on the income of the household and how many days each parent uses. Time off can be taken in blocks of one day, three quarters of a day, half a day, a quarter of a day or an eighth of a day.

The Gender Equality Bonus is "technically" delivered as tax relief to each individual parent at the local administrative level, in cooperation with the National Insurance Agency, the National Taxation Office and the Municipality. Parents actively have to claim the bonus, and to "prove" the shared amount of time, to be eligible for the GEB.

Results and improvements

As a mainstream measure of impact on gender equality concerning the shared responsibility for child care between mothers / fathers or same-sex parents, the GEB is meant as an economic incentive, especially for fathers, to increase the amount of time of their parental leave. The law was inaugurated in 2008 and the effects are slowly gaining ground. During the last monitoring period in 2009, an average of 45 days were taken by the fathers at the end of the total 18 month period allowed. The amount of shared, parental leave time is expected to rise further. Recent research shows that one of the side effects, apart from the fathers' closer relationships with their children, is an increase in the fathers' well-being.

Possibilities of transferability

The GEB Law implies a local, regional or national legal system on the rights of parents to parental leave, publicly funded by the general tax revenues. Within such a system, local, regional or national rules can be applied on an equal basis for all parents, on the condition that the parents are part of the general tax-system, that is, they earn an amount of money by whatever form and however much paid work, which entitles them to be a part of the general tax-system. There are ongoing public discussions to extend GEB to parents without any income from work (i.e. without any taxed income).

The strength and sustainability of a public system such as GEB, harmonize with the values of equal opportunities, family life flexibility and freedom of choice.

Appendices and data explanations

<https://lagen.nu/2010:110>

Good practice 6: single parents' temporary parental support

Denomination of the good practice	Single Parents' Temporary Parental Support
Program of application	Addition to the Swedish National Law on Family Policies: Socialförsäkringsbalken: Parental Leave Scheme; Single Parents' Temporary Parental Support
Place/ town of application	The National Insurance Agency; City of Södertälje; Stockholm Region; Sweden; single parents' in Södertälje, Sweden.
Context	A new rule is added to the social insurance scheme to help single parents who fall ill and cannot look after their child. The rule, which has been in force since 1 January 2010, allows another insured person (i.e. a person legally living and/or working in Sweden) who forgoes paid work to receive temporary parental benefit to look after the child. It applies to children up to the age of three. Previously temporary parental benefit was only available to the parents themselves or to a career replacing the child's regular career if they were to fall ill.
Description of the good practise in reconciliation	<p>Currently, temporary parental benefit is available to any parent who needs to stop work and stay at home to look after a sick child under the age of 12 (in some cases 16) and when, for example, the child's regular caregiver is ill. This benefit can be paid for 60 days per child per year. Once these days have been used up, the benefit can be paid for a further 60 days, which, however, may not be used in the event of the regular caregiver falling ill.</p> <p>Under the new rule, temporary parental benefit can be given to another insured person when a single parent is too ill to take care of their child/children. The rule applies to children up to the age of three and is payable for a maximum of 120 days per child per year. The benefit is allocated per child. So, if, for example, there are two children under three that need to be looked after, then two sets of payments are made. For adopted children,</p>

it applies until they are five years old. The aim of the new provision is to give single parents similar options for childcare as families with two parents have.

Under the new rule, the temporary parental benefit is paid by the day and depends on the career's income. It corresponds to 80% of their income up to a maximum of 26,400 Swedish Kronor per month (around €2,640). In 2009, the average amount of benefit paid out per day was 800 Swedish Krone (around €80). The benefit is paid out by Sweden's Social Insurance Agency.

Results and improvements

The new rule within the single parents' temporary support gives single parents and their children an improvement in the context of equal opportunities and betterment of their life context. The new rule has not yet been evaluated, but the expected results are in the framework of better health and less stress for both child and parent.

Possibilities to transferability

The new rule for single parents within the temporary parental leave scheme implies a local, regional or national law system on the right for parents to parental leave, publically funded by the general tax revenues. Within such a system, local, regional or national rules can be performed on an equal basis for all parents. The strenght and sustainability of a public system, which also takes the single parents' special life situation into account, assesses the harmonization of the values of equal opportunities, family life-flexibility and freedom of choice.

Annexes and data explanatory

<https://lagen.nu/2010:110>

5.5. Conclusions of Good Practices on reconciliation

There are many different conclusions which could be extracted after the selection and description of these examples of good practices in reconciliation. Even, if there is a very different political, economic or social reality in each region, this good practice's research has shown that all of these initiatives have improved the quality of life, people's well-being and the promotion of the real equality between women and men.

For example, Single Parent's Temporary Parental Support, which allows an insured person, other than the parent, to take care of the child if the parent falls ill. Through this new form of support, the single parent can feel as secure as a couple who can rely on each other to share the responsibility, and this contributes to the achievement of reconciliation. The Gender Equality Bonus, which encourages parents to split the parental leave time equally between them, which in turn encourages fathers to take a greater share of the leave available than they have done in the past.

Other improvements, proposed by the Bank, a Polish partner, have shown a company which encourages new mothers to return to professional activity and facilitates their return after the break related to childbirth.

It is important to make sure that businesses realise the need to support women and to ensure that their conditions will help them to reconcile work and family life. However, support from the public sector is necessary to achieve that aim, for example, by introducing tax allowances which would encourage businesses to employ women and to support them during their maternity leave.

One of the good practices selected by WIA, the pioneer assistance service for University employees (women and men), allows them the opportunity to use the reconciliation resources in the workplace.

It would appear that reconciliation and co-responsibility can improve the quality of life while non-reconciliation constitutes an important problem in society. Reconciliation is an individual and social need, but it demands and requires individual and collective responsibility. It requires organizations and agents to be involved, to reformulate the times and life experiences of men and women, because reconciliation is an added value and it should be developed, not only in the public sector, but also in the private sphere. Most of the good practices selected have been created by the public sector - Maracena, SACU, Lanckorona.

Therefore, it would be necessary to transform the social reality where an understanding exists between the workplace and domestic spheres.

The need for involvement and participation of all citizens and all social, political and economic agents to “reach” a new social reality is urgent. Swedish examples have shown that this premise is possible and both of the good practices have been introduced by the public sector (the legal sphere) and applied by society (the private sphere).

In fact, the first step would be to show and to help the whole of society to understand that women are valuable and that they have many skills, knowledge and things to share with others. Such an approach encourages women to enter the labour market more easily, especially from rural areas which are usually characterized by high unemployment among women.

However, the coordination between working timetables and educational centres should be advocated, and the creation of infrastructures and services to facilitate the compliance of family responsibilities and the care of young persons, or those in dependent situations, should be stimulated. Different family models have different resource demands and, even, if the authorities are establishing measures to promote equality between genders, the education and conciseness of people should be based on this principle. People are asking questions and they should receive answers.



6. General Recommendations for promoting reconciliation between working, family and personal life in diverse families

This section seeks to go beyond the results found both in the actual study and in the analysis of good reconciliation practices in the three regions involved in the *Diversia* project. The main purpose of this section is to provide a series of recommendations for the improvement of reconciliation in the various family models, based on the conclusions extracted from both the study and the analysis of good practices.

The recommendations provided herein are based on a series of **principles** we believe to be fundamental. The first three tie in with the three values that have inspired life in society in the contemporary world:

1. **Gender equality.** The recommendations that we make should advance gender equality in all areas and spheres of life. Due to this, recommendations will be avoided that favour the exclusion of some of these areas, as has happened in the past, in which the women were excluded from the workplace and men from the family realm.
2. **Freedom to construct life and family projects.** We understand that the measures created to facilitate reconciliation should respect the diversity of current family models, as well as of the diversity of lives and life projects. They should not be designed, therefore, for a single family model.
3. **Solidarity** with those who need more support. Solidarity with those from less favourable circumstances, as well as commitment to remove the barriers that hinder access to the rights of full citizenship, as well as to social equality in the field of reconciliation.

The other two principles upon which these recommendations are based include:

4. The **well-being of children** must prevail. Where children are involved, it is understood that their well-being must be foremost when choosing reconciliation measures that could affect them.
5. **Co-responsibility** of all social agents and institutions involved in the promotion of reconciliation between career, family and personal life, which far from being considered a private matter, must be understood, in the opinion of these authors, as a collective goal, as well as a social benefit to achieve and promote.

Associated with this last principle, the authors fully agree with Fernández and Tobío (2005) in their analysis that multiple **agents** must be involved in promoting reconciliation, which should be concerned with and involved in all proposals for reconciliation measures:

- a. **Public institutions**, at the national, regional and local level, should have the role of implementing, regulating and intervening directly and indirectly to facilitate and drive reconciliation
- b. **Families and individuals** are the main protagonist in reconciliation, as they are ultimately, those who make the decisions. Despite of their involvement and importance, the responsibility for reconciliation should not only fall solely on their shoulders, since what is to be preserved affects all of society (maintenance of the birth rate, access to employment for both women and men, personal life satisfaction and awareness of social welfare)
- c. **Companies** are fundamental in this equation, since the working hours and conditions that facilitate or hinder reconciliation depend, to a great degree, on the business world, as well as the setting up of child care services, subsidized by the company itself or in conjunction with public administration.

A series of measures, which the authors consider to be essential, will now be discussed. These are the basis of the conclusions in this study, taking into consideration the criteria explained, about and with the willingness to involve the various agents in attaining these objectives.

6.1. Institutional measures linked to child care

In this area, there is a certain degree of agreement among experts in reconciliation in the sense that there are three types of most effective measures when it comes to child care: direct child care services, maternity/paternity leave and monetary transfer (Fernández & Tobío, 2005). Almost all of these measures appeared among the main priorities established by the families studied in the three regions studied. These are:

1. **Development of a broad network of kindergarten and nursery facilities.** These should not only have a quantitative dimension, but also a qualitative dimension. On the one hand, it is necessary to increase the number of such facilities, both in rural and urban areas, so that everybody has ample and equal access to these services. At the same time, it is necessary to make sure that such facilities comply with high standards regarding the quality of educational services offered by providing access to additional classes, which will have a beneficial educa-

tional dimension for children and will increase the educational opportunities of children from deprived areas.

2. **Development of complementary services (morning class, school canteen, extracurricular activities).** These services would cover the common times and gaps between work and school schedules. Being that these activities are performed in the actual school that the children attend, these becomes fully useful reconciliation resources for families, as stated by those who use such services and miss these when they are not available.
3. **Creation of urban camps and play centres.** These types of resources facilitate reconciliation between career and family life in a variety of situations. On the one hand, these centres are useful during school holidays, when the parents are unable to take holiday time. On the other, such centres allow parents to perform cultural, educational or work activities in time slots when schools are closed.
4. **Extension and support of Paternity Leave.** Having extended paternity leave has appeared as a magnificent tool to promote ties between fathers and the task of caring for children. That is why this study, and its authors, consider it vital that such leave be extended to all member states, and that this leave should be at least one month in those countries where it is currently less, to eventually be equal to the accepted maternity leave. The Swedish experience shows the convenience of accompanying fiscal benefits with this measure for the families that share paternity leave in an equal manner.
5. **Guideline for momentary permission to care for sick children.** When children are sick, it is important that someone cares for them or accompanies them for medical treatment. In this especially vulnerable situation, children need their parents to care for them. That is why it is crucial that such permission be regulated in those member states where this aspect is not taken into consideration.
6. **Financial Aid.** A high percentage of families in the three regions stated the need for financial support to reconcile their career, family and personal life. Caring for small children generally translates into high costs, which are even greater if there is a lack of public care resources. Therefore, it seems that governments must be reminded of their co-responsibility by facilitating economic aid to families, especially those that are more vulnerable.

6.2. Measures related to work conditions

Both in this and previous studies, families demanded measures related to their work conditions, so that these could be reconciled with family responsibilities. Among these, the most requested were:

1. **Flexibility in the organization of the work day.** This refers to conditions being made available whereby workers can make their work day compatible with their children's school schedules, both kindergarten and mandatory primary or secondary schools. This was the most demanded measure by the families interviewed in all three regions studied and one that has proven its effectiveness most with regards to reconciling career with family or personal life.
2. **Flexibility to organize the distribution of the weekly work time,** which would allow workers to distribute their work hours to best facilitate reconciliation with family and personal time. This measure would obviously have to be coordinated with the needs of each company, which would enforce the regulations and essential limits to guarantee productivity or attend all the functions that must be performed.
3. **The possibility of exchanging overtime for time off.** In line with the aforementioned, the introduction of an organizational work schedule that allows workers to not be paid for working overtime, but to exchange these hours, if they prefer, into time off to attend to family or personal needs. Obviously, this would have to go hand in hand with regulations that limit the possibility of working a maximum amount of overtime throughout the day and the week.
4. **Promotion of tele-work** as an option for all or part of the weekly work hours, or in such case that family situations (the illness of a child, for example) need to be attended to. It is, in addition, a measure that subtracts from the daily time equation for each parent needing to travel to work, which also facilitates reconciliation. Obviously, this measure is not valid for all types of employment, but rather it is reserved for certain professional categories or socioeconomic sectors with a strong administrative or service content.

6.3. Time Policies

There is an urgent need for the launching of "time" policies that contribute to changing the current situation, in which the equations used by public administrations, companies or Trade Unions only contemplates

productive work time. As Cordoni (1993) very well indicated, traditional Trade Union demands negotiated the distribution of a 24-hour day into three, eight-hour modules, one each for work, rest and free time. As can be observed, time for child care was never contemplated in this distribution, because it was conceived from traditional masculine logic. It is essential that time policies be developed in which time is reserved for child care, understood as reproductive work, and therefore to be borne in mind within the total calculation of each worker's work hours. In this regard, it is particularly stimulating to consider the suggestions of the aforementioned author, as well as those of Teresa Torms (2003; 2005) and the QUIT group (Borrás, Torms and Moreno, 2007), as well as their proposals for action, which inspired those detailed herein:

- 1. Design plans that reorganized time in cities and regions.** Reorganize and harmonize the temporal distribution of the time in the city or the region (companies, schools, services, commerce) so that the needs of the individuals and their families can be cared for. City schedules are frequently conceived without any degree of coordination, since they are established by different bodies (industries, educational administrations, health administrations, merchants' associations, etc.). This lack of scheduling coordination is only sustainable from the assumption that in each family there is one person, traditionally a woman, with no professional obligations and who is able to carry out administrative, medical, commercial errands or of another nature at any time. This is not the current reality, nor should one wish for the return of such a system, given the degree of injustice and sacrifice that it brings for women, nor should women have to be forced to continue being some kind of "time jugglers" to coordinate all the tasks they must attend to. The authors of this study urge local communities to establish time-plans in which the schedules in the cities can be harmonized and diversified to attend to the diverse needs of the citizens.
- 2. Implementation of Time Banks.** Setting up time exchange devices among members of the community: each person "lends" time to others in those activities they have access to, and for which they are competent; in turn they are eligible to receive loans from other people in areas where they need help. The exchange unit is an "hour" of time but the organization is not based on reciprocity (For example, A lone mother might need someone to take care for her daughter in the afternoon during the week while she works. That same mother, in turn could resolve administrative problems for a person who is unable to do so, or provide help in mathematics for a person problems in that field).

- 3. Reorganize the productive work time by taking into consideration reproductive and personal work.** Assuming that in the time-equation of each person, not only must the productive work time be borne in mind, but also reproductive work, which is vital for society, as is personal time, greatly demanded by citizens, as this same study has made clear. To this end, it is essential to review the total amount of time dedicated to productive work, as well as its hourly distribution throughout the day, which in certain professional sectors continues to exclude, in fact, accepting care responsibilities. In the proposal from these authors, the extension of the productive work must, in all cases, be reviewed, but this is particularly necessary when there are dependent relatives (very young children, elderly or those with disabilities, for example).

6.4. Promote changes in the shared social representations with regards to gender and family.

It is understood that all of the changes proposed should go hand in hand with a reorganization of the roles performed by men and women, both in the private and in the public sphere. Any measure that is favourable to reconciliation will end up being seen as “for women” if there is not a deep change in the roles undertaken by men and women and are performed within the family scope with regards to co-responsibility at every level. As the QUIT group proved, society is faced with a double resistance to change because, just as this group formulated, “men don’t want to think,” in the sense that they don’t want to include domestic and care-related chores in their lives, while “women don’t want to give in,” in the sense of refusing to delegate and share the responsibility of these same care-related tasks (Torms, 2005). There is an urgent need to establish measures that, at different levels, favour this change of roles:

- 1. Coeducation.** Given the important socializing role of schools, it is fundamental that education contributes to the integrated development both of boys and girls, teaching them to appreciate their differences, but educating them with regards to the equality of rights and opportunities, as well as mutual respect. As the European Parliament (2010) substantiated in its *Report on equality for men and women* in the European Union, education plays a key role both in the promotion of professional choices, unbiased by gender and in encouraging co-responsibility of men and women in the domestic and car-related tasks. Therefore, it is crucial that coeducational programs be carried out in school, designed to combat ingrained gender stereotypes that mark the

roles that men and women perform both in public and in private environments. This will be an essential means to sow an equalitarian future, free of sexist stereotypes and discrimination by reason of gender.

2. **Institutional campaigns to promote equalitarian roles between men and women.** As has been mentioned, the data in this study confirms the need to carry out social interventions that contribute to changing the roles women and men perform in equalitarian. The idea that having family responsibilities means that women have to accept a double work load (productive and reproductive) must come to an end. The same holds true when it comes to giving up their personal time, while for the most part, men are dedicated to their careers and only participate in domestic and care-related tasks as a secondary occupation, without giving up their personal life. For that reason, these authors are of the opinion that public administrations must develop programs dedicated to promote family co-responsibility, coinciding with reconciliation with the career and personal projects of all the members of the family. These programs could be carried out as campaigns in the media, as workshops held at work as a part of worker training, or in any other settings (associations, local institutions, etc).
3. **Campaigns that favour the integration of family diversity.** The data from this study confirms that the new family models have different ways of resolving the reconciliation equation and that some of them are particularly interesting as strategies. Thus, the families with same-sex parents have shown the most equalitarian patterns, with more co-responsibility in all areas, while the families with lone mothers presented a pattern of good administration of the child care resources provided by public administrations or informal networks. Therefore, these authors believe that this data confirms the potential for enrichment that these new family models and strategies contribute to society. It is understood that society is responsible for integrating these family models inclusion and visibility in the different contexts of social life: at school, within the scope of health-care, in the neighbourhood, etc.

6.5. Attention to groups with special needs

This study reveals that of all the families studied, there were two groups that could find themselves in especially vulnerable situations and that require special attention: single mothers and immigrant families.

- 1. Additional Support for Single Mothers.** The conducted research has shown that single parents are one of the groups who are more stressed by conciliation affairs and, in some regions, is the least satisfied with the forms of support offered. The things are particularly difficult for them when they are young, with low educational level and they haven't enough institutional support.

It is necessary to provide institutional support to single parents, both on everyday and extraordinary situations, e.g. during summer and winter holidays, when parents have to attend a school meeting or when they have to go on a business trip. Insufficient forms or complete absence – especially in smaller towns or in rural areas – of this type of support result in the fact that single parents encounter significant difficulties when trying to balance professional and family obligations and are often unable to commence professional work, which greatly decreases their standard of life. Good Swedish practice provides a possibility to single parents to indicate another caretaker of the child, who, in an urgent situation, may look after the child. This form of care is fully reimbursed by the state.

- 2. Support for Immigrant Families.** The research implemented within the scope of the DIVERSIA project has shown that immigrant families living in Małopolska and Andalusia are the families who have more reconciliation problems and who are least satisfied with the available resources and forms of family support. This situation may have many causes. First of all, it can result from the fact that immigrant families lack of access to information about the social policy in the region; they have poorer economic situations, which does not allow them to make use of paid solutions; they have poorer professional situations, which hinders them from enjoying the reconciliation measures offered by companies. Also, in societies where the standard social policy greatly relies on support from grandparents or other relatives, first generation immigrants have more problems as they scarcely make use of this solution.

In relation to this, the group should be provided with a special form of support that would primarily rely on facilitating then information about social and family policy, using cultural mediators, friendly offices or information stands and counselling points for them. They also should be provided with institutional support for caring children both in daily and extraordinary situations.



7. References

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annex:
interview



Reconciliation in diverse families interview (R.D.F.I)

Interviewer: Interview Date: / /

CONTACT INFORMATION:

INTERVIEWED

Name and Surname:..... Age:

Address:

City:..... Country:Email:

Contact Phone: //.....

PARTNER

Name and Surname:.....

INSTRUCTIONS:

Good morning/ Good afternoon.

My name is _____ and I'm calling you from _____ (*University of Seville and the Andalusia Women's Institute; Municipality of Sodertalje; Association of cities and countries of Malopolska*)
(Adjusted to each region)

We are doing a research about reconciliation in _____ (*Andalusian/Polish/Swedish*) families. We want to know what resources you use to attend both your family and your working responsibilities and also to have some time for yourself. This study will be very useful for the design of measures that facilitate the reconciliation issues in _____ (*Andalusia/Malopolska/Stockholm Region*).

So, we invite you to participate in this research, answering some questions about these subjects, which will not take up to you more than 15 minutes. Please, answer honestly to then, because there aren't good or bad answers, but different family solutions to the reconciliation problems.

We guarantee that this interview is confidential. Your identity will be hidden by a code and all data will be protected by the law _____ (*Organic Law of Data Protection (15/1999 of 13 December)*). Furthermore, you may revoke the consent for using your data in this research at any time.

So, if you don't have any problems, let's start the interview.

Observations

Reconciliation in diverse families interview (R.D.F.I)

Family Code _____

Family type:

1. Two heterosexual parents
2. Two same-sex parents
3. Immigrant parents
4. Single mother

Sociodemographic data

INTERVIEWED DETAILS

<p>1. Sex</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Woman 2. Man <p>2. How old are you? _____</p>	<p>3. What's your marital status?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced 4. Partnership 	<p>4. What's your living situation?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lives with a heterosexual partner and children 2. Lives with a same-sex partner and children 3. Lives alone with her/his children 4. Other _____ <p><i>If there isn't correspondence with these situations, stop interview.</i></p>
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<p>5. Are you working?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Yes No (Stop interview) 	<p>6. Educational level:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Less than Elementary Elementary school studies Lower secondary education Upper secondary education/High school studies University studies 	<p>7. Now, I want to know how many children do you have, what's their sex, their age and if they are at school:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="997 347 1470 810"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Sex</th> <th>Age</th> <th>Schooling</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>1. Son 2. Daughter</td> <td></td> <td>1. Yes 2. No</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2</td> <td>1. Son 2. Daughter</td> <td></td> <td>1. Yes 2. No</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3</td> <td>1. Son 2. Daughter</td> <td></td> <td>1. Yes 2. No</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4</td> <td>1. Son 2. Daughter</td> <td></td> <td>1. Yes 2.No</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5</td> <td>1. Son 2. Daughter</td> <td></td> <td>1. Yes 2. No</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p><i>If the oldest child is above 13, stop interview</i></p>		Sex	Age	Schooling	1	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No	2	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No	3	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No	4	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2.No	5	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No
	Sex	Age	Schooling																							
1	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No																							
2	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No																							
3	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No																							
4	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2.No																							
5	1. Son 2. Daughter		1. Yes 2. No																							

PARTNER DETAILS (if living together)

<p>8. Sex</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Woman Man <p>9. How old is he/she? _____</p>	<p>10. Marital status:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Single Married Divorced Partnership 	<p>11. Educational level:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Less than Elementary Elementary school studies Lower secondary education Upper secondary education/ High school studies University studies
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Employment Circumstances

EMPLOYMENT *-interviewed*

<p>12. What is your job?</p> <hr/> <p>13. Do you work in a public sector or a private company?</p> <p>1. Public 2. Private</p>	<p>14. What is your current employment situation?</p> <p>1. Employed 2. Self employed 3. Internship/Vocational Training 4. Working without legal contract</p>	<p>15. What type of contract do you have?</p> <p>1. Permanent 2. Temporary or seasonal 3. Self-employed</p>
<p>16. How many hours do you usually work per week?</p> <hr/> <p>17. Do you work during the weekend?</p> <p>1. Yes 2. No 3. Sometimes</p>	<p>18. What type of work schedule do you have?</p> <p>1. Continuous shift (e.g. 9:00-17:00) 2. Split shift (e.g. 9:00-13:00 and 17:00-21:00) 3. Rotating shift 4. Morning and 1-2 evenings 5. Flexible working day 6. Others: _____</p>	<p>19. What is your approximate monthly income?</p> <p>1. Less than 1 Minimum Salary (MS)* 2. Between 1MS +1 to 2 MS 3. Between 2MS +1 to 3 MS 4. Between 3MS +1 to 4 MS 5. Between 4MS +1 to 5 MS 6. Above 5 MS</p>

**Adjusted to each region minimum salary*

(if he/she has partner) EMPLOYMENT-INTERVIEWED'S PARTNER.

<p>20. What is his/her job?</p> <hr/> <p>21. Does he/she work in a public sector or a private company?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Public 2. Private 	<p>22. What is his/her current employment situation?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Employed 2. Self employed 3. Internship/Vocational Training 4. Working without legal contrat 	<p>23. What type of contract does he/she have?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Permanent 2. Temporary/Seasonal 3. Self-employed
<p>24. How many hours does he/she usually work per week?</p> <hr/> <p>25. Does he/she work during the weekend?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes 2. No 3. Sometimes 	<p>226. What type of work schedule does he/she you have?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Continuous shift (e.g.. 9:00-17:00) 2.Split shift (e.g.: 9:00-13:00 and 17:00-21:00) 3.Rotating shift 4. Morning and 1-2 evenings 5. Flexible working day 6.Others: _____ 	<p>27. What is his/her approximate monthly income?*</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Less than 1 Minimum Salary (MS)* 2. Between 1MS +1 to 2 MS 3. Between 2MS +1 to 3 MS 4. Between 3MS +1 to 4 MS 5. Between 4MS +1 to 5 MS 6. Above 5 MS

*Adjusted to each region

28. We would like to know to what extent your work causes stress in your life. Please, answer on a scale from 1 to 5, in which 1 is “For me, my work is not stressful” and 5 “For me, my work is very stressful”.

“Not stressful” 1 2 3 4 5 “Very stressful”

Children care

29. In your family, who takes care of the children in each of these daily life situations? Please, tell me all people involved in these situations. (You may mark more than one answer)

WHO TAKES CARE? DAILY LIFE SITUATIONS	Interviewed	Partner If he/ she has partner	Grandparents		Other relatives		Baby sitter	Institutional care	Others	Not applicable
			♀	♂	♀	♂				
Caring for children before going to school (hygiene, breakfast)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Take / bring the children to school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Lunch time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Supervise homework	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Deal with extracurricular and leisure activities (sports, parties,)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Dinner time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Bedtime routines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10

30. And again in your family, who takes care of the children in the following special situations? Please, tell me all people involved in these situations. (You may mark more than one answer)

Special situations	Interviewed	Partner <i>If he/she has partner</i>	Grandparents		Other relatives		Baby sitter	Institutional care	Others	Not applicable
			♀	♂	♀	♂				
Taking care of when a child is sick	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
School holidays	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Strikes at school, career not available	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
You should travel for work reasons	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Your partner should travel for work reasons	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Take the children to the doctor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Attend school meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
You should work during the weekend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10
Your partner should work during the weekend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 -----	10

31. How do you feel about the tasks of caring for your children in a scale from 1 to 5, in which 1 is “I have no difficulties at all. I feel relaxed”, and 5 is “I feel I have many difficulties. I’m overwhelmed”.

No difficulties. Relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 Many difficulties. Overwhelmed

Other dependent people care

32. In addition to your children, do you have to take care of any other dependent person?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No (go to question 36)

(For people who have dependent people to care) **33. Now I will read to you different care tasks that, generally, you need to develop with dependent people. Please, tell me who usually performs those tasks (Table)**

34. How many hours do you and your partner spend to these tasks in a week? (Table)

Care tasks	33. Who usually performs this task?						
	Interviewed	Partner <i>If he/she has partner</i>	Relatives		Paid person	Institutional care	Others
			♀	♂			
Keeping company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Help in household chores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hygienic care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Health care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Make and give them lunch or dinner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Night care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Document Management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trips to centers (health, day-care)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Number of hours/week							

35. How do you do feel about the tasks of caring for dependent people in a scale from 1 to 5, in which 1 is “I have no difficulties at all, I feel relaxed”, and 5 is “I feel I have many difficulties. I’m overwhelmed”.

No difficulties. Relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 Many difficulties. Overwhelmed

Resources for children and other dependent people care

36. How often do you use the following resources to care for children or other dependent people?

Resources	Frequency of use			
	Never	1-2 time/ month or less	1-2 times per week	Almost daily
Children care				
Morning class	1	2	3	4
School canteen	1	2	3	4
Extracurricular activities	1	2	3	4
Recreation center/ Nursery school	1	2	3	4
Urban camps, summer camps,...	1	2	3	4
<i>(For people who have dependent people to care)</i>				
Other dependent people care				
Call Assistance service	1	2	3	4
Home care programs (Social Service)	1	2	3	4
Day-care Centres	1	2	3	4
Night Centres	1	2	3	4
Residential Care Services	1	2	3	4
Family Respite Programs	1	2	3	4
Others_____	1	2	3	4
Otros_____	1	2	3	4

37. On a scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 is “Extremely dissatisfied” and 5 is “Extremely satisfied,” to what extent are you satisfied with the resources or people who help you care for minors or other dependent people?

Extremely dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely satisfied

38. Let’s talk about the reconciliation measures that companies may launch, some of them guaranteed by law. Tell me which of these measures are in the company for which you or your partner works.

39. Also, could you tell us if you are taking advantage of any of these measures or if you have used them at any given time?

40. If there is the measure and the parents don’t use it. Why don’t you use it or why haven’t you used it?

	38. Does it exist?		39. Use it or used it?		40. Why don't you use it?
	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
1. Flexibility in daily working hours distribution	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
2. Flexibility in weekly working hours distribution	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
3. Part-time work to meet family responsibilities	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
4. Absence leaves	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
5. Free days for special family situations	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
6. Teleworking	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
7. Two days of possible absence, paid for parents who have children below 14 years old.	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
8. Special arrangements after coming back to work after maternity leaves (e.g. period of transition when a woman works half-time)	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
9. Reduced working hours for breastfeeding	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
10. Extended paternity/maternity leave	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
<i>Ask only to employed workers</i>					
11. Financial assistance for family expenses	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
12. Workplace nursery	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	
13. Others_____	1. Yes	2. No	1. Yes	2. No	

41. On a scale from 1 to 5, in which 1 is “Extremely dissatisfied” and 5 is “Extremely satisfied,” to what extent are you satisfied with the reconciliation measures your company is offering you?

Extremely dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely satisfied

Reconciliation and domestic co-responsibility

42. Have you, your partner (if he/she has one) or both of you ever used the following reconciliation strategies?
(Read the strategies in the task below, and mark then only if they are used by the family in the case of the first five ones, and by the interviewed or his/her partner in the case of the three last ones)

	Situations	
Bring near home and workplace	1. Yes	
Bring near home and school	1. Yes	
Bring near school and workplace	1. Yes	
Bring near school and relative's home	1. Yes	
Postponing having children for work and economic reasons	1. Yes	
Stop working during a temporary period for care reasons	1. Interviewed	2. Partner
Giving up career goals: promotion, management positions ...	1. Interviewed	2. Partner
Job change to facilitate the care of children or other dependent people	1. Interviewed	2. Partner

43. Then, we would like to know if you have turned to the following situations to solve any unexpected events. How often you do have used them, both your partner and you.

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Very often	
	I	P	I	P	I	P	I	P	I	P
Take the children and/or other dependent people with you to your work	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5
Stop working during a temporary period for care reasons	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5
Leave young children or other dependent people alone at home	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5

44. Please, could you tell me who performs the following tasks at home? (Read the task below)

Domestic tasks	Interviewed	Partner <i>If he/she has partner</i>	Children (indicate child's number)	Relative	Paid person	Others
Prepare food	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Wash the dishes	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Make minor repairs at home	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Vacuum clean or mop the floor	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Throw trash	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Domestic shopping	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Pay bills, receipts	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Wash clothes	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Write letters, call family, friends	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Car care	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Pet care	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6
Care for plants or a garden	1	2	3 _____	4	5	6

45. (Only for those who have a partner) On a scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 is “Extremely dissatisfied” and 5 is “Extremely satisfied,” to what extent are you satisfied with the domestic tasks distribution between you and your partner?

Extremely dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely satisfied

Personal life reconciliation

46. Here are a series of questions linked to the possibility of enjoying a certain degree of personal time**. I am going to read a series of questions and I would like you to answer them according to how frequency they do happen in a scale where 1 is “Never” while 5 is “Almost daily”.

	Never	1-2 times per year	1-2 times per month	1-2 times per week	Almost daily
1. How often do you have time for yourself **?	1	2	3	4	5
2. <i>If he/she has partner</i> How often does your partner have time for him/herself**?	1	2	3	4	5
3. <i>If he/she has partner</i> How often do you and your partner spend time together and without the children or other dependent people?	1	2	3	4	5

**Personal time is considered the time you dedicate to yourself, your hobbies, sports, entertainment, social relations, pleasure reading, holiday travel and tourism.

47. On a scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 is “Extremely dissatisfied” and 5 is “Extremely satisfied,” to what extent are you satisfied with the free time/personal time/time for yourself that you have.

Extremely dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely satisfied

Final reflections

48. Summarizing your experience of reconciling the different areas of your life. Do you think that you have reconciliation problems in a broad sense on a scale from 1 to 5. in which 1 is “ I don’t have problems” and 5 “ I frequently have problems”?

I don’t have any problems (go to question 50) 1 2 3 4 5 I frequently have problems

49. If the previous answer “2” to “5”, continue: What are the main reconciliation problems you are experiencing? (Don’t read the options, but let respondent to tell you the answers freely. You may mark more than one answer. Note carefully any answer that does not fit the list presented.)

- 1. Problems adjusting the work schedule with the school schedule
- 2. Summer or other school holidays
- 3. Lack of resources to care for sick children
- 4. High cost of private nursery school
- 5. Lack of places at nursery schools
- 6. The distance between home and the workplace
- 7. The distance between home and school
- 8. Lack of a family support network
- 9. Lack of coresponsibility from the partner
- 10. Insufficient resources to care for the elderly or other dependent people
- 11. Sense of overwhelmed
- 12. Lack of personal time
- 13. Others (specify) -----

50. If you think now in the different tasks that you should daily cope (children care, domestic tasks, professional responsibilities...) How do you feel about coping them in a scale from 1 to 5, in which 1 is "I have no difficulties at all. I feel relaxed" to 5 "I feel I have many difficulties. I'm overwhelmed".

No difficulties. Relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 Many difficulties. Overwhelmed

51. In your opinion, what reconciliation measures could your government, your company or even your family develop to improve the reconciliation of your family, personal and working life? I will tell to you different possible reconciliation measures. Please, you mark the 3 most important and useful measures for you. (Read the reconciliation measures)

1. School canteen
 2. Morning class
 3. Extracurricular activities
 4. Urban camps, summer camps,...
 5. Part-time work to meet family responsibilities
 6. Reduced working hours for breastfeeding
 7. Extending paternity/maternity leave
 8. Flexibility in working hours distribution
 9. Free days for special family situations
 10. Absence leaves
 11. Adjusting the work schedule with the school schedule
 12. Teleworking
 13. Workplace nursery
 14. Financial aid
 15. More extended family support in everyday situations
 16. More extended family support in special situations
 17. (If you have one) More corresponsability from your partner
 18. Othes -----
-

52. To conclude this questionnaire, now I will read to you some statements about your life with which you may agree or disagree. Using a 1 to 7-point scale, where 1 is “I totally disagree” and 7 is “I totally agree”, would you please grade the following statements? Remember there are not good or bad answers, only your personal point of view (SWLS).

	Totally disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Totally agree
In most ways your life is close to your ideal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
The conditions of your life are excellent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
You are satisfied with your life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
So far you have gotten the important things you wanted in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
If you could live your life over, you would not change anything	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

