

4. THE POST 1998-PERIOD

In the very recent years, there have been major changes in state support for families, considerably blurring the boundaries between the family policy models identified some years earlier. Most of these changes took place among members of the European Union and followed the adoption of the Council directive on '*the framework agreement on parental leave*' in 1996, and more recently of the Council '*Resolution on the balanced participation of women and men in family and working life*' in June 2000.¹¹ Below, we examine the inter-country differences and similarities with respect to three forms of state support for working parents: maternity/parental leave, childcare leave, and childcare facilities. We use the term 'maternity/parental leave' to reflect the fact that in some countries part or all the duration of maternity leave may be shared between parents. The term 'childcare leave', on the other hand, refers to the optional leave that can be taken after the period covered by the 'maternity/parental leave' scheme, and that can also be shared between parents, at least, in some countries. The data refers to the latest year available.

An overview of the various schemes available appears in Table 2. With regard to paid maternity/parental leave, the duration varies between 14 and 64 weeks, and the cash benefits paid during this period varies between less than 50 percent of regular earnings and 100 percent.

[Table 2 here]

In order to facilitate the comparison across countries in the provision of maternity/parental leave, a composite index is used in Figure 1. It combines information on the number of weeks

¹¹ The on-line text of these directives may be found at:
http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/equ_opp/index_en.htm

of maternity/parental leave and on the value of cash benefits received during the leave. For example, a 14-week leave scheme paid at 80 percent of regular earnings is represented by an index of 11.2 (14 weeks multiplied by .80). The index may be interpreted as the number of fully-paid weeks of maternity/parental leave. The index varies widely across countries, from a maximum of 42 weeks in Norway to a minimum of 8 weeks in Greece and the United Kingdom. The dominant position of the Nordic countries (Norway, Finland, Sweden appearing at the top of the distribution) is not surprising and follows the policy of active support for working parents adopted by the respective government from the late 1960s and early 1970s. Conversely, the lagging position of the United Kingdom reflects an attitude of minimal intervention and minimal support for families that dominated under the Conservative government of the 1970s and 1980s.

[Figure 1 here]

In addition to maternity/parental leave, most countries nowadays provide childcare leave. In several countries, the leave is available until the child's third birthday. As of 1999, only the Czech Republic was not offering any childcare leave. In some cases, the scheme is very recent. Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg, and the United Kingdom all introduced their first childcare leave scheme in 1998-9.¹² In order to provide an overview of the maternity/parental leave and childcare leave, Figure 2 combines data on the duration of both types of leave. In 1999, the total leave varied between a minimum of 28 weeks in the Czech Republic and a maximum of 166 weeks in Ukraine. In 10 countries, the total duration of the leave reached approximately 3 years (Ukraine, Finland, Spain, France, Germany, Slovakia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Estonia, and Hungary). The cash benefits paid during this period differed however substantially across countries. For instance, the Spanish scheme is mostly unpaid.

¹² In some cases, such as Belgium, the scheme replaced a provision that was already in place but that did not cover all workers.

[Figure 2 here]

The third major component of state support for working parents is the provision of childcare facilities. The data on this component is unfortunately somewhat outdated, but provides some indications of the differences between countries. Table 3 reports the percentage of children enrolled in publicly financed childcare facilities in the early 1990s. The facilities are defined broadly including day care centers, preschools, kindergartens, and family child care as long as these facilities were partly or fully state subsidized. Two age groups of children are distinguished, 0-2 years old, and 3 to 6 years old. The corresponding percentages vary widely across countries. For children aged 0-2 years old, the enrolment rate varies between 50 percent in Denmark and less than 5 percent in Austria, West Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, and the United Kingdom. For children aged 3 to 6 years old, the enrolment rate varies between less than 40 percent in Albania, Croatia, Latvia, and Lithuania, and more than 90 percent in Belgium, France, East Germany, and Italy. Such a wide gap between countries reflects inter-country differences in the support for working parents, in the provision of alternative private childcare facilities, in the labor force participation of women with very young children (itself partly conditioned by the provision of childcare facilities), and in the provisions for childcare leave. The low enrolment of Eastern European children in publicly funded childcare facilities reflects the retrenchment in state support for families referred to earlier, while the very high coverage observed in countries such as Belgium, France, and Italy reflects the importance attached to early education.

[Table 3 here]

Finally, in addition to the above components of family policies, numerous countries have introduced other measures aimed also at reducing the incompatibility between work and family responsibilities. These include the right to part-time work, leave to care for sick children, leave to attend school meetings, flextime, and teleworking (ie. working at home). It

is not easy to summarize the conditions of work faced by parents in Europe since some of these benefits are provided by employers and are not subject to state monitoring or regulation. Nevertheless, some examples can illustrate the range of measures provided to parents by governments, and also some of the differences across countries. Sweden stands again among the leading countries in providing parents with a range of measures aimed at increasing their work flexibility. For instance, the maternity/ parental leave described earlier is very flexible in that it can be taken on a full-time or part-time basis, at any time until the child's eight birthday. Parents are furthermore entitled to 120 days of paid leave per year to take care of a sick child, and 2 days of leave per year to attend school meetings. Finally, since 1978 Swedish parents are entitled to reduce their hours of work (with a proportional reduction in income), while keeping their social security benefit entitlement. Very few countries have yet come up with such a package for working parents. In some countries, the support for working parents has instead come from the private sector, that is the employers, rather than from the government. For example, numerous employers are now offering flexible work schedules in order to help parents better synchronize their work schedule with their children's school schedules. We however have very restricted cross-national data on this contribution of the private sector to the creation of more 'family-friendly' workplaces.

5. CONCLUSION

State support for working mothers has a long history in Europe, starting in the 1880s when the first maternity leave schemes were introduced. The nature and objective of this state support have however changed substantially over time. For instance, unlike later interventions, the earlier forms of state support for families were driven mainly by humanitarian motives, namely poverty and child mortality. They did not aim at encouraging the participation of women in the labor force, and were not driven by a commitment to gender equality. Furthermore, the early governmental interventions were mainly piecemeal ones, in that they

were not part of a comprehensive package of benefits and services for families, and tended to be restricted to the poorest families and/or certain categories of workers. In contrast, the later policies extended the coverage of policies to all families following a principle of universalism.

Our analysis of the developments in state support for working families since the 1880s suggests a systematic trend towards the provision of ever more supportive provisions for working parents. A closer analysis reveals however four major discontinuities: the immediate post World War II period, which led to a sharp East/West divergence; the 1960s and the emergence of the Nordic model; the end of the communist regimes from 1989 and the subsequent decrease in state support for families in Eastern Europe; and the post-1998 period with its major expansion of state support for families among European Union member states. Not only have these discontinuities gone counter to claims that institutions tend to become relatively stable over time (Wennemo 1994), they have also considerably blurred the lines between the models of family policies observed in the early 1990s. The typologies suggested by Gauthier (1996), Singh (1998), and Sainsbury (1994) no longer seem to apply. Instead, the experience of the very recent years suggests the emergence of a cross-nationally uniform model of state support for families, strongly driven by objectives of gender equality and aimed at reconciling work and family life. Only a careful monitoring of the trends in the year to come will allow us to see the extent to which this convergence will take place.

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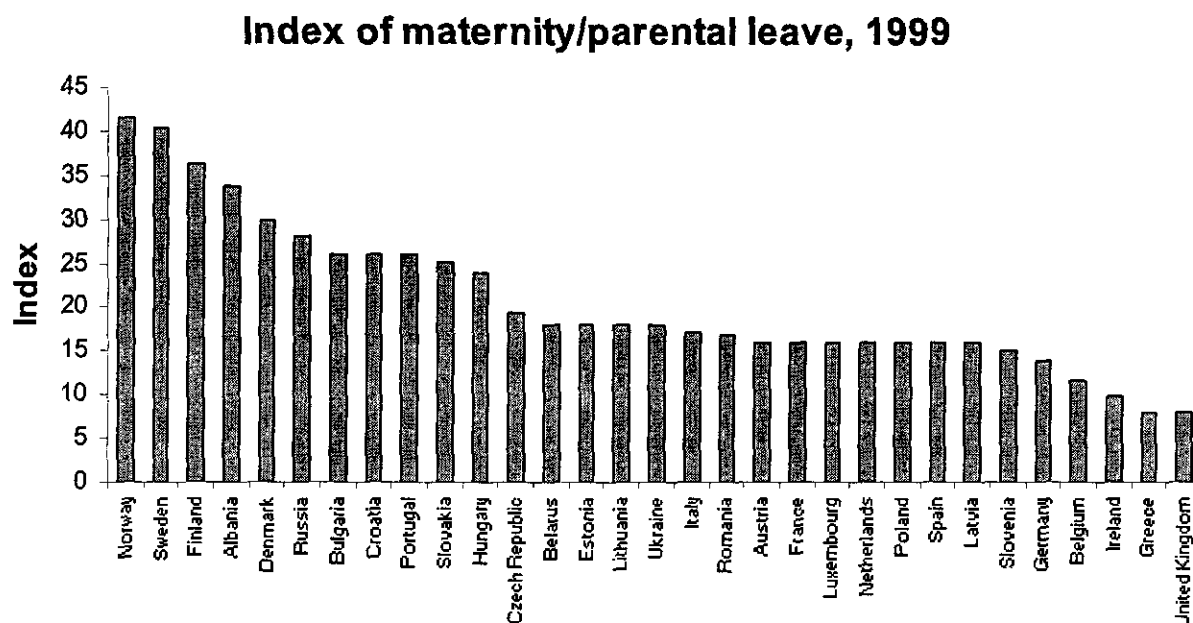
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Figure 1:

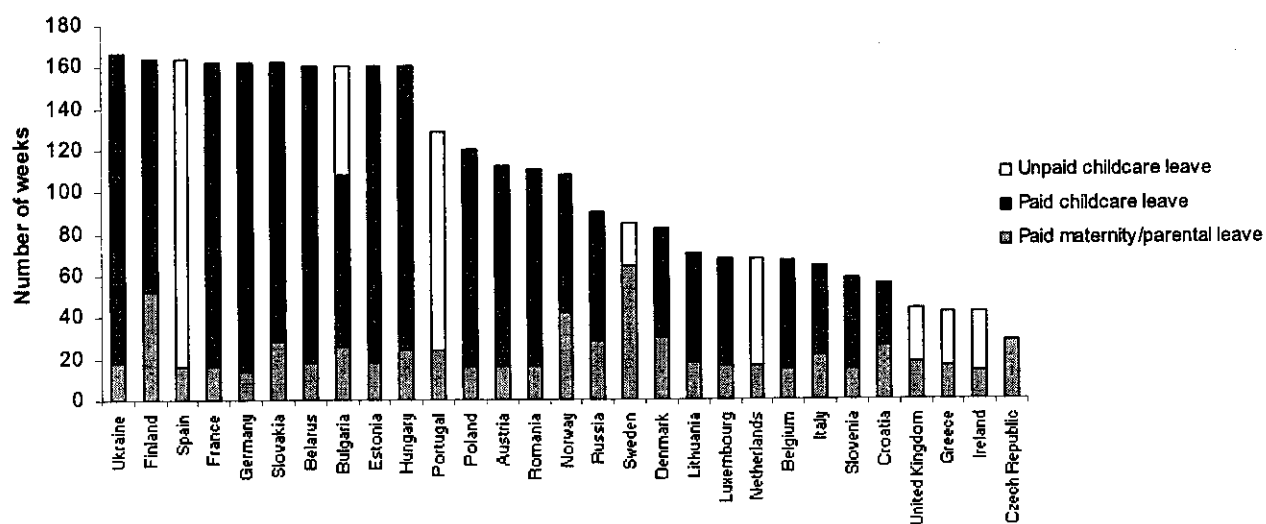


Note: The index is computed by multiplying the number of weeks of leave by the percentage of earnings received during this period as cash benefits. When the cash benefits are paid as flat-rate benefits, they were converted into a percentage by using data on the average female wage and average female hours worked in manufacturing published in the *ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics*. In view of the fact that 1999 wages data was not available, the wages were estimated using the consumer price index of the latest year available. The index refers to the maternity/parental leave in respect to the first child.

Sources and additional notes: see table 2.

Figure 2.

Total duration of leave, 1999



Sources and notes: see Table 2.

Table 1: Early maternity leave schemes. Year of introduction and situation as of 1939

Country ¹	Year of introduction of first maternity leave (paid)	Duration of leave, 1939 (in weeks)	Type of benefits, 1939
Albania	1947	0	0
Austria	1911	12	% of wages
Belarus	1955	0	0
Belgium	1894	4	N/a
Bulgaria	1918	12	Flat rate
Croatia	1954	0	0
Czech Republic	1888	12	% of wages
Denmark	1915	4	Flat rate
Estonia	1924	6	% of wages
Finland	1937	N/a	N/a
France	1913	12	Flat rate
Germany	1883	10-12	% of wages
Greece	1934	12	% of wages
Hungary	1891	12	% of wages
Ireland	1913	4	Lump sum
Italy	1910	4	Lump sum
Latvia	1924	12	% of wages
Lithuania	1925	12	% of wages
Luxembourg	1925	12	% of wages
Netherlands	1913	12	% of wages
Norway	1915	8	Flat rate
Poland	1920	8	% of wages
Portugal	1922	4-10	% of wages
Romania	1912	12	% of wages
Russia	1912	9	% of wages
Slovakia	1888	12	% of wages
Slovenia	1949	N/a	N/a
Spain	1929	12	Lump sum
Sweden	1931	6	Flat rate
Ukraine	1912	9	% of wages
United Kingdom	1911	4	Lump sum

N/a: The information is not available.

Note: 1- The countries listed here are current ones. In this table, the information refers to the parent country or the country it belongs to prior to 1940.

Sources: Gauthier (1996); International Labour Office and League of Nations (1931); Sakmann, Otey, Huber, Needleman (1940).

Table 3: Percentage of children 0-3 and 3-6 years old enrolled in publicly funded childcare facilities, 1993

Country	Age 0-2	Age 3-6
Albania	---	26
Austria	3	75
Belarus	---	58
Belgium	30	95
Bulgaria	---	57
Croatia	---	36
Czech Republic	---	85
Denmark	50	79
Estonia	---	56
Finland	27	43
France	23	99
East Germany	50	100
West Germany	4	78
Greece	3	64
Hungary	---	87
Ireland	2	52
Italy	6	97
Latvia	---	33
Lithuania	---	30
Luxembourg	---	68
Netherlands	8	69
Poland	---	43
Portugal	12	48
Romania	---	50
Russia	---	66
Slovakia	---	78
Slovenia	---	60
Spain	5	84
Sweden	33	79
Ukraine	---	57
United Kingdom	1-2	53

Where '---' means that the information was not available.

Notes:

1. 'Publicly funded' refers to a variety of services for children below compulsory school age including day care centres, preschools, schools, and family child care. They may be partly or fully publicly funded.
2. Data for children aged 0-2 in Eastern European countries is not available.
3. Albania, Czech Republic, and Slovakia: the data refers to children 3-5 years of age.

Sources: Tietze, W., Cryer, D. (1999); and TransMONEE 2000 database (table on pre-primary net enrolment rate).

Table 2: Maternity/parental leave and childcare leave, 1999

Country	Paid maternity/parental leave (in weeks) ¹	Whether maternity/parental leave may be shared with father ²	Maternity/parental leave cash benefits (as a % of earnings) ³	Paid childcare leave ⁴	Unpaid childcare leave ⁵	Whether childcare leave may be shared with father ⁶	Total duration (in weeks) ⁷
Albania	52		65	N/a	N/a	N/a	52
Austria	16		100	Until the child is 2 years old	0	Yes	112
Belarus	18		100	Until the child is 3 years old	0	N/a	160
Belgium	15		77	6 months (3 for each parent)	0	Yes	67
Bulgaria	26		100	Until the child is 2 years old	Additional year	N/a	160
Croatia	26		100	Until the child is 1 year old	0		56
Czech Republic	28		69	0	0		28
Denmark	30	Yes	100	12 months (6 for each parent)	0	Yes	82
Estonia	18		100	Until the child is 3 years old	0	Yes	160
Finland	52	Yes	70	Until the child is 3 years old	0	Yes	164
France	16		100	Until the child is 3 years old	0	Yes	162
Germany	14		100	Until the child is 3 years old	0	Yes	162
Greece	16		50	0	6 months (3 for each parent)	Yes	42
Hungary	24		100	Until the child is 3 years old	0	N/a	160
Ireland	14		70	0	28 weeks (14 weeks for each parent)	Yes	42
Italy	21.5		80	10 months	0	Yes	64.5
Latvia	16		100	N/a	N/a	N/a	16
Lithuania	18		100	12 months	0	N/a	70
Luxembourg	16		100	12 months (6 for each parent)	0	Yes	68
Netherlands	16		100	0	12 months (6 for each parent)	Yes	68
Norway	42	Yes	80	Until the child is 2 years old	0	Yes	108
Poland	16		100	24 months	0	Yes	120
Portugal	24.3		100	0	24 months	Yes	128.3

Romania	16		85	Until the child is 2 years old	0		111
Russia	28		100	Until the child is 18 months old	0	Yes	90
Slovakia	28		90	Until the child is 3 years old	0	Yes	162
Slovenia	15		100	305 days	0	Yes	58.6
Spain	16		100	0	Until the child is 3 years old	Yes	164
Sweden	64	Yes	63	0	18 months	Yes	85
Ukraine	18		100	Until the child is 3 years old	0		166
United Kingdom	18		44	0	6 months (3 for each parent)	Yes	44

N/a = The information is not available.

Notes about the indices:

1. The duration of the paid maternity/parental leave refers to the first child. Leave of a longer duration is available in some countries for the second and subsequent children.
2. In some countries, the whole duration of the maternity/parental leave may be shared between parents, while in other countries it is only part of it.
3. The cash benefits for the maternity/parental leave is expressed as a percentage of earnings received during this period. When the cash benefits are paid as flat-rate benefits, they were converted into a percentage by using data on the average female wage and average female hours worked in manufacturing published in the *ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics*. In view of the fact that 1999 wages data was not available, the wages were estimated using the consumer price index of the latest year available. The index refers to the maternity/parental leave cash benefits paid in respect to the first child.
4. When the childcare leave is an individual entitlement, the index used here reflects the total duration that may be used by both parents (i.e. we multiplied by two the duration). This is the case for Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. In some countries, the cash benefits paid during this period are means-tested.
5. In some countries, the unpaid leave is covered by labor laws.
6. In some countries, the whole duration of the childcare leave may be shared between parents, while in other countries it is only part of it.
7. The total duration takes into account the number of weeks of leave prior to birth (which is part of the maternity/parental leave). When the duration of leave before birth is not known, it has been estimated at 4 weeks. This is the case for Belarus, Bulgaria, Estonia, and Norway.

Country-specific notes:

1. Belgium: The index does not include the paid maternity leave that employers are required by law to provide.
2. Finland: The duration of leave is stated in number of days in the legislation. This was converted into a number of weeks by assuming 6 days a week.
3. France: The benefit may only be paid up to a social security ceiling. This value may therefore be inflated.
4. Greece: The maternity/parental leave is stated in number of days in the legislation. This was converted into a number of weeks by assuming 7 days of leave per week.
5. Hungary: The cash benefits vary depending on the number of days covered under insurance.
6. Ireland: There is a dual system of benefits. This data used here reflects the system for employed women.

7. Netherlands: The childcare leave is only available as a part-time leave. The parent must work at least 20 hours a week.
8. Portugal: The maternity/parental leave is stated in number of days in the legislation. This was converted into a number of weeks by assuming 7 days of leave per week.
9. Romania: The cash benefits vary depending on work history and number of children.
10. Spain: The cash benefit is expressed as 100% of benefit base in the legislation. The figure used here may therefore be inflated.
11. Sweden: The maternity/parental leave is stated in number of days in the legislation. This was converted into a number of weeks by assuming 7 days of leave per week. The unpaid childcare leave is independent from the paid parental leave.
12. United Kingdom: There is a dual system of benefits. This data used here reflects the 'Statutory Maternity Pay' system that is offered to employed women.

Sources: Compiled by the authors from information contained in Kamerman, S.B. (2000); Moss, P. and Deven, F. (1999); United States Social Security Administration (1999), *ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics* (various years), as well as country-specific sources.

第 II 部 地域・言語圏別研究

第1章 ドイツ語圏諸国

分担研究者 原 俊彦

1. ドイツ語圏諸国平成12年度研究実績
2. 「ドイツの出生力変動とその要因」
3. 「ドイツにおける無子比率の上昇」
4. 「ドイツにおける同棲・婚外子比率」
5. 「ドイツの家族政策の特徴と問題点」
6. 「ドイツにおける出生動向と家族政策」(ドイツ連邦人口研究所・シャルロッテ・ヒューン、ユルゲン・ドルブリッツ) 委託報告書：要旨

1. 研究の概要

今年度は、重点地域としてドイツ連邦共和国を取りあげ、戦前・戦後の出生動向の分析を行ない、その特徴を明らかにするとともに、従来より知られている高い無子比率、比較的低い同棲率・婚外子比率について、その背景を分析、ドイツにおける家族政策とその問題点について考察した。

またモデル計算の事例として、ドイツ及びオーストリアで、すでに行われた研究事例を分析し、本プロジェクトのモデル計算手法との比較を試みた。

さらに、これらの作業と平行して、今年度は、ドイツ連邦人口研究所（BIB: Bundesinstitut für Bevölkerungsforschung）とオーストリア人口研究所（IFD: das Institut für Demographie）に加え、オランダ学際人口研究所（NIDI: Neatherlands interdisciplinary demograpfic institute）とチューリッヒ大学社会学研究所（Institut der Soziologie an der Universität Zürich）とも連絡を取り、研究協力を要請、3月にこれらの研究機関を訪問、本プロジェクトに関する説明、昨年度・今年度の分析結果に関する意見交換、最終年度の調査への協力要請などを行った。また、ドイツ、スイスで、モデル家族に対応したインタビュー調査の予備調査を実施した。

2. 主な研究成果

2.1 ドイツの出生・家族政策に関するテーマ別分析

（1）ドイツの出生力変動とその要因

- ・東西両地域とも、戦後の結婚ブームとベビーブームで、コーホートの既婚出生力が戦前の水準に達したあたりで出生減退が始まっている。つまり、戦前にすでに確立されていた少子家族規範を守ろうとする動きが、ピルの導入などを契機に出生減退を引き起こしたといえる。ただし、64年から74年に掛けてのTFR低下にはタイミング効果がかなり作用している。
- ・74年以降の結婚年齢の上昇は、新しい出生抑制手段が若年層まで広がったことによる。この結果、有配偶出生の抑制から、結婚・第1子出生タイミングの遅延へと、行動パターンが変化した。
- ・結婚・第1子出生タイミングの遅延が、結果的に無子比率の増大を招き、超低出生力に繋がっている。しかし、タイミング効果は0に近づきつつあるので、TFRは1.4前後で落ち着くと思われる。
- ・東西両地域とも家族政策の影響と思われる、一時的なタイミング効果が観察されるが、コーホートの既婚出生力に対する長期的効果は見られない。
- ・東西両地域とも、結婚・出産ないしは出産一結婚という少子家族規範が根強く、同棲出

生が出生力水準を下支えする効果は期待できない。

(2) ドイツにおける無子比率の上昇

- ・無子比率は推計値によるものなのでやや説得力に欠けるが、すでに 25% から 30% くらいに達している。
- ・人口学的要因としては平均初婚年齢・第一子出産年齢の上昇が大きく影響している。
- ・多子家族の消滅→1子家族の増加→無子の増加という因果関係が指摘されている。
- ・社会層としては「競合選択層」と「キャリア層」に無子が多い。
- ・家族政策上、無子は政策の受け手になりえず、人口の二極化の進行している。

(3) ドイツにおける同棲・婚外子比率

- ・同棲の統計的な把握・概念の不統一、特に LAT の把握のなどの問題があり、その把握は容易ではない。
- ・同棲者は実数で急速に増加しているが、増加率は高年齢層の方が高く、累積的效果が観察される。しかし全体として同棲率の上昇は止まりつつある。また有子同棲の比率は殆ど変化していない。
- ・ドイツにおける同棲の広がり、家族の多様化、結婚の代替え選択というより、結婚モラトリアム・準備型であり、妊娠・出産後に婚姻するケースや離婚後の同棲も多い。
- ・同棲率に対する宗教の影響（特にカトリック）に、有意性が認められる。
- ・婚外子比率は上昇しているが、結婚・出産ないしは出産→結婚という少子家族規範が根強く、同棲出生あるいは婚外子比率の上昇が出生力水準を下支えする効果は期待できない。

(4) ドイツの家族政策の特徴と問題点

- ・ドイツの家族政策は、手厚い経済支援と、長く保障された育児休暇制度・パートタイム雇用を中心とした「家族と職業の両立」、ヨーロッパの中でも比較的遅れた保育制度を特徴としている。
- ・この家族政策の特徴は、意識調査の結果と高い整合性を示している。
- ・専業主婦指向が強く、子供が小さいうちは親が子の面倒を見るという考え方が主流となっている。このため家族政策は子育てによる経済負担の均衡化に主眼が置かれている。また一般的傾向からはずれる女性は、むしろ非婚・無子・フルタイム就業を選択することが多く、家族政策に対する期待は小さい。
- ・全般的に家族政策の出生促進効果に対する否定的・拒否的態度が強い。
- ・出生促進という意味では、未婚若年層、第1子出生優遇に政策を重点化する方が、より高い効果を期待できるが、「子育てによる経済負担の均衡化」という平等原則に反するため、このオプションに対するコンセンサスが成立する可能性はない。

2.2 モデル計算の事例分析

モデル計算の事例として、ドイツ及びオーストリアで、すでに行われた研究事例を分析し、本プロジェクトのモデル計算手法との比較を試みた。

(1) ドイツの家族モデル計算とその手法

1996年にBiBで行われたジュリアーネ・ロロフによるモデル計算事例を分析するとともに、本プロジェクトの計算手法への適用を検討した。

資料：BIB(Hrsg.), Juliane Roloff, Familienbildung und Kinderwunsch in Deutschland-Familieinkommen, Kinderkosten und deren Einfluß auf generative Verhaltensentscheidung, Materialien zur Bevölkerungswissenschaft, Heft82d, 1996

(2) オーストリアの家族モデル計算とその手法

1998年に、オーストリア家族研究所の年次報告の一部として、取り上げられた、クリストフ・バンドルトらによる家族モデル計算事例を分析するとともに、本プロジェクトの計算手法への適用を検討した。

資料：Bandelt Christoph & Baumgartner Sabine (1998) : Denkbare Konstellationen der sozioökonomischen Lage von Familien: Ergebnisse der Modellfamilienanalyse. In: Bandelt Christoph (Hrsg.), Zur Lage der Familien in Österreich- Ergebnisse des sozio-ökonomischen Indicatorsystem.s.223-300. Wien: Österreichisches Institut für Familienforschung, Schriftenreihe Band 6

2.3 海外調査

(1) スイス

チューリッヒ大学社会学研究所 (Institut der Soziologie an der Universität Zürich) のベアート・フックス (Dr. Deat Fux) を訪問。本プロジェクトについて説明するとともに、出生力に与える外国人の影響や、外国人の適応・受け入れ問題に関する意見、資料、サンプル世帯のインタビュー調査の可能性についてのアドバイスを受けた。また、ドイツの事例をもとに、スイスの人口・家族動向について意見交換を行う。

なお、チューリッヒでは、スイス人家庭を訪問。スイスの家族状況、家族生活について、生活者の立場からの意見を伺うとともに、インタビュー調査の質問表、実施可能性などについて検討した。

(2) オーストリア

昨年に引き続き、ウィーンのオーストリア人口研究所 (IFD) を訪問。所長のリチャード・ギーサー (Dr. Richard Gisser) を始め、ジョセフ・キティアー (Dr. Josef Kytir), イザベラ・ブーバー (MA. Isabella Buber) に会い、プロジェクトの進捗状況を説明。また、家族政策の変更が婚姻率や出生率に与える影響の事例に関する詳細なデータとコメント、オーストリアでの家族モデル計算事例の背景データなどを入手にした。

(3) オランダ

所長のニコ・ニンバーゲン (Dr.Niko Van Ninwagen)、ガース・ベーツ (Dr. Gijs Beets)、ケネ・ヘンケンス (Dr.Kene Henkens) と会い、本プロジェクトとその進捗状況を説明。オランダの就業構造の変化と出生力の関係について訊くとともに、現在、進められている 'poldermodel' (ポルダーモデル) 政策についての説明を受けた。

(4) ドイツ

フランクフルトで、ドイツ人家庭を訪問。ドイツの家族状況、家族生活について、生活者の立場からの意見を伺うとともに、インタビュー調査の質問表、実施可能性などについて検討した。

ビスバーデンのドイツ連邦人口学研究所 (BIB) を訪問。ユルゲン・ドルブリッツ Dr.Jürgen Dorbritz、会い、BIBによる本プロジェクト委託調査報告書、次年度の研究招へいの件を打ち合わせる。また、当方のドイツに関する分析結果を説明し、意見の一致をみる。さらに、2002年度に予定されている新PPA (Policy Acceptance Survey) への日本の参加可能性などについて話合う。

ジュリアーネ・ロロフ (Dr.Juliane Roloff) に会い、彼女が行ったモデル家族計算について説明してもらい、バックアップデータを入手。また家族手当などの問題点などについて意見を交換した。

2.4 委託研究報告

昨年度、BiB に依頼した研究報告書を入手した。

ドイツの出生動向と家族政策 (S.ヒョーン、ユルゲン・J.ドルブリッツ)
(Höhn,C., J.Dorbritz, 2000, Fertility trends and family policy in Germany)

3. 次年度の研究計画

最終年度では、オーストリア、スイス、オランダに関するテーマ別分析を行うとともに、ドイツ、スイスについてモデル家族計算に対応したインタビュー調査を実施する予定である。このため、引き続き各国の研究者とコンタクトを持つとともに、各国をを訪問し協力を得ることを計画している。