



Women's working time and its determinants

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Responses from working women (N=10 619) from 24 European countries (ESS R2) were analysed in this paper. The list of analysed characteristics comprised: female labour supply (measured as number of weekly hours worked) and a list of its potential determinants such as income, education, present life circumstances (children living at home, unpaid help available) and family background (whether mother was working when subject was 14) as well as beliefs regarding equal work opportunities between men and women. Results indicate that e.g. actual female labour supply does not coincide in most countries with women's expectations. In some countries women reported to work fewer hours than they would like and in other countries they affirmed they work more hours than they would prefer. The relationship between female labour supply and selected determinants was statistically confirmed.

Working women. Working time. Determinants of the labour supply. ESS.

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The International Labour Organization report shows that rate of female labour force participation has increased from 50, 2 to 51, 7 per cent between 1980 and 2008 (ILO report, 2010).

Changes in work and family situation of women have taken place in a very rapid manner in the whole of Europe from the sixties. In fact, the rates of women's activity and occupation have drastically increased in the whole of Europe, mainly in the last two decades, except in Southern European countries, where the increments have been more moderate.

There are also substantial differences in the rates of women activity and occupation as well as in the conditions to access the labour market. That shows obvious differences in the institutional frame of the welfare states concerning family and employment policies, which have conditioned the employment and family strategies adopted by women in the different welfare states. Large discrepancies remain between actual and preferred employment patterns, pointing to a large potential for increasing female labour participation.

The labour market structure has moved from being reserved to the male breadwinner to become an open space for women, which undoubtedly has been linked to the change in the family structure, in the family policies and in the own market structure (Deutsch and Saxon (1998). The differences become obvious

when we compare the trajectory of the welfare states, the family changes and so the division of homework in Northern and Southern Europe. Male breadwinner model is still much more common among couples with young children than seems to be desired (Jaumotte, 2003).

Attempts for equalling gender work-roles together with the economic situation in majority of the households lead to the point that for many families it is necessary both partners earn money and it brings a need for dividing household responsibilities.

The progress in the field of equality and dividing household responsibilities will not become reality unless the change in gender stereotypes perception will be done. (Coltrane in Saginak K., Saginak M., 2005).

Motherhood

Observation of the labour market pointed to weak position of women in terms of job attachment, employment and earnings relative to men.

There is substantial evidence that women's attachment to the labour market is closely related with fertility decisions. Women have more job interruptions and of longer duration than males (80% of these interruptions are related to maternity, while only 1% of men's interruptions are related to family).

Hochschild states (Cassidy, Davies, 2003) that employed mothers often experience excessive demand when thinking about their children care, household care and simultaneously about their duties at work.

Many of the disadvantaging effects that motherhood has on women's workplace derive from the devalued social status attached to the task of being a primary caregiver. (Ridgeway, Correll, 2004). Even in those circumstances in which both parents are employed full-time, the primary child care duties continue to fall on the mother's shoulders (Biernat, Wortman, 1991).

In the last decades the roles carried out by mothers and fathers have shifted dramatically as more and more mothers have entered the labour force. One might expect that the increase in dual employment would be accompanied by a loosening of expectations about which parent should be primarily responsible for child care. However, traditional societal mandates for mothers and fathers have had lingering effect. (Riggs, 2005).

There are disputes about mother's perception of children as an obstacle for entering the labour market. Henkens, Grift and Siegers (2002) argue that both for married and cohabiting women the effect of the presence of children in the household on labour supply lost importance. This can be seen as reflecting the developments and policies, including the growing acceptance of mothers working for pay, the increase in women working part-time - especially those working on very short hours.

Economic inequalities

Economic inequalities between men and women are persistent. Despite signs of progress in gender equality over past 15 years, there is still a significant gap between women and men in terms of job opportunities and quality of employment (ILO report, 2010). Arber (Pahl, 2007) claims that even when couples are both in full time employment, only 15 % of women earn more than their partner, compared with 57 % of couples where the man earns more than his partner. Women's economic disadvantages in the labour market and the gendered ideologies within which households are imbedded are translated into women's additional responsibilities for domestic work and childcare within the family, which in turn reduces their ability to participate fully in the labour market.

The increase in female labour market participation is seen as desirable from the viewpoint of equality as well as from the viewpoint of economic necessity. The equality argument is related to effectuating an improved distribution of paid labour across men and women and related to this, the realization of economic independence for women. The argument of economic necessity is related to the present and especially the foreseen shortage in the labour market.

Flexibility of working time arrangements

Flexible working time arrangements, and in particular, the possibility to work part-time help women to combine market work with traditional family responsibilities. Part-time working is often seen as a means to facilitate the integration of women in the labour market, by allowing them to combine market work

with family responsibilities.

More than 40 per cent part-timers in Austria, Germany, Switzerland and UK work part-time because they have to look after children or adults (such as elderly family members). The possibility to find a part time job can thus be crucial to the labour force participation of these women (OECD Economics Department, May 2004).

One indication of this is that even in a country like the Netherlands, where part-time working is fairly common, Euwals (2001) finds that the flexibility of working hours is low, and women who want to work substantially fewer hours have a higher propensity to leave the labour market.

According to Fuchs (1998) the desire (or need) for women to work only part-time contributes to gender segregation because occupations differ considerably in the opportunities they afford for part-time work: the more female occupation, the higher proportion of both males and females who work part time, and the smaller the proportion who work long hours.

Tax incentives to share market work between spouses may have a substantial impact on the female supply of part-time labour.

The supply of part-time labour by women is, to a large extent, driven by the gender-roles model. Thus, a part-time job is usually preferred over a full-time one by married women, mothers of young children, lower-educated women, and wealthy women (OECD Economics Department, May 2004; Falzone, 2000).

The availability of affordable childcare and parental leave can affect both the choice between inactivity and activity, and the choice between part-time and full-time participation.

Not very optimistic impression evokes Tarkowska's (2002) findings. She emphasizes that earning money undertaken by women does not replace their housework duties and activities

Her finding could be sum in a following scheme:

Employed woman: work + family + housework

Employed man: work

Unemployed woman: family + housework

Unemployed man: leisure time

According to the Tarkowska's research, wives but also daughters are very often the most overworked members of the family.

Number of Working hours

Many women face a conflict between families and career which not only affects occupational choice but also hours of work (Fuchs, 1989).

Based on the Dutch Socio-Economic Panel, Euwals (2001) concludes, that women who want to work fewer hours are more likely to stop working. He has also found out that job mobility is mainly driven by wage-considerations, and that considerations of working hours play a minor role. Euwals further states that women who stay in the same job are less likely to experience a change in their working hours, although in the case where they want to work a substantially different number of working hours, the probability of changing their working hours increase. Not only are women likely to work part-time, but even those who have full-time jobs are much less likely than men to work more than 40hours per week (Fuchs, 1989).

Method

This paper aims to assess the role of various factors in determining the pattern of female labour participation in Europe. More specifically, the core problem of the study was to describe the relationship between female labour supply (measured as number of weekly hours worked and as female employment

rate) and a list of its potential determinants such as income, education, present life circumstances (children living at home, unpaid help available), family background (whether mother was working when subject was 14) as well as beliefs regarding equal work opportunities between men and women. For obtaining more detailed and specific results, the relationships between selected „determinants“ were analysed as well as differences between specific groups Women living with children at home and women living without children.

Data from Eurostat (23 countries) and the European Social Survey were analysed.

As statistical method analyses of frequencies, t-tests for equality of means, correlation analyses and regression analyses were used.

Sample

10 619 working women (aged 16 - 64) from 24 European countries participated in the European Social Survey. Data used in this paper comes from the ESS Round 2 and were collected in 2004.

Variables

To perform the regression analysis the variable „total hours normally worked per week in main job overtime included“ was treated as the dependent variable. Independent variables were as follow: years of full-time education completed (continuous), monthly gross income (continuous), children living at home (dummy), „getting unpaid help for housework from anyone outside the housework“ (dummy), „mother´s employment status when respondent was 14“ (dummy), and two belief variables: „Women should be prepared to cut down on paid work for sake of family“ and „Men should take as much responsibility as women for home and children“ (Respondents answered on a 5 point scale, 1- agree strongly, 5 - disagree strongly).

We also included in one correlation matrix other variables derived from Eurostat data such as „% of women in secondary education“, „ % of women among students of tertiary education“, „Average women´s earnings“, „Average men´s earnings“, „Gender pay gap“, „Female and male´ employment and unemployment rates“, „% of females and males working part-time“ and „GDP per capita“. All sorted by country.

We have also conducted t-tests for Equality of Means and calculated Eta-squared values to asses the impact of „having dependent children living at home“ on „total hours normally worked per week“, „How many hours would choose to work weekly“ and „Total time spent on housework on typical weekdays and weekends“ among European working women of 25 to 35 years of age.

Results

Female labour supply

Correlation analyses and regression analyses results indicate that the number of working hours correlates significantly negatively with the GDP; $r = -0,643^{**}$, and negative correlation were confirmed also with the average earnings of both women and men; $r = -0,759^{**}$ for average women´s earnings; $r = -0,765^{**}$ for average men´s earnings. Significant positive correlation were confirmed between the amount of working hours and belief „Men should take as much responsibility for home and children as women“; $r = 0,417^{*}$.

Interestingly enough, between the number of working hours and women´s preferences for working hours there is a very strong positive correlation; $r = 0,890^{**}$, indicating that women who work more hours tend to prefer to work more hours than those who work fewer hours.

Regression results indicate negative relationship between the dependent variable: total hours normally worked per week in main job overtime included and situation in following countries Switzerland beta = $-0,306$, sig = 0,000; Denmark beta = $-0,33$, sig = 0,000; Netherlands beta = $-0,290$, sig = 0,000; Norway beta = $-0,361$, sig = 0,000. Positive results were obtained for the relationship between the dependent variable and monthly gross income beta $0,595$, sig = 0,000 and negative relationship was confirmed for the respondents´ age; beta = $-0,134$, sig = 0,000 (see table attached).

The t-test for Equality of Means showed that among women of 25 to 35 years of age (N=2150) there is a significant relationship between „total hours normally worked“, and whether the woman has dependent children at home or not. While the former declare to work on average 35, 53 hours per week, the latest affirm to work 39, 57 hours. The value of calculated Eta-square suggests that at least 28% of this difference could be attributed to having children at home (see table).

As for female employment rates, the correlation matrix shows they are higher in wealthier countries and where there are larger numbers of part-time jobs.

Education

Years of schooling have a light negative impact on working hours; beta = -0,088, sig = 0,000. It seems that lower educated women work on average more hours than higher educated ones.

Correlation matrix results show negative correlation between percentage of working women completed tertiary education and part-time work engagement (r = -0,361*[1]).

Positive correlation was also confirmed for the percentage of women completed tertiary education and their agreement with the statement men should take as much responsibility for home and children as women (r = 0,486*).

Results indicate positive correlation between the percentage of women completed secondary education and gender pay gap (r = 0,404*).

No significant effect of education on employment rate was found.

Income

Average women's earnings correlated positively with the female employment rate (r = 0,673**) and also with part-time work (r = 0,800**).

Negative correlation were confirmed between average women's earnings and average women's working hours (r = -0,759**), between income and female unemployment rate (r = -0,642**) and between income and the number of hours women would choose to work weekly (r = -0,878**).

Regression analyses results confirmed the income as the strongest factor determining the number of working hours; beta = 0,595, sig = 0,000.

Children at home

Regression model results confirm a light negative impact on working hours; beta = -0,054, sig = 0,015 for the factor „having children at home“. The similar results were obtained for the variable „looking after children in household“ where a light negative impact on the total hours normally worked per week was confirmed; beta = -0,51, sig = 0,001. This negative signs show that having children or dependent persons living in the household decreases the average number of working hours women provide. This is confirmed by results from t-tests performed only among women of 25 to 35 years of age, pointing out that the average working hours of women with children is 35, 53 and 39,57 for women without children. These differences were highly significant, (t = 7,87***; Eta = 0,028). And the Eta-test shows that 28% of the variance of „total hours normally worked per week“ between women living with children and women without children at home could be explained by having children at home.

Women living with children at home work, therefore, about 4 working hours per week less than women living without children. With the same sample (women aged 25-35) also differences in preferred working hours were analysed. Results indicate again significant differences between the group of women living with children at home and between the group of women living without children (t = 6,434***, Eta = 0,019). Women living with children at home would choose on average about 2 working hours per week less than women living without children.

Differences between working women having children at home and working women living without children in hours spent by housework on weekday were significant at 0,001 level, t = 6,998, with Eta coefficient suggesting this could explain up to 31% of the variance. Means show that women with children devote about 1 hour on a weekday to housework more than women without children.

Differences between working women having children at home and working women living without children

in hours spent by housework on weekend were significant at 0,001 level, $t=6,728$. Having children explains 29% of the variance. Means show that women with children devote more than one hour to housework on weekends than women living without children.

Mother working when respondent was 14

Having a working mother at 14 also has a light but positive impact on the number of working hours; $\beta = 0,04$, $\text{sig} = 0,009$.

Unpaid help available

The examined variable „get unpaid help to do housework from anyone outside the housework“ was not confirmed as one of working hours determining factors. Probably because who do not get help might actually not need it at all if they have no dependent children.

Women should be prepared to cut down on paid work for sake of family

The effect of women's beliefs was also examined. Regression analyses results did not show any effect between the agreement with the statement and number of working hours and the results of correlation matrix either.

Men should take as much responsibility for home and children as women

Correlation matrix results show a significant negative relationship between part-time work and the level of agreement with the statement ($r = -0,445^*$). Significant positive correlation was confirmed between the number of women in tertiary education and the women's tendency to agree with the statement ($r = 0,486^*$). The same relationship (significant positive correlation) was confirmed between the number of working hours and the level of agreement with the statement ($r = 0,417^*$).

Discussion

Analysing determinants of female labour supply confirmed the findings of Prieto-Rodríguez, Rodríguez-Gutiérrez (2003) that the most important factor related to the number of working hours is income.

Education turned out being important determining factor affecting the number of working hours. Results revealed that higher educated women work less than those with lower level of achieved education. Regarding the part-time work, women with tertiary education are found in part-time jobs less than the others.

Surprisingly, no significant impact of education on employment rates was found. One possible explanation is that the availability of part-time jobs in particular part-time jobs for low skilled female labour - that exist in some countries, make impossible to assess the real impact of education when making cross-country comparisons. Also the situation of the most recent members of the EU where education levels are relatively high but where labour market is still under a restructuring and adapting process and with above average unemployment rates, contribute to „hide“ the relationship between education and female employment.

The comparison of women living with children and living without them aged 25 - 35 revealed the differences in working hours, preferred working hours, and hours spent in housework in more proper way. These findings highlighted the importance of taking the age characteristics into account for the future studies. In general, our findings correspond to some extent with the conclusions of Fuchs (1998) who has argued that the greatest barrier to economic equality is children.

The other examined factors: mother working when respondent was 14, unpaid help for housework available, and beliefs showed small or no impact on the number of working hours what is from our point of view a surprising finding.

It was quite realistic to expect that beliefs have little impact on working hours. One possible interpretation could be that women who work fewer or more hours do so because of other reasons, and not because they feel or believe things should be that way. We believe that country of residence (and the country-specific local female unemployment rates and average wages) or (as shown in correlation

analysis) availability of part-time jobs, play a greater role than values and beliefs. Interesting point in this finding is that degree of agreement with statement on woman's sacrifices for family varied more in comparison to the degree of agreement with the statement on men's responsibilities. Women in Europe are more homogenous in beliefs that men's should be more helpful but there are still barriers to decide between work and family.

Conclusions

What determines female labour supply? First of all, we found that it is essential to distinguish between two concepts: female employment rates and average weekly worked hours. Although both concepts relate to female labour supply, they do not necessarily go together, as for many women, working becomes a more feasible option if they can do it part-time.

With respect to female employment rates, they tend to be higher in wealthier countries, with more dynamic labour markets, rather low unemployment (for both males and females) and higher average earnings. These countries have economies capable of offering larger number of employments, in particular part-time jobs. However, despite the rather high prevalence of part-time employment, women from these countries show a stronger tendency to affirm that they would prefer to work fewer hours, which suggests that their integration into the labour market is far from being attained.

The analysis of European working women using ESS 2002 data has offered a deeper insight into the subject. Women from lower income countries declare to prefer to work even more hours although they already work on average more weekly hours than women from higher income countries. If wages are higher in wealthier countries, why so many women accept to bear the opportunity cost derived from working fewer hours? One plausible explanation is that many women value leisure time more than they value extra income from working more hours or from working full time. We have found that women with children at home work significantly fewer hours than those without dependent children and would still prefer to work even fewer. Another significant difference between women with children at home and those without is that the formers declare to spend more hours on housework, both weekdays and weekends. This preference for more leisure time (part of which would be devoted to housework) becomes stronger where earnings are higher because basic economic needs of the household can be covered with fewer hours of paid work. This effect is accentuated by the presence in the household of an economically active husband or partner whose earnings tend to be, on average, higher than women.

Economic prosperity brings not only better education to women but also opens opportunities for them in the labour market. However, the burden of housework - in particular among those with dependent children - might be hampering the potential of many women to perform at their full capabilities in the labour market. The unequal share of housework between men and women causes that the latest show a preference for paid work over leisure time that is much weaker than men's, thus reducing the pace of their integration in the labour market. The strength of this circumstance becomes more obvious when data show that the overwhelming majority of European women, regardless of their country, declare that their husbands and partners should become equally responsible for housework.

Nowadays, women's labour supply can no longer be attributed exclusively to cultural context or personal background circumstances such as low education or the lack of a working mother as a role model. Our results have shown that the impact of these variables is not different from the impact of having children at home, and we forecast that as lower income countries become more prosperous and their economies begin to provide higher earnings and larger numbers of part-time jobs, statistical analysis such the present one will show a greater impact of children on female labour supply in Europe. Unless a more balanced share of the housework between partners or spouses becomes universalized, there will be more female employment (in particular part-time employment) but fewer average weekly worked hours per woman.

Our short study pointed out, that not just earnings, but also education, family background (children at home) and to some extent also beliefs and preferences to work more are all factors affecting the time women work per week.

Knowing determinant enables to make attractive labour market conditions resulting to make more women work and becoming independent. During the last few decades married women became more economically independent inasmuch as their labour supply became less dependent on their partner's income (Henkens, Grift, Siegers, 2002). Vogel argues that promoting economic independence and other means of personal fulfilment, gainful employment is the key to equal opportunity for women (1998).

We are aware of limitations of our study. For better understanding of female labour supply determinants, the cross-cultural differences should be considered.

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Pracovný čas zamestnaných žien a jeho determinanty

V príspevku analyzujeme odpovede zamestnaných žien (N = 10.619) z 24 európskych krajín (respondentky 2. kola Európskej sociálnej sondy) na položky týkajúce sa pracovného času (počet pracovných hodín za týždeň), príjmu, vzdelania, aktuálnej rodinnej situácie (deti žijúce v domácnosti, dostupnosť neplatenej pomoci) a rodinného prostredia (či ich matka pracovala v čase, keď respondentka mala 14 rokov), ako aj ich presvedčenia týkajúce sa rovnosti pracovných príležitostí medzi mužmi a ženami. Výsledky poukazujú na fakt, že množstvo pracovného času žien v mnohých krajinách nie je v súlade s ich očakávaniami. V niektorých krajinách by si ženy želali pracovať menej ako momentálne pracujú, v iných by, naopak, chceli pracovať ešte viac. Zistenia potvrdili súvislosti medzi množstvom pracovného času a sledovanými determinantmi.

Appendix:

Regression model

Model Summary

Resumen del modelo

Modelo	R	R cuadrado	R cuadrado corregida	Error típ. de la estimación
1	,575 ^a	,331	,323	8,634

a.

Variables predictoras: (Constante), Men should take as much responsibility as women for home and children, Slovenia, Greece, Iceland, Portugal, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Belgium, Number of people living regularly as member of household, Get unpaid help to do housework from anyone outside the household, Czech Republic, Ireland, Hungary, Germany, Estonia, Slovakia, Domicile, Hours worked by husband / partner, Ukraine, Netherlands, Poland, United Kingdom, Switzerland, Age, France, Years of full-time education completed, Proportion of household income respondent provides, Denmark, Mother's employment status when respondent was 14, Woman should be prepared to cut down on paid work for sake of family, Look after children or elderly in household, Finland, Norway, Children living at home, Monthly gross income (ESS scale), Sweden

R cuadrado- R square; R cuadrado corregida- R square adjusted

ANOVA^b

Modelo		Suma de cuadrados	gl	Media cuadrática	F	Sig.
1	Regresión	126875,814	37	3429,076	45,998	,000 ^a
	Residual	256894,213	3446	74,549		
	Total	383770,027	3483			

- a. Variables predictoras: (Constante), Men should take as much responsibility as women for home and children, Slovenia, Greece, Iceland, Portugal, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Belgium, Number of people living regularly as member of household, Get unpaid help to do housework from anyone outside the household, Czech Republic, Ireland, Hungary, Germany, Estonia, Slovakia, Domicile, Hours worked by husband / partner, Ukraine, Netherlands, Poland, United Kingdom, Switzerland, Age, France, Years of full-time education completed, Proportion of household income respondent provides, Denmark, Mother's employment status when respondent was 14, Woman should be prepared to cut down on paid work for sake of family, Look after children or elderly in household, Finland, Norway, Children living at home, Monthly gross income (ESS scale), Sweden
- b. Variable dependiente: Total hours normally worked per week in main job overtime included

Coefficientes^a

Modelo		Coeficientes no estandarizados		Coeficientes estandarizados	t	Sig.
		B	Error típ.	Beta		
1	(Constante)	31,512	2,522		12,493	,000
	Austria	-8,986	2,272	-,130	-3,954	,000
	Belgium	-12,445	2,223	-,208	-5,600	,000
	Switzerland	-15,870	2,200	-,306	-7,215	,000
	Czech Republic	5,894	2,222	,104	2,652	,008
	Germany	-10,391	2,169	-,217	-4,791	,000
	Denmark	-13,127	2,166	-,322	-6,061	,000
	Estonia	4,923	2,198	,100	2,240	,025
	Spain	-4,244	2,250	-,063	-1,886	,059
	Finland	-6,997	2,145	-,183	-3,262	,001
	France	-8,739	2,150	-,195	-4,065	,000
	United Kingdom	-11,696	2,172	-,236	-5,384	,000
	Greece	-4,018	2,413	-,044	-1,665	,096
	Hungary	4,511	2,227	,076	2,025	,043
	Ireland	-13,417	2,209	-,237	-6,075	,000
	Iceland	-10,788	2,345	-,138	-4,600	,000
	Luxembourg	-13,284	2,254	-,200	-5,894	,000
	Netherlands	-14,970	2,187	-,290	-6,846	,000
	Norway	-13,591	2,150	-,361	-6,320	,000
	Poland	6,233	2,209	,114	2,822	,005
	Portugal	-,907	2,317	-,012	-,391	,696
	Sweden	-9,196	2,134	-,248	-4,309	,000
	Slovakia	6,932	2,297	,099	3,018	,003
	Ukraine	8,390	2,254	,153	3,722	,000
	Slovenia	6,201	2,335	,081	2,655	,008
	Domicile	,243	,317	,011	,765	,444
	Age	-,121	,016	-,118	-7,534	,000
	Years of full-time education completed	-,268	,050	-,088	-5,363	,000
	Number of people living regularly as member of household	-,044	,198	-,005	-,221	,825
	Children living at home	-1,169	,482	-,054	-2,426	,015
	Hours worked by husband / partner	,045	,010	,069	4,420	,000
	Mother's employment status when respondent was 14	,875	,336	,040	2,602	,009
	Monthly gross income (ESS scale)	2,517	,110	,595	22,869	,000
	Proportion of household income respondent provides	1,615	,164	,158	9,854	,000
	Look after children or elderly in household	-1,122	,349	-,051	-3,218	,001
	Get unpaid help to do housework from anyone outside the household	-,650	,392	-,024	-1,656	,098
	Woman should be prepared to cut down on paid work for sake of family	,105	,142	,011	,737	,461
	Men should take as much responsibility as women for home and children	-,292	,218	-,019	-1,338	,181

a. Variable dependiente: Total hours normally worked per week in main job overtime included

Table 1: T-test results (sample: women aged 25 - 35)

Impact of having children on women's life	Children living at home or not	Group statistics	t-test for Equality of Means	Eta squared*				
N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)			
Total hours normally worked per week in main job overtime included	Respondent lives with children at F4	1305	35,53	13,481	,373	-7,870	,000	0,028
Does not	845	39,57	10,253	,353				
How many hours would choose to work weekly	Respondent lives with children at F4	1295	34,05	11,199	,311	-6,434	,000	0,019
Does not	841	36,86	8,869	,306				
Total time people in home spend on housework, hours typical weekday 1	Respondent lives with children at F4	1117	3,42	2,161	,065	6,998	,000	0,031
Does not	403	2,45	2,464	,123				
Total time people in home spend on housework, hours typical weekend 1	Respondent lives with children at F4	1127	5,45	3,310	,099	6,728	,000	0,029
Does not	400	4,21	3,132	,157				

Table 2: Correlation matrix between the selected indicators

	Women's average working hours (ESS-2002)	Average women's earnings	Female unemployment rate	Gender pay gap	% Women working part-time	% women 20-24 completed secondary education	Hours would choose to work weekly (ESS 2002)
Women's average working hours (ESS-2002)	1	-,759(**)	,564(**)	-,138	-,919(**)	,239	,890(**)
N (countries)	23	18	21	22	22	23	23
Average women's earnings	-,759(**)	1	-,642(**)	,014	,800(**)	-,304	-,878(**)
N (countries)	18	21	19	19	20	21	18
Female unemployment rate	,564(**)	-,642(**)	1	,012	-,581(**)	,146	,582(**)
N (countries)	21	19	29	28	29	29	21
Gender pay gap	-,138	,014	,012	1	,092	,404(*)	-,204
N (countries)	22	19	28	29	29	29	22
% Women working part-time	-,919(**)	,800(**)	-,581(**)	,092	1	-,110	-,857(**)
N (countries)	22	20	29	29	30	30	22

% women 20-24 completed secondary education	,239	-,304	,146	,404(*)	-,110	1	,240
N (countries)	23	21	29	29	30	31	23
Hours would choose to work weekly (ESS 2002)	,890(**)	-,878(**)	,582(**)	-,204	-,857(**)	,240	1
N (countries)	23	18	21	22	22	23	23

* p< 0,05 ; ** p< 0,01

[1] * p< 0,05 ; ** p< 0,01