

Country report on labour market participation and socio-economic situation of lone parents in Sweden

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1 Introduction

Lone Mothers as a Category in Data and Policy Analysis

Due to the emphasis in Swedish policy on economic equality between men and women (as individuals or inequality between households, as well as a focus in law and policy on the best interests of the child, lone mothers have not been a salient category in Swedish social policy or in media debates. Consequently, the published sources are limited. We were also limited by the construction of national databases. Sweden has very detailed registers on the population, but the registers are organized by street address. There are multi-generational registers by biological parents, lone mothers as a category cannot be gleaned from this data either (for a fuller description of the register data: see Thomson and Eriksson 2010), neither is it possible to distinguish between lone mothers living alone or those cohabitating with a partner who is not the father. For our analysis, we used data in which lone mothers are not living with a partner. Of course it is impossible to know for sure if a lone mother is living with a partner on a short term basis, registered at another address. The definition of lone mothers in this report limited the statistics available from government agencies, derived from yearly national surveys as well as some specific reports on lone mothers and government commission studies. Nearly all of the sources we used can be accessed online, of which most are in Swedish. Whenever English translations are available, this is indicated in the text. "Statistics Sweden" (SCB) generally refers to their open data base (accessible via www.scb.se). There is an English version of this data base, accessible by clicking "translate to English" at the top of the page. Not all tables are available in Excel format, since they have to be accessed directly online. Additional more detailed information on incomes can be accessed on the project in the data base (see for example, Statistics Sweden at www.scb.se/Pages/ProductTables___7284). Other data sources include reports published by the Swedish National Insurance Bureau. We were unable to find any published or online sources for lone mothers for several of the dimensions requested in the report, including unemployment benefit, parental leave and disability as these are all based on the financial circumstances of the individual and not the family. Therefore we made a special request for this data, the Swedish Labour Survey database, housed at Statistics Sweden.

Note on definition of lone parenthood in the context of residential Parenthood

Of general significance for this report is the trend in parenting in which both parents share legal and physical¹ custody equally during the last 25 years. In 2008/2009 the statistics with respect to living conditions showed that 65 % of children aged 0-18 whose parents were separated lived most or all of the time with their mothers, and 17 % lived most or all the time with their fathers. Eighteen percent of the children lived equally with each parent ("*växelvis boende*"), meaning that they lived 50 % of the time with the one parent and 50 % of the time with the other. This can be contrasted to the mid-1980s when only 1 % had this type of shared living arrangements (Statistics Sweden 2011). Another circumstance that needs to be taken into consideration is that despite shared physical custody, a child is allowed to be registered officially at only one address. "Lone parent" is not always defined in statistics and literature, but when no further specification is given, the data is compiled based on where the children are registered (and supposedly live most of or all the time).

¹ Physical custody in the Swedish context means residential custody, where the child is living and being cared for most of the time.

As the table below indicates, the definition of lone parents in this project does not capture the complexity of lone parent mothers or fathers and underestimates the number of lone fathers who have children 50 percent of the time (as they may be registered at the mother's address). Here again we emphasize that children can only be registered at one address.

Table 1 Children living in different types of lone parent / shared parent households by age and sex of child, in % (2006)

	0-5 y.	6-9 y.	10-12 y.	13-15 y.	16-17 y.	0-17 y.
Living with mother	64	41	54	57	63	56
Living with father	6	2	7	6	10	6
Living most with father	6	7	4	4	5	5
Living most with mother	2	5	2	4	5	4
Lived in shared physical custody (50 % in each household)	21	45	33	29	17	28

Source: Statistics Sweden

2 Key facts and Trends

All tables and figures appear in an Appendix at the end of the document.

Considering the share of lone mothers compared to mothers in couples, Hobson and Takahashi (1997) found rising levels of lone parents each decade: 7.3 percent (1968); 11.1 percent in 1981 and 19 percent in 1991 (based upon Level of Living of living survey). From the 1990s onward there has been steady increase. Sainsbury and Morissens (2010) estimate a 3.6 percent increase from 1991-2004. In 2009 lone parent households comprised 25 percent of households with children.

From the 1970s onward, lone mothers and married/cohabitant mothers became more and more similar in terms of labour force, as more and more mothers in couples entered the labour market. Married/cohabitant mothers have surpassed lone mothers in proportions employed (75 percent versus 84 percent), though the former tend to have higher rates of part time employment: 39 percent of mothers in couples and 24.5 percent lone mothers.

In comparison with many OECD countries, Swedish lone mothers historically have had one of the lowest poverty rates (Hobson 1994). The major reason for this is because of taxes and transfers. Looking at income packages of lone mothers, Hobson and Takahashi (1997) found that employment income comprised 56 percent and transfers 27 percent of lone mothers household income in the mid 1980s (including social assistance, housing subsidies) compared to 15 percent among coupled households. By 2000 Sainsbury and Morissens showed that lone mothers earnings from employment dropped to 46 percent of the income package and transfers constituted 46 percent of the income package. As our table in Appendix A.2 shows, between 2003-2007, percentages of lone parents with earnings below the poverty level averaged 22.4 percent for lone mothers and, for lone fathers, 10.9 percent, compared with couples with children, which was 7.6 percent.

Though social transfers have been a substantial part of lone parent's income package, employment has been and continues to be the mainstay of lone parent income. Historically lone mothers have had higher labour force activity than married/cohabitant mothers. As labour market income historically has been the main source of income for lone mothers (supplemented by taxes and transfers), lower levels of employment translate into higher rates of poverty. Sainsbury and

Morissens (2010) found that solo mothers whose main source of income was employment had a 4 percent poverty rate, while those who relied mainly on benefits were six times more likely to experience poverty. As discussed below in the discussion of two key trends, the change in lone mothers' levels of employment has been a driving force in the rise in poverty levels among lone parents.

The two key trends that we find most important for lone mothers' economic and social well-being can be seen in the lower levels of labour force activity and rising levels of poverty that followed the financial crises in Sweden during the 1990s. The nosedive in the Swedish economy in the mid 1990s was severe and resulted in high unemployment rates overall and a dramatic drop in fertility, the latter being significant indicator as Sweden has in the past been among European countries with highest fertility and continued to be in this decade (Hobson and Oláh 2006).

The 1990s financial crises in both scale and impact for the vulnerable groups was documented in a government commission specifically created to study changes in welfare and well-being at the end of the 1990s (Commission SOU 2001: 79). The Swedish Welfare Commission noted three social groups that were affected adversely by the financial crises during the recession in the 1990s: Young people, immigrants and lone mothers.

For lone mothers, the indicators were similar to the other vulnerable groups: A greater share were economically inactive (unemployed and job seekers) and there were higher levels of poverty. The disposable income of lone mothers by the end of the 1990s dropped sharply (Gahler 2001). For immigrants, the explanation for these effects was partially attributed to social characteristics: during this period, there were waves of immigrants from countries outside of Europe, asylum seekers from Somalia, Iraq and Iran. Youth unemployment had been a concern before the crises. The situation of lone mothers revealed a reversal in levels of employment and patterns of employment. Whereas lone mothers always had higher labour force participation than coupled mothers, in the 1990s lone mothers had lower labour force participation than coupled mothers (Hobson and Takahashi 1997; Fritzell et al. 2007; Sainsbury and Morissens 2010). Lone mothers in the post 1990s crisis period also differed from coupled mothers in their lower utilization of the earnings-related paid parental leave, which is the benefit that is highly compensated (80 percent of earnings based upon an eligibility requirement of having been in employment eight months before the child is born, a reflection of the weaker labour force attachment. The lower labour force for lone mothers appears even more surprising as women's employment was much less affected than men's, as they were working in the public sector (SOU: 2000. 79; Fritzell et al 2007; Kautto 2000).

By the mid 2000s, the economic situation for all Swedes improved, with a reduction in unemployment from 8 to 5 percent (2005). Yet lone mothers unemployment rate remained higher relative to other coupled mothers. Comparing the situation of vulnerable groups, in 1997-98 and 2004-5, Fritzell et al 2007 found that the overall situation of the vulnerable groups improved as did the total population during the 2000s. At the same time, they also show a widening gap within these groups among those who reported that their situation had not improved, but in fact had worsened. There are more persons reported to have entered the labour force but there remains a high level of those who are not employed. This is clearly the case for lone mothers. Fritzell et al (2007) see lone mothers as one of the groups losing out in the post financial crises era: not only higher unemployment and underemployment (see comparisons in tables in Appendix A.3), but also poverty.

Explanations for the reversal in lone mothers labour force compared to coupled mothers focus on the demand side of employment: the greater ability of employers to select employees. Single

mothers can be discriminated against because of presumed higher absenteeism. Another factor relates to structural features of the labour market; the decrease in number of jobs with low skills and lower education. See table in Appendix A.1 which shows that lone mothers on average are overrepresented in the group with a basic education only (compulsory schooling only). Our table on equalized disposable income (Appendix A.2) shows that lone mothers poverty rate increased from 11.1 percent in 1991 to 27 percent poverty rate in 2009 (based on 60 percent of median income). Couples with children have much a much lower poverty rate (9.7 percent) even in the period after the global financial crisis.

Another source (Save the Children, 2010) confirms the dramatic increase in poverty of lone parent households. In 1991, lone parent households had 79 % of the median income. In 2008, the figure had dropped to 71.5 %. However, according to the most recent studies of child poverty, Save the Children Sweden (Rädda Barnen), child poverty has decreased among children to lone parents. In 1991 about 35 % of the children in this group lived in poverty, while the corresponding figure for 2008 was 25 %.

Higher rates of poverty among lone mothers have continued in the decade after the financial crises and have risen again in the post 2008 global financial crisis. Save the Children Sweden has documented this. The first report in a series of eight studies this organization has conducted since the economic recession in the 1990s shows that child poverty increased drastically during the period 1991 to 1997, when 22.3 % of Swedish children lived below the poverty line. Although child poverty decreased by half in 2007 as the Swedish economy recovered, it has risen slightly again with financial crisis of 2008 (Save the Children Sweden, 2010, Barnfattigdomen i Sverige). Two groups of children are overrepresented among those who suffer from child poverty: children of foreign origin (level of child poverty is more than five times as high as among Swedish children, 29.5 % compared to 5.4 %) and children to lone parents (level of child poverty is more than three times as high as among children with cohabiting parents, 24.7 % compared to 8.1 %). Among children who belong to both categories, i.e. who have a lone parent of foreign origin, the child poverty level is 49 %, compared to Swedish children in couple households in which 2.3 % are poor.

3 Policies and political debate on the issue of lone parents

Key question: *How would you describe the policies and political debates on lone parents during the last 10-15 years?*

The family policies that have characterized Sweden as the paradigm of the weak breadwinner model and dual-earner model begun in 1970s and shaped the ways in which lone mothers were integrated into a broader universalistic policy framework. Whereas in the 1930s, policy specifically targeted lone mothers, such as the advance income payment, in which the lone mother was assured payment for child support: the state sought to collect what it could from the father (Bergman and Hobson 2002). Lone mothers were assumed to be the carers and breadwinners even before the enactment of family polices for all mothers (Hobson and Takahashi 1997). The Swedish dual-earner model provided incentives for all mothers to be in the labour market and tax penalties for those who were not. Publically subsidized daycare and afterschool care was a key policy for allowing all mothers to reconcile employment with family. In addition, maternity leave with respect to the birth and care of children was converted into parental leave in the 1970s, with both parents (married or not) eligible for leave. It can also be noted that the treatment of children born within wedlock and those outside

of marriage was also equalized under law during the 1970s. Another legislative change during this period was the reduction of spousal maintenance after divorce to limited amounts and periods (an award of spousal maintenance for a period of over three years is a rare exception). The rationale is that women will ensure their independence during the marriage knowing no spousal maintenance is awarded upon divorce.

The removal of legal boundaries between cohabitants and married spouses paralleled a surge in cohabitation and rising divorce rates: These legal measures and practices among couples had the effect of weakening the stigma toward lone mothers with lone motherhood seen as phase in the lifecourse rather than a distinct group (Hobson and Takahashi 1977). Rather than a targeted group, policies for reconciling employment with family shaped the labour force of women in general. With the rise in married women's labour force, married and lone mothers appeared more similar.

The unwillingness of the Social Democratic governments to target policies for specific groups has been documented in many studies (Korpi and Palme 1998; Esping-Andersen 1990). The universalistic model was seen as a strategy not only to avoid stigmatization of groups, but also to gain widespread support for them. This positive side of the universalistic model of family policy nevertheless had the effect of making invisible specific needs and problems of lone parents: dramatic reduction income after divorce (discussed above) and time poverty as lone mothers tended to more hours than married mothers up until the 1990s. This invisibility of lone mothers in policy and political discourse has been emphasized by an organization formed representing lone parents, unusual in light of lack of voice that lone parents have had in the Swedish policy framework (Sveriges makalösa föräldrar - SMF). They argue that lone parent families have yet to be incorporated into the Swedish concept of equality, most often framed around equality between the sexes (*jämställdhet*) or equality of families across economic wellbeing (see discussion below).

During the 1980s and 1990s, Swedish family policy was directed towards two general goals: decreasing the wage gap between men and women, and economic well-being between families (Gähler, 1998). As result of their vulnerable economic situation, political attention directed to lone parents has been on the rise over the last two decades. Save the Children Sweden published a report on child poverty in 2002 that received a wide media exposure (Save the Children Sweden, Salonen 2002, Barnfattigdomen i Sverige). In 2005, the year before the Social Democratic government lost the election to a conservative coalition government, was in the process of developing a policy called "the child billion" in address the rise in child poverty, The reform mainly consisted of increasing the level of economic support for poor families with children through a range of benefits that directly and indirectly would improve the situation of lone mothers, considered a vulnerable group. These included increases in the child benefit and housing allowance. Specifically aimed at lone mothers increases in maintenance support (*underhållsstödet*), maintenance paid by the state in cases when the divorced or separated parent not living with the children (in most cases the father) cannot pay child support (a fuller discussion appears in section 8). In addition, a subsidy was introduced for parents who wanted to study to improve their skills in order to re-enter the labour market. The first phase of the reform was implemented at the beginning of 2006, and the government suggested that there would be other policies to improve the conditions for vulnerable families in the years to come. One cannot assess what policies might have emerged, as the Social Democrats lost the election in September 2006 and the Child Billion reform was submerged in discourse and policy.

The debate on lone mothers has not disappeared, however. During the latter half of this decade, there have been several government reports revealing the growing economic gap between

cohabiting parents with children and lone parents. For instance, the Parliamentary Investigation Service (Riksdagens Utredningstjänst) showed that one-fourth of all lone mothers lived in relative poverty (earning less than 60 % of the median income) (2010). In this report, the vulnerable economic situation of lone mothers was linked to child poverty. The report generated debate through its exposure in the media. The Social Democratic political opposition used the findings in the report to criticize the incumbent government. The 2000 decade has been one in which debate on the situation of lone parents has been visible and was intensified in the election debates in 2010, as was the case prior to the election in 2006.

Despite this attention, very few measures have been directed specifically to alleviate the poverty of lone parents. Targeted policies have not been mainstay of the left or right coalitions, though for the latter there was more attention focused on vulnerable groups. For the current right coalition, the increasing economic deterioration of lone parents is interpreted as an indication that the policies underpinning the Swedish economy are too rigid and need to be adjusted. Lone parents are invoked in the political debates as a “weak group” often mentioned along with immigrants and pensioners. There has been one policy initiative the current government that will have a decidedly positive impact on the economic situation lone mothers, a decision to raise the level of housing allowance (see above discussion on trends); yet another policy measure introduced on the employee’s responsibility to pay a larger share of her income for unemployment insurance can have an adverse effect on lone mothers who are more likely to be unemployed than mothers in couples.

Lone Parent lobbying organisations

The Swedish organization for lone parents (Sveriges Makalösa Föräldrar - SMF) is a nation-wide interest organization aimed at “gathering and strengthening lone parents, ”founded in 1996 (information available in English at makalosa.org). On the grass-roots level, they work to establish local networks and arrange activities for lone parents. On a national level, their aim is to gain recognition among political parties, to take part in political and public debates and to cooperate with authorities and other organizations. Their vision is that “the lone parent and his or her children shall have the same conditions and opportunities as parents and children in living in two-parent households.”

One of SMF’s more prominent claims is that lone parents need to be included in equality policies with the aim of levelling out the wage gap between lone parents and cohabiting couples with or without children. They acknowledge the importance of organizing worklife in a way that takes into consideration the special needs and conditions of lone parents who do not have partner to share responsibilities. One issue in particular that they are lobbying for is extending opening hours in the municipal child care (SMF 2007: Vi vill också ha rättvisa och flexibilitet, En rapport om arbetsmarknad och barnomsorg för ensamstående föräldrar av Sveriges Makalösa Föräldrar), as there has been a reduction in hours of daycare centers with the decentralization of regulations and the introduction of a care allowance in which parents can reduce hours of daycare with the allowance. The organisation further opposes the tax deduction policy known as the “RUT deduction” that came into force in 2007 that subsidizes the employment of those providing domestic services with 50 percent reduction in the cost. Those individuals most likely to use such subsidized services are those who have higher incomes (well-off two parent families) to buy private childcare and domestic services. Few lone parents can afford these services.

As discussed in the Section 3 on trends, the unemployment of lone mothers has been the main emphasis in debates on lone mothers. The remedies for this are framed in terms of other vulnerable groups: low education and skills. Teenage pregnancy is so rare that it is not addressed in public debate.

Current political debates and policy initiatives with regard to lone parents

Under the current government, there have been two specific reforms that are directly aimed at lone parents. One has given parents with sole custody of their children the right to take out all 480 days of parental leave (typically each parent has the right to one-half of the leave). This probably affects very few lone parents as so few parents have sole custody in Sweden (see discussion below). The second reform, mentioned above, involves increasing the housing allowance, which will be put into effect in 2012. Moreover, the government is considering a rise in the level of maintenance support (*underhållsstöd*) in cases of sole physical custody where the child always resides with one parent) where the liable parent is unable to pay. These measures are directed particularly or primarily towards lone parents.

Generally the current government has not targeted specific vulnerable groups in policy either in family or employment policy. The main policy thrust has been on increased flexibility and freedom of choice, such as the introduction of a child care allowance that gives parents an opportunity to arrange for the care of their children in other ways in terms of choice in carers and time in the subsidized daycare and preschools. The policy would allow lone parents the right to reduce daycare hours (reduce costs by hiring another private caretaker or have more flexibility in times for when she starts and finishes work that are not constrained by municipal daycare hours). Finally the care allowance might allow the lone parent to extend the parental leave period. These may not be options for most lone parents, as the benefit is relatively low compared to the Finnish or Norwegian levels for care allowance (which this policy reform was based upon); the take levels are higher in those countries (Kangas Leira). Another example of choice in family policy can be seen in the recent policy option that allows a parent to transfer the parental leave benefit to a person other than the parent as approved by the National Health Insurance Agency, though only for lone parents who have sole custody) in which the sole parent is ill and unable to care for a child under the age of three years.

The debate on child poverty is naturally something that the current right coalition government cannot ignore as it has sought to define itself as family friendly. One might characterize them as social liberal in family policy area, though more neo-liberal in labour market policies. For example, the government has increased subsidies for families, such as the ones mentioned above, which are not generally associated with the right coalition politics. In response to the public discussion on the acute economic situation of lone parents, the current government also has commissioned an updated investigation of lone parents from Statistics Sweden, which does not have policy agenda, but rather the rationale is to increase knowledge and insight.

4 Labour market (regulation)

Key question: *What have been trends and developments on the demand side of labour impacting on the prospects of lone parents to participate in the labour market and earn a decent wage?*

The financial crisis and global economic crises affected most industrial economies. Sweden was no exception. During 2009 the total number of gainfully employed decreased by 126 500, representing a deeper reduction by 2.6 % compared to 2008. The economic crisis hit sectors in which men were employed so the figures are higher 3.4 % for men in comparison with 2.2 % for women. The entrepreneurial sector grew dramatically during the recession years: in 2009, as in 2008, most likely reflecting downsizing in both sectors. The number of entrepreneurs increased by 5 000, or 1.3 % in 2009. Women represent about 50 % of the increase, and comprise about 30 % of entrepreneurs in Sweden. This is significant in a society with low levels of small firm ownership and low levels of self employed.

Well-known is the gender segregated labour market in Sweden (Korpi et al 2011).² About 60 % of the gainfully employed workforce worked within the private business sector in 2009 (37.3 % women; 62.7 % men), and 30 % are employed in the public sector (of which the vast majority are women in the care sector; women comprise 75 % of public sector employees. During the last five years, public sector employment has decreased every year except for 2006, while the private business sector had been increasingly steadily up till 2009, when the recession hit, though it has come back up in 2010 (See figures in Labour Force Survey 2010, p. 5; and (Gustafsson and Lundberg 2004 p. 49. The decrease in public sector employment impacts lone parents adversely as this sector is viewed as one which is family friendly (Hoem 1993, Hobson and Fahlén forthcoming) which translates into more acceptance of family needs and situations, that is adjusting work schedules to family needs and situations and the certainty that one will retain the same position after parental leave period.

The Data on employment for the different branches in 2009 are; Health and social care (700 200 employees), Manufacturing and extraction (595 300 employees), and Commerce (529 699 employees) (Sources: Statistics Sweden 2009: Sysselsättning i kommuner och län 2009; Employment in municipalities and counties 2009, short summary in English, available at the website of Statistics Sweden: <http://www.scb.se/Pages/PublishingCalendarViewInfo 259923.aspx?publobjid=12127>).

Regarding labour market regulations, Sweden and the Nordic countries are those that fit into the coordinated economies in the Varieties of Capitalism paradigm with highly regulated protections in work through collective agreements. Sweden has a very level of union density (68 percent) and over 91 percent of employees are covered by collective bargaining agreements (Eurofond). It has a very strong anti-discrimination law protecting parents exercising their rights (the Parental Leave Act, SFS 1995:584) that is also to ensure that parents taking parental leave are not discriminated against in wage negotiations.

Structural features of the labour market, including more fixed contracts and temporary employment, have become more prevalent even in Sweden (See tables in Appendix A.3) and with strong unions and collective agreements. These types of insecure employment are more likely to be affect

² Korpi et al 2011 interpret the segregation indexes as reflecting the high proportion of care services that are external, many still covered by public sector. Still to be considered is the family friendly aspects of public sector employment.

vulnerable groups discussed above: immigrants, youth and lone mothers (SOU 2001:79) The Swedish legislation governing such employment follows the requirements of EU law.

Main labour market reforms impacting on lone parents employment situation

Although Social Democratic coalitions dominated Swedish governments for over 40 years, Swedish politics have been controlled by Conservative parties (a coalition with the Moderaterna as the leading party) since 2006. The coalition was re-elected in 2010. Their labour market political aims are to stimulate employment, particularly in the enterprise sector, lower employer contributions for social tax as well as tax rates in general.. An important labour market political reform made during their last term of office was the in-work tax credit known as *jobbskatteavdraget* (“the job reduction”) (Regeringskansliet 2010a). The reform implies income related tax deductions for employees, in which the percentages for the deduction are higher for the lower income brackets. This would help those lone mothers in employment, as discussed above, but as lone mothers are over-represented among the unemployed, this tax deduction does not in actuality address the situation of the underemployed..

A reform in 2007, introduced in the form of a tax deductions for private individuals using certain types of services, stimulated growth in the private business sector. Private persons purchasing services such as domestic and care services (e.g. cleaning and child care) and renovation of houses, are allowed a 50 percent tax deduction. Known as the “ROT”- and the “RUT-deductions, the rationale for these deductions was not to stimulate the economy but to reduce the levels of illegal work. Another rationale was gender equality, as women would have more time to devote to careers. The number of entrepreneurs providing these services has increased considerably, and particularly female entrepreneurship seems to have increased due to the increased demand resulting from the tax reduction on cost of procuring domestic services; a large share of companies providing cleaning services are run by women, and women are over-represented in private child care entrepreneurship. Nevertheless, there is no evidence that that lone mothers are benefitting from this reform either as users or entrepreneurs. The most recent study released yesterday from SCB showed that those using the care and domestic services were mainly elderly single women and couples with children. Those using the service among couples were in the highest income brackets (Sköld and Heggeman 2011). Few studies exist to evaluate the effects of this legislation as it is very recent. Some evidence suggests a shift from informal to formal employment in the “black” sectors. Other studies show a widening gap between well off-families and those with fewer resources. Lone mothers being overrepresented in the latter group will be least likely to use these kinds of services, particularly cleaning and care that reduce time poverty in families. Also to be taken into consideration is the widening of inequalities between women: those providing the services (mainly immigrants) and Swedish middle class women.

The government also recently implemented other generally labour market stimulating reforms, e.g. an employer who hires a person who has been away from the labour market for 12 months or longer does not have to pay payroll tax but instead receives the corresponding amount as a premium (“*nystartsjobb*”). Once again it is too early to evaluate the effects of this on specific groups.

Role of part time work

Almost no Swedish women work as short part-time workers (under 15 hours; see table in Appendix A.3), as many benefits are income related and pensions are calculated by income over the life course. For the most part, mothers work long part-time work when their children are small, which is defined

as 20-34 hours a week. In 2009, 20 % of all women had long part-time work. Short part-time work, defined as 1-19 hours a week, was held by app. 2 % of women in 2009. There has not been much fluctuation in the part-time work of Swedish women since the 1970s (Statistics Sweden 2010).

The policy in Sweden with respect to rights of parents to reduce hours when children are small has been in effect for decades. The shift between part-time and full-time has more recently been on the agenda. Many of the social benefits are tied to income level, consequently as women work more part-time than men, this has led to lower wages, pensions, benefits etc. One study of rights to reduce hours, notes that Sweden is one of the few countries in Europe that has a law that fully implements the EU Directive, allowing full reversibility (Fagan and Wathery forthcoming 2011), which allows workers to request both reduced hours and to return to full time work. However as the data described below shows, there are significant numbers of employees who would prefer to increase their work hours but do not have that possibility given the structure of work organization (see discussion below and table in Appendix A.3).

Low wage work

As seen in research of Fritzell et. al (2007) and Sainsbury and Morissens (2007) lone mothers are over-represented among the unemployed compared to married women, have less disposable income and higher poverty rates. In addition Fritzell et al (2007) note that they have more difficulty managing on their current incomes; 41 percent compared to 14 percent of all women and 16 percent of all women (p. 119) . According to both Swedish and Eurostat figures between 27 and 32 percent of lone parent households lived below 60 percent of the median income in 2009. For those with one child (up to 18) the rate is 24.5 percent; it is higher for those with more than one child 36.1 percent.

Other atypical forms of employment

In 2009, 66 % of all gainfully employed women aged 20-64 years worked full-time and 34 % worked part-time. The corresponding data for men were 89 % and 11 % respectively (Statistics Sweden 2010).

Between 2004 – 2005, 26.8 % of gainfully employed women and 21.3 % of men mainly worked asocial hours, hours outside the normal working day, which can be explained by the higher proportions of women working in care and health sector (Statistics Sweden,). There has been an increase in proportions of fixed contracts and temporary work shown in the tables in the Appendix A.3).

As the table on part time work in the Appendix A.3 shows, few working parents work under the short part time work thresholds. Regarding involuntary part time work, in the private sector, an investigation made by LO (a coalition of 14 labour unions in the blue collar sector, typically representing nurse assistants, mechanics, child minders, factory workers and the like) in 2009 showed that 50 % of all part-time employees would have liked to work more hours. The reasons for the inability to achieve this are: 280 000 people worked part-time because they were denied more work by their employers or because they could not find full time employment. Eighty percent of these involuntary part-time employees are women. About 220 000 part-time employees wanted to work full-time but could not, due to impaired working ability (Larsson, 2009). One study shows that women tend to have a slighter higher underemployment (would like to work more hours) than men and lone mothers show only slightly higher proportion than women in general (16% and 15 percent respectively).

About one million Swedes worked part-time in 2009, which equals 27 % of the total of 3.9 million gainfully employed. Women and blue collars are over represented among part-time workers. 41 % of all gainfully employed women worked part-time in 2009, compared to 12 % of the men. Among LO members the difference is even more prominent: 50 % of women and 9 % of men work part-time in this population (ibid.).

5 Tax and benefit system

Key question: *What have been major changes in the tax and benefit system during the last 10-15 years impacting on a) the financial well-being and b) financial incentives to take up paid work for lone parents?*

Sweden went from family taxation to individual taxation in the 1970s, which has provided strong incentives for women going into the workforce. Deductions for dependents are also not granted under Swedish tax law. Consequently, there is no difference from an income tax perspective between married couples, couples living together and single parents.

The support systems that mainly affect families and thereby single parents include the child benefit (*barnbidrag*), large family supplement (*flerbarnstillägg*), parental allowance (*föräldrapenning*), maintenance allowance (*underhållsbidrag*), maintenance support (*underhållsstöd*), housing allowance (*bostadsbidrag*)³ and study grants (*studiestöd*). Study grants are given to all those who study and apply for it and can be granted for a total of ten semesters of study. However, there is a supplement to the study grant given to parents, the size of which is dependent upon by the number of children. There is also an attendance allowance that is granted parents of children who have disabilities or suffer from long-term illness and thereby need special care or attendance. Finally, social assistance (*försörjningsstöd*, also called *socialbidrag*) is a “last resort” for people who have no other means of supporting themselves economically. It is only granted to people who have no other assets, such as owning their own homes or money in bank accounts, (Stenberg 2006).

Minor adjustments to these support systems are made every now and then. They mainly concern the size of the benefits and/or how they are calculated. It should be mentioned though that “minor” adjustments are important seen from the perspective of the recipients. Even when a benefit is raised by such seemingly small amount as SEK 100 a month, this may make a significant difference to families living on extremely tight budgets.

Benefit receipt among lone parents

Of those who started to receive minimum income benefits (*socialbidrag* or *försörjningsstöd*) in 1991, 6 % still receive it (2010). The outflow rate increased for every cohort up till entry year 1997, when the outflow rate decreased again; those who entered benefit dependency in 2001 and 2003 were not very different in terms of how long they remained on the benefit, compared to those who entered 1993 and 1995, the years of the Swedish financial crises. When the outflow from benefit dependency is seen from the perspective of family types, lone mothers are the group that have the longest periods of dependency on the benefit. One study in the 1990s shows that within this group social

³ Housing allowance is calculated by family size so that a lone parent with a fairly high income who has a large family will still be entitled to the benefit.

assistance was a supplement to their low incomes (Björnberg 1997). Cohabiting couples with children are also initially slow in leaving benefit dependency, but only 5 % of them remain in dependency for as long as 11-16 years, while the corresponding number for lone mothers is 10 % (note that the data ranges mainly from 1990-2007) (Biterman et. al 2010, pp. 114-115.; Social Rapport 2010).

The share of long term benefit recipients has decreased in relation to the entire population. In 2003, 2 % were long term recipients, compared to 3 % in 1994. However, among long term benefit recipients, the numbers of singles (people living alone) and immigrants are steadily increasing (Ibid).

Overall, these data support a general observation in the Swedish economy referred to in numerous reports: the economic situation of the overall population is improving, and the situation for the “weaker groups” is consequently worsening. This tendency is doubtlessly not unaffected by the fact that most economic measures are relative, but the more recent developments cannot be decoupled from other social and labour market policies that more conservative governments advocate. These policies are based upon the idea that it should always be more profitable to work than to receive social benefit (less eligibility: see Winkler 2002). This type of policy aims to stimulate the general economy and raises the living standard of the population overall, but makes it tougher for those who are unable to find employment despite measures for stimulating growth in the labour market.

Low income earners and benefit receipt

There are different benefits that support low income earners (housing benefit, social assistance) and the data do not distinguish between lone mothers and other low income earners. Data on the distribution of social assistance in Sweden in 2009 is found in: Socialstyrelsen (2010) Ekonomiskt bistånd – årsstatistik 2009; Utbetalda belopp samt antal biståndsmottagare och antal biståndshushåll. The report has a summarising section in English and a glossary to make all data tables accessible (p. 28 ff.) Available via Socialstyrelsen’s home page: <http://www.socialstyrelsen.se/publikationer2010/2010-6-11>. From the data requested from the labour force surveys, an interesting and provocative finding is that there is wide gap between the number of lone mother who are unemployed (10%) and those receiving unemployment assistance (3.6%) (see Table A-13 in Appendix A.2.) A policy change increasing workers' contribution to unemployment insurance scheme since the Conservative government came into office, has resulted in many opting out of the system. We assume that lone mothers, many with low incomes, cannot afford to pay into the scheme and are not receiving unemployment benefit when they become unemployed. Regarding the proportion of lone parents who are working and receiving child care allowance, it is important to keep in mind that all parents on parental leave are classified as working. The care allowance is an additional benefit that allows one to extend the leave period or hire a substitute in lieu of preschool hours. The most recent data shows that only 8 % of the applicants for care allowance are lone parents when compared with married or cohabiting parents, though the overall use is not large because of the low level of the benefit. The proportion of lone parents using the care allowance is slightly higher than the proportion of lone parents in the total population. 37.2 percent of the applicants defined themselves as non-working (icke sysslesatta), which is less than the proportion of non-working parents with children aged 0-3 years in the total population (SCB 2011).

General data on part-time work is available (Appendix A.3), but access to parents who are working and receive benefit are difficult to obtain. As earlier studies have shown, benefits comprise a significant proportion of the income package of lone parents (Hobson and Takahashi 1997, Sainsbury and Morissens 2010). Ulla Björnberg’s (1997) study of lone mothers in the 1990s referred to them as “supported workers who mother. An investigation on social assistance noted that lone mothers were

a group that continued to have social assistance support for many years (that it was not a short term solution but an ongoing benefit (Biterman et al. 2010). Statistics gathered in 2006 show that social assistance comprised 7 percent of lone parents disposable income (see above discussion for figures on the extent to which social benefits reduce levels of lone parent poverty levels (Socialstyrelsen 2010).

6 Family policies and family related services and regulations

Key question: *To what extent and how do family policies and family related services (child care) as well as employers strategies enhance or hamper the reconciliation of work and family life for lone parents? How has that changed over the last 10-15 years?*

Policy regarding the parental insurance system has traditionally been focused on establishing gender equality in Sweden. Debates have focused around how many of the parental leave days following upon the birth of a child (currently 240 days per parent) are used by mothers and fathers respectively, and whether this should be distributed between the parents by law or left to the individuals to decide for themselves. The current legislation states that 60 of the parental leave days are reserved for each parent (papa months) while the rest of the 180 days can be transferred from one parent to the other parent.

Officially financed child care was instituted in the 70s and the parental insurance system was established in 1974 with the goal of encouraging women's participation in the labour market. In 1995, the "use or lose it" policy, known as the "papa month" was introduced, which meant that 30 of the parental leave days were reserved for each parent and non-transferable. In 2002 this was extended to two months (Håkansson, 2005). Today parents with sole custody are entitled to all 480 days of parental leave. The benefit levels have fluctuated slightly over the years. The parental leave cash benefit that is income based is today at 80 % of the income of the parent taking the leave up to a certain fixed ceiling. The father's share of the leave in 2008 reached 21.5 percent (Swedish Social Insurance Agency 2011). Figures for 2005 show that 84 percent of fathers take some of the leave before their child's eighth birthday, as the law allows one to use the leave up until that age. There is no published data on the share of Lone fathers.

The parental leave legislation was revised in 2010 so as to allow the payment of the parental leave benefit to a person other than a parent if a sole parent has become ill and cannot take care of a child under the age of three years.

Concerning norms guiding family policies, one can generally say that external childcare is considered as being of high quality and that availability of subsidized services by municipalities is taken for granted. Typically, children are enrolled in preschool at around the age of 1.5 years. A new benefit was introduced during the last term of office, the care allowance (*vårdnadsbidrag*). The benefit can be granted to individuals who want to find alternative solutions to the care of their children, other than that provided by municipal preschools. The purpose is thus to increase parent's freedom of choice and to offer a possibility to spend more time with their children. However, the municipalities decide individually whether they want to introduce this benefit. The municipalities are also free to adjust the conditions such as for what ages of children the benefit can be granted and the size of the benefit (Socialstyrelsen 2010).

Access to external care services

Every municipality in Sweden has the obligation to provide childcare to the children in the municipality. Technically, childcare is to be available regardless of how young the child. In actuality, however, many municipalities have childcare available only after the child has reached a certain age, often the age at which the parental leave benefit at 80 % of the parent's income up to a certain ceiling ends, typically eighteen months of age.

The Education Act (SFS 2010:800) does not state how many hours of preschool a day or a week children are entitled to. This is regulated individually by municipalities. However, the Education Act states that public preschool should be offered children from the age of three years a minimum of 525 hours a year.

As each child in a municipality is to be guaranteed a place in the municipal day care, no distinction is made as to whether a child lives with both parents or only one.

About 50 % of Sweden's 290 municipalities provide child care during inconvenient hours i.e. weekends, late days or nights. About 40 of these 146 municipalities provide child care around the clock. About 30 provide child care "as needed" without further specification (Hagström et al. 2008). That which is considered "convenient hours" is not specified but normally ranges at the earliest from around 6.30 to 18.00 at the latest. Lone parents who live in municipalities where child care is not provided in inconvenient hours generally find this difficult.

Municipal after-school programs in the afternoon are provided to children in the grades of one through three of school. After year three, at the age of about nine to ten years, children are considered old enough to take care of themselves when school ends, though municipalities can provide places in after school programs for children aged 10-12 if they choose. If such is available, families can decide individually how much and when the children should participate in these activities (Skolverket 2009, <http://www.skolverket.se/sb/d/781/a/3432>).

All municipalities are obligated to make sure that the available places are sufficient for any demand.

Child-care costs and fees

Between 2001 and 2003 a maximum fee for the costs of child care was introduced, regulating how much municipalities can charge parents for child care in preschool and for activities after school for younger school children. Data on fees are presented in Skolverket's publication, *Five years with the maximum fee* (Skolverket 2007) p. 12. This publication in English contains additional information about Swedish preschool and is available via Skolverket's webpage: <http://www.skolverket.se/sb/d/107>.

The municipalities have the right to decide regarding the payment of day care fees, with many having the fees on a sliding scale up to a certain income level. The introduction of the maximum fee resulted in a general reduction of fees, and equalization between families as well as municipalities. Before the reform, some families paid as much as SEK 6000 a month for external child care. After the introduction of the reform, no family paid more than SEK 2 280 a month regardless of number of children and hours.

Policies impacting on employers strategies

There are no policy incentives for employers to provide childcare. The regulations aimed at securing family friendly work patterns are rights within Swedish law on reducing hours and parental leave.

Under the Discrimination Act (SFS 2008:567, available in English at the website of the Discrimination Ombudsman, www.do.se), employers have a positive duty to facilitate the reconciliation of work and family for employees.

Under the Parental Leave Act (SFS 1995:584) (an English translation of the act is available at the website of the Government Offices of Sweden at www.sweden.gov.se), parents have certain rights to work part-time until a child reaches the age of eight years. Also, lone parents have the right to protest work in inconvenient hours (late days, nights and weekends). The Parental Leave Act, also provides strong protections for employees dismissing parents who take leave, both mothers and fathers.

Share of pre-school-children who are cared for by external service providers

In October 2008, 81 % of children aged 1-5 were enrolled in public or private preschool. Four percent of children in this age group were enrolled in “family day care homes”, a form of child care given by what is generally called a “day mom” in her home. 78 % of children aged 1-3 were cared for by external service providers (public or private preschool or family day care homes) and 98 % of children aged 4-5 (Skolverket 2009). Additional data available table in Appendix A.4).

7 Active labour market policies

Key question: *How have active labour market policies and programmes targeted lone parents and what results did they produce? Who has benefited from the reforms and who has fared less well?*

IFAU (Insitutet för Arbetsmarknadspolitisk Utvärdering, The Institute for Labour Market Policy Evaluation) have an English version of their web page. Several relevant reports are available via <http://www.ifau.se/sv/>

Work-related requirements / obligations for beneficiary

The municipalities decide individually whether activation programs should be mandatory for social benefit recipients. However, “[i]n 1998, the Social Services Act was changed to explicitly allow municipalities to require welfare participants to take part in activation programs to retain their eligibility. The activation programs in the Swedish municipalities consist of job-search programs and education as well as practice at job sites. In some cases, rehabilitation programs are also offered” (Persson and Vikman, 2010).

A basic eligibility criteria for social assistance is that all other assets are exhausted, as described by Persson and Vikman (2010): “Social assistance is a means-tested benefit, implying that all other financial resources (such as savings and valuable assets) must be exhausted before an individual is eligible for benefits. This benefit is a last resort when social insurance, such as unemployment insurance and health insurance, is not available or is insufficient. In contrast to unemployment insurance and the income-related parental leave benefit, which are calculated on the basis of previous income, social assistance is not income based” (p. 8).

The Swedish Public Employment Service, Arbetsförmedlingen, is the official authority assigned to “approve the labour market’s way of functioning” (Source: SFS 2007:1030 2 §). In order to be eligible for unemployment benefits (most typically A-kassa), an individual is required to be enrolled with

Swedish Public Employment Service and in an unemployment benefit fund. “Unemployment benefit” does not really describe the system very well, it is rather an insurance system. The individual has to have been a paying member in an unemployment benefit fund for a minimum period of 12 months prior to unemployment in order to be eligible to A-kassa. During this time, that individual has to have worked at least 80 hours a month. To be eligible, an individual also is required to “be actively job-seeking”. The Swedish Public Employment Service offers support by way of providing information and personal counselling to their members, and also verifying that members are applying for jobs. This verification is done via phone calls or personal meetings. The officer at the Swedish Public Employment Service makes an assessment as to how much support the job seeker needs, and the frequency of follow-ups is decided based on that judgment. The work is generally based on the presupposition that people are honest when reporting what actions they have taken in pursuit of a job. Even though officers can call and verify with an employer that a certain job seeker has applied for a position, this is not part of the usual routine (partly also due to time constraints). In cases where members are not considered to be active in their job seeking, or if they in other ways counteract their chances of getting employed (e.g. by turning down a job offer or not applying for a job they have been assigned to apply for by their officer at the Swedish Public Employment Service), this is reported to the unemployment benefit fund and the benefits are fully or partly withdrawn depending of the degree of the misdemeanour.

Groups targeted for specific measures and support are immigrants, long-term unemployed and young people, i.e., there are no specific regulations or support programs targeting lone parents or parents in general. A policy targeting families with children allows parents with children under the age of 18 are entitled to 150 extra days of unemployment benefit beyond the 300 obligatory days.

Unemployment Benefit Requirements and Work Activation

An employee has to pay for unemployment insurance, either through the union or by being a member of the state unemployment insurance. The employer has to be located in Sweden, and the employee has to work at least 17 hours a week for four weeks. If an employee has not been a member of the unemployment insurance scheme previously, she has the right to the basic compensation (*grundersättning*) which has a ceiling of 320 SEK (35 Euros) per day. To receive the income based compensation, the employee has to meet these requirements: (1) to have been a member of the unemployment insurance for twelve months prior to becoming unemployed. (2) to have worked at least 6 months during this period; (3) to have worked at least 80 hours a month in the six month period. An employee can fulfill the work requirement if she worked at least 480 hours over six consecutive months, but she had to have worked at least 50 hours each month.

To receive the unemployment benefit, the individual must be actively seeking work, which means that the person has to register with the Swedish unemployment office (*arbetsförmedling*). If the individual terminated the employment voluntarily, there is a 45 day waiting period before benefits can be paid. Otherwise, the benefit is paid after five days. During the first 200 days, the unemployment compensation is 80 % of the previous wage, but the percentage of wage compensation drops to 70 % after 200 days (from day 201 until 300 days). If the individual fulfills the requirements of “actively looking for work,” another 300 day period can be granted, but the level of compensation is lower (65% of the previous wage, with a ceiling of 680 SEK (75 Euros) per day before tax.

In the post 300 day period, not actively look for work, implies participating in a “job and development program (guarantee program in Swedish). This requirement can vary from region to

region, but generally it is divided into three phases. During the first phase of the guarantee period (about five months), the individual is provided with coaching on how to find employment. During the second phase (in the next months) the unemployment office organizes a traineeship or training program. In the third phase after 450 days on being unemployed, the individual can be assigned community service. Compensation under this program is provided by the Social Insurance Agency, rather than unemployment insurance at a rate not exceeding SEK 680 (75 Euros) a day. If the individual is not eligible for the guarantee for some reason, they may be eligible for social assistance if the municipality finds that they need financial support.

Employment assistance / job-search support

In addition to services such as information and personal counselling, the Swedish Public Employment Service offers a small selection of short and basic, work related educations free of charge via external companies. They also investigate the work ability of people who have been away from the labour market for a longer period of time, e.g. due to long-term illness and people with certain physical or psychological disability.

Job seekers are entitled to additional help by job coaches if they want it. These are external entrepreneurs with whom the Swedish Public Employment Service has juridical agreements.

Job seekers are not required to take part in any particular programs. There is no specific data on lone parents on these services.

Other support services provided by the job agencies, e.g. help in finding appropriate child care

There are no such support services provided by job agencies or labour market organizations as the municipalities have the obligation to provide child care within the parameters discussed above

Effects of activation and welfare reforms on employment and financial situation

Effects of exit and entry rates into social assistance are linked to unemployment rates so that when the Swedish economy began its recovery both exit and entry rates declined. Studies of the dynamic effects of mandatory activation of welfare participants use register data and therefore lone parents living alone are not a category that is often investigated. Persson and Vikman (2010) provide one of the most in-depth analyses of exit and entry on activation policies, but their analysis on lone mothers is limited. Their study and others find that activation policies had some effect on entry rates for the general population (between 3 and 5 percent). Lone parents are a group that they define as having high entry and slow exit rates. However they are unable to look at the effects over time since that involves register data. Hence they limit themselves to two vulnerable subgroups: immigrants and youth: activation had no effect on entry and exit of non-European immigrants, though significant effects among youth when considering entry effects, but not exit. (see also Arni et al. 2009).

One specific reform that shows positive effect of activation through access to childcare can be seen in the reform requiring municipalities to offer childcare to unemployed parents for at least 15 hours per week. Although some municipalities had this policy in effect before the reform, the legislation mandated all municipalities to implement it. Using Hazard rate models, Vikman (2010) found that the reform had a significant and positive effect on the probability of mothers going off unemployment benefits, but no effect is found for fathers, which she suggests is because the responsibility for caring rests mainly with mothers. She finds large and significant effects for low-educated mothers (compulsory education) and those with more than two children. (Vikman, 2010).

Considering the tax reform jobbskatteavdraget discussed above Aaberge and Flood (2008) evaluate the results of the reform implemented in 2007/2008, with a specific focus on the effects for lone mothers. They find average on disposable income increased by almost 6 percent (little effect on mothers in the lowest income decile, and working hours by 3 percent, alongside a decrease of 20 percent in social assistance dependency. However this data does not adjust for mothers living in cohabitant relationships so it is not an analysis of single mothers living alone.

The question on the proportion of lone parents who are both working and receiving minimum income benefits is discussed in the first section and the general section on how social assistance and housing subsidies are part of lone parent income package.

How many leave benefit receipt without taking up employment?

This is not relevant question in Sweden as we have very few housewives. Marrying and repartnering on average increase the income of solo mothers by about a third.

As discussed above, Gahler (2001) (and Fritzell et al (2007) underscore that part time work for lone mothers is not only by choice. The 1990s marked a shift in unemployment levels and decrease in average work hours for lone mothers, which their study suggests reflect structural changes in the labour market: employers can be more selective and lone mothers tend to have lower educational levels than coupled mothers. There is no research to document this in Sweden (due to data limitations). In Finland, Härkönen (from power point presentation: paper is not yet written) has done research on a similar question and presented some research that suggests similar structural changes and low educational backgrounds revealed the same pattern there: decrease in lone mother's employment levels compared to married/cohabitant mothers.

We do not have longitudinal data that allow us to look at duration of part time work. We only have cross-sectional data. For 2005, 18 % of the part-time workers in the population were lone parents (Statistics Sweden). The LNU which is longitudinal study of the Swedish population does not have large enough sample for studying this effect over time for lone parents.

Effects on well-being of lone parents and family members staying / leaving benefit receipt

Economic conditions affect health and well being in several ways. A report based on a national health survey conducted in 2002 (with slightly more than 31 000 respondents) showed that lone mothers in Stockholm are worse off in regards to social as well as economic dimensions, compared to mothers who are married or cohabiting (Burström 2007). On average, they have a lower level of education and were more prone to have been unemployed during a previous period of two years (16 % compared to 11 % of cohabiting mothers). 8 % of lone mothers reported having had to apply for social assistance, compared to just above 1 % of cohabiting mothers. About 50 % of lone mothers further reported having had to forgo medical treatment (doctor's visits) due to lack of financial resources, compared to 20 % of cohabiting mothers. In the age group 30-44 years, 17 % of lone mothers report that they always or most of the time lack personal support networks. Lone mothers are more prone to long-term illness and impaired psychological well-being according to GHQ12 (General Health Questionnaire). Stress and anxiety is also particularly common in this group. This deterioration in health and wellbeing was documented in Fritzell et al (2007).

In general, people receiving social benefits rate their health lower than those who do not, and longer periods of benefit dependency have a further depressing effect on health (SOU 2007). Lone mothers

weakened position in the labour market is a crucial dimension for understanding these effects presented below. Lone mothers have an increased propensity to experience these mutually reinforcing welfare problems, such as economic vulnerability, unemployment, poor health, cramped housing accommodation, insecurity, lack of public resources and a limited social network (Biterman et al. 2010).

Investigations also show that growing up in a lone parent household can have negative effects on children (Stenberg 2006). Children of lone parents have an increased propensity to develop psychological illness and addictions, and the suicide rates are higher among this group. The level of education is also lower in this group compared to children who grow up with cohabiting parents. These effects need to be seen in terms of lower incomes and unemployment rather than lone-parent status as lone parents are not stigmatized.

8 Alimony / child support payments / Maintenance allowance

Key question: *To what extent do lone parents receive financial support from the other parent of the child(ren)? How (successfully) do state regulations intervene in this domain?*

In this section, the Swedish framework for fatherhood and fathering responsibilities is defined differently than in the other countries in this project. The rights of biological fathers are strong both in terms of access to children (the case for both unmarried and non-cohabiting fathers), and in cases of divorce, shared custody favours the father, whereas the financial responsibilities of fathers after divorce are less.

The husband in a marriage is presumed by law to be the father of any child born within the marriage. If the couple is cohabiting, the man has to register paternity. If no declaration of paternity is registered, the Social Welfare Committee of the municipality has a duty to investigate paternity on behalf of the child as historically the best interest of the child include knowing her/his biological father. If the mother refuses to cooperate with the paternity investigation, the mother can by law be seen as forfeiting certain social benefits in accordance with Section 7 of Chapter 18 of the Social Insurance Code (SFS 2010:110): “Maintenance support is not to be provided if the child’s mother is the parent with physical custody and she obviously without valid reason fails to take or cooperate to measures in order to have paternity or parental responsibility according to the Parental Code of the child determined.”

Legal obligations

Both parents of a child have maintenance obligations to the child according Section 1 of Chapter Seven of the Parental Code (SFS 1949:381) to an extent that is “reasonable with respect to the child’s needs and the parents’ joint economic abilities. When the parents’ maintenance responsibility is determined, consideration is to be taken as to the child’s own income and assets as well as to the child’s social benefits with respect to that which follows from the regulations as to that.” This obligation exists whether the parents are married or cohabiting, and also after the termination of the relationship between the parents.

Joint physical and legal custody is the main rule today with respect to separation, entailing that the parents equally share the custody of any child. However, if one parent requests sole custody, the courts have to award sole custody and cannot award joint custody. If 50% joint custody is awarded, as a rule no maintenance is paid by either parent. In the event only one of the parents has physical

custody, or the majority of the physical custody, maintenance is to be paid as established by an agreement between the parents or decreed by judicial order as stated in Section 2 of Chapter 7 of the Parental Code. The parent paying maintenance has the right to certain deductions (*underhållsstöd*) for his/her own needs as well as the needs of other dependents, reducing the level of payment. Bergman and Hobson (2003) found that the reforms in the mid-1990 increased the payment assessed for child support (regardless of need). Moreover although a father's new family responsibilities would be taken into account, it was not a reason for not paying. However assessment of responsibilities does not always result in the amount paid as a study of income maintenance paid out to my mother's attests (the state then is expected to collect the money from the delinquent father).

There is in general no right to alimony (spousal maintenance) between spouses. Alimony is available only in exceptional cases (near destitution of one spouse) and only for a limited time (up to three years typically).

Effective maintenance / alimony payments

As stated above, alimony is not available in Sweden.

As of December 2009, 152 207 parents were considered to have a legal responsibility to pay maintenance support. As discussed above, Swedish law guarantees advance maintenance payments to mothers if the father cannot pay. As of 2010, 38 % of the liable parents were in debt to the Swedish National Insurance Agency⁴ (Försäkringskassan 2010). Additional statistics are available at http://statistik.forsakringskassan.se/rfv/html/uhs_tab_4_1_2009.html

Advance maintenance payments

The current legislation does not prescribe fixed and registered maintenance. Hence, maintenance cannot always be collected from liable parents who do not pay. In 2010 Riksrevisionen (the governmental control agency) investigated the maintenance legislation (*underhållsstödet*) due to the insufficiency of the current system (Riksrevisionen 2010). Today a significant proportion of children do not get the maintenance to which that they are entitled. The goal of the current legislation is that parents should regulate the allowance themselves, a line that has not been successfully pursued. One of the problems is that many lone parents are unaware of these rules. Today, parents can turn to Försäkringskassan for help when the size of the maintenance is to be settled or when the liable parent simply lack sufficient means, in which case Försäkringskassan can pay all or parts of the maintenance (*underhållsstöd*, a maximum amount of SEK 1 273 (Euros) a month). Riksrevisionen recommended that a national instance be established that parents can turn to in order to get help in establishing and registering maintenance agreements after separations. If maintenance arrangements were fixed and registered, it should also be possible for parents to turn to a national instance other than the court for help to collect the maintenance if the other parent refuses to pay.

In 2003, 47 % of children to lone parents received *underhållsstöd* from the Swedish National Insurance Agency, Försäkringskassan. 53 % thus received maintenance from the liable parent or had alternate living arrangements (lived 50 % of the time with the one parent and 50 % with the other).

Additional data concerning payments and repayments of maintenance support available via http://statistik.forsakringskassan.se/rfv/html/uhs_tab_4_2009.html.

⁴ This does not include cases that have been transferred to enforcement service.

9 Cultural values and norms

Key question: *Please provide key results from surveys on people's attitudes towards a) lone parenting and b) employment participation of mothers and lone parents in particular. How has that changed over time?*

There are very few surveys on attitudes toward lone parenting. This reflects the lack of social stigma attached to lone mothers. The reasons for this involve both the laws and policies that emerged in the 1970s eradicating the concept of legitimate and illegitimate children, or the status differences between married mothers with children and unmarried mothers with children (cohabitating). Early on the fluidity in families was recognized in Swedish law and policy and seen in practices of mothers and fathers. As cohabitant couples have a much higher dissolution rate, mothers who were in couple relations, might be single for a period, and then re-partnered at another point in time. Because of the high rates of cohabitation among couples, Swedish studies do not make a distinction between married and cohabitant couples with children. Many couples marry after a child is born or second child is born (Bergman and Hobson 2003). Another reason for the lack of stigma attached to lone parenthood, and in particular lone mothers, is the perceived heterogeneity of the category itself. Unlike the US and UK, teenage pregnancy is almost non-existent in Sweden. Hence there are no specific characteristics attached to lone mothers as a group. High profile lone mothers appear in the media, such as Margareta Winberg, who was minister of social affairs in the Social Democratic government in the 1990s. She made visible her status as a lone mother in public discourse on lone mothers and initiated policies to make fathers in divorce have greater financial responsibility for child support.

Though lacking stigma on the basis of their parenthood status, nevertheless lone mothers can experience statistical discrimination on the basis of their parenthood. This is particularly true in periods of recession and downsizing when employers have more choice in selecting employees. Because all mothers are assumed to be primarily responsible for care, employers imagine lone mothers without a partner to have higher absenteeism and will have greater difficulties reconciling family demands with work demands. These perceptions of lone mothers were echoed in a small survey compiled by Sveriges Makalösa Föräldrar (SMF, 2010) Of the 111 respondents, all lone parents, 79 % reported that they have felt discriminated due to their parenthood. 87 % responded found it difficult to combine work life and parenthood mainly due to time shortages. The other 13 % stated that they did not experience these conflicts either because they had grown up children or employers who were "understanding".

General consumption is high in Sweden and the normative standard of living is high. "Normal standard" includes material assets such as computers, mobile phones, internet access in the home etc. The prevalence of such assets is generally higher in families with cohabiting/married parents than in families with lone providers (Stenberg 2006). In a study conducted by Save the Children Sweden in 2004, children living in economic scarcity expressed shame over not being able to afford these things. Their lack of economic resources also limited their opportunities to establish social relationships, as their family economy prevented them from doing things that are considered important and that other children do (Harju 2004),

10 Other issues and questions

Division of Child benefit between mothers and fathers with physical custody

In Sweden all children (or rather their parents) receive child benefits. It is given to the mother by default, with only a few exceptions. The size of the benefit depends on the number of children in the household but is unaffected by other household economic dimensions. The basic amount per child is SEK 1 050 a month. Families with more than one child are also eligible to a “large family supplement” which increases by number of children after the first. The large family supplement levels were raised by the government in 2010 (Regeringskansliet 2010b). Recent legislation that gave father’s with shared physical custody rights to part of this benefit remains a contested issue as lone mothers tend to have less earnings. This conflict underscores tensions in two policy areas: reduction of lone mother poverty and incentives and rights for fathers to be more engaged in active fathering.

Higher rates of poverty among lone mothers have continued in the decade after the financial crises and have risen again in the post 2008 global financial crisis. Save the Children, Sweden has documented this. The first report in a series of eight studies since economic recession in the 90’s show that child poverty increased drastically during the period 1991 to 1997, when 22.3 % of Swedish children lived below the poverty line. Although child poverty decreased by half in 2007 as the Swedish economy recovered, it has risen slightly again with financial crisis of 2008 (Thornblad 2010). Two groups of children are overrepresented among those with high rates of child poverty: children of foreign origin (level of child poverty is more than five times as high as among Swedish children, 29.5 % compared to 5.4 %) and children to lone parents (level of child poverty is more than three times as high as among children with cohabiting parents, 24.7 % compared to 8.1 %). Among children who belong to both categories, i.e. who have a lone parent of foreign origin, the child poverty level is 49 %, compared to Swedish children to cohabiting parents where 2.3 % are poor.

Lone mothers remain fairly invisible in policy and political debate in comparison with other vulnerable groups, particularly immigrants and ethnic minorities. Swedish studies and statistics over the last decade focus on the conditions of immigrants. The integration of immigrants in the labour market and their poverty as well as other facets of their social exclusion (including early school leaving) have been addressed in expert government commissions: There has been very little attention paid to immigrant lone mothers, despite the high divorce rate among immigrants.

Another reason for the lack of data and analysis of lone mother’s conditions is that most studies and data consider children’s poverty (so that household is the unit of analysis). The perspective on the parent disappears: Lone mothers are in different situation than married/cohabitant in terms of economic poverty risk and time poverty.

There is lack of adequate research on lone parenthood using individual level and longitudinal data that would allow us to track the changing situation of lone parents since research done by Fritzell et al. Even in that analysis, they had to average several years to have a large enough sample size of lone parents. Our only recent source is Save the Children (2010) which looks lone parents in relation to child poverty. More rigorous and more in depth analysis is needed to understand the changing conditions that global economic pressures have on lone parents’ situation.

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Legal acts

- Enactment SFS 2007:1030 with instructions to the Swedish Public Employment Service
- The Education Act: SFS 2010:800
- The Parental Code: SFS 1949:381
- The Parental Leave Act: SFS 1995:584
- The Social Insurance Code: SFS 2010:110

A. Appendix: Figures and Tables

A.1 Socio-demographic structure

Table A- 1 **Total number, share, share of male/female lone parent households, 1991-2009.** Numbers and shares of couple households and lone parent households w. children aged up to 18 years out of the total number of households and out of the total number of households with children.

	1991	1995	2000	2005	2009
Total number					
Total number of households	4 141 000	4 244 000	4 363 000	4 441 000	4 628 000
Number of couple households w. children	926 000	895 000	889 000	888 000	887 000
Number of lone parent households (men + women)	215 000	237 000	270 000	294 000	288 000
Shares out of total number of households					
Share of couple households w. children	22 %	21 %	20 %	20 %	19 %
Share of lone parent households	5 %	6 %	6 %	7 %	6 %
Shares out of total number of households with children					
Share of couple households w. children 0-19	81 %	80 %	77 %	75 %	75 %
Share of lone parent households	19 %	20 %	23 %	25 %	25 %

Source: : Statistics Sweden, *Hushållens ekonomi (HEK)*, Table ,*Antal hushåll efter hushållstyp/ Antal kosthushåll boende i Sverige 31/12 respektive år*, <http://www.scb.se/sv/Hitta-statistik/Statistik-efter-amne/Hushallens-ekonomi/Inkomster-och-inkomstfordelning/Hushallens-ekonomi-HEK/7289/7296/Antal-hushall/Antal-hushall-efter-hushallstyp/>

Table A- 2 Share of lone mother and lone father households, 1990 and 2009

	1990		1995		2000		2005		2009	
	Male (M)	Female (F)	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Share of male/female lone parents	16 %	84 %	16 %	84 %	17 %	83 %	21 %	79 %	23 %	77 %

Source: Statistics Sweden, Hushållens ekonomi (HEK), Table 'Antal hushåll efter hushållstyp/ Antal kosthushåll boende i Sverige 31/12 respektive år', <http://www.scb.se/sv/Hitta-statistik/Statistik-efter-amne/Hushallens-ekonomi/Inkomster-och-inkomstfordelning/Hushallens-ekonomi-HEK/7289/7296/Antal-hushall/Antal-hushall-efter-hushallstyp/>

Table A- 3 Age of lone parents by age bracket, 2006

Age bracket	Percent
< 25	2
25-40	40
> 40	68

Source: Statistics Sweden.

As lone mothers are not fixed category, but move in and out of cohabitant relationships, the table adds up to more than 100%

Table A- 4 Educational levels by sex and household type, 2008-2009

	Primary education	Gymnasium 2-3 years	Tertiary ed
Mothers in couple households	8,5 %	23,7 %	30,7 %
Lone parents total	13,4 %	21,1 %	16,9 %
Lone mothers	13,3 %	23,6 %	16,9 %

Source: Derived from Statistics Sweden: Labor Force Survey (ULF)

Table A- 5 Educational levels, men and women aged 25- 49 years, 2008-2009

	2008			2009		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Primary ed or less	12,8	9,6	11,2	12,6	9,4	11,0
Gymnasium 2-3 years	51,0	44,7	47,9	50,6	43,7	47,2
Some Tertiary education	36,2	45,8	40,9	36,8	46,9	41,8

Source: Derived from Statistics Sweden

Table A- 6 Share of age of youngest child by lone parent households and couple households, 2008

	0-5 years	6-12 years	13-17 years
Couple households	88,3%	78,8%	71,5%
Lone mothers	10,3%	17,3%	22,5%
Lone fathers	1,4%	4,0%	6,0%
Total	638855	675255	604296

Source: Statistics Sweden. Statistikdatabasen/Levnadsförhållanden, Table ,Hemmaboende barn och ungdomar 0-21 år efter kön, ålder, familjetyp (sammanboende eller ensamstående föräldrar) och utländsk/svensk bakgrund. År 2004-2008'.

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=LE&omradetext=Levnadsf%F6rh%E5llanden&lang=1>

Table A- 7 Share of lone parent households and couple households by age of youngest child, 2008

	Couple households	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
0-5 years	36,9%	20,7%	12,4%
6-12 years	34,8%	36,6%	37,3%
13-17 years	28,3%	42,7%	50,3%
Total	1527594	319016	71796

Source: Statistics Sweden. Statistikdatabasen/Levnadsförhållanden, Table ,Hemmaboende barn och ungdomar 0-21 år efter kön, ålder, familjetyp (sammanboende eller ensamstående föräldrar) och utländsk/svensk bakgrund. År 2004-2008'.

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=LE&omradetext=Levnadsf%F6rh%E5llanden&lang=1>

Table A- 8 Share of number of children by lone parent households and couple households, 2008

	1 child	2 children	3+ children
Couple households	64,4%	81,2%	84,6%
Lone mothers	27,4%	15,4%	13,4%
Lone fathers	8,2%	3,4%	2,0%
Total	373070	515251	209717

Source: Statistics Sweden, Statistikdatabasen/Levnadsförhållanden, Table ,Familjer med hemmaboende barn 0-21 år i riket efter barnens ålder, familjetyp (sammanboende eller ensamstående föräldrar) och antal barn i familjen 2005-2008' (<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/start.asp>).

Table A- 9 Share of lone parent household and couple household by number of children aged 0-17, 2008

	Couple households	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
1 child	28,8%	48,7%	58,5%
2 children	50,0%	37,9%	33,6%
3+ children	21,2%	13,4%	7,9%
Total	836155	209636	52247

Source: Statistics Sweden, Statistikdatabasen/Levnadsförhållanden, Table ,Familjer med hemmaboende barn 0-21 år i riket efter barnens ålder, familjetyp (sammanboende eller ensamstående föräldrar) och antal barn i familjen 2005-2008 (<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/start.asp>).

A.2 Socio-economic situation/benefits

Table A- 10 Disposable income of couples with children and lone parents in SEK, 2009

	Per household type		Per consumption unit	
	Mean	Median	Mean	Median
All households	324897	255613	229152	199772
Couple with children aged 0-19 years	530401	481301	219780	201003
1 child	-	452597	-	217004
2 children	-	500147	-	202223
3+ children	-	499313	-	165661
All lone parents	276899		156839	
Lone mothers	-	240573	-	131902
1 child	-	225784	-	144072
2+ children	-	255693	-	125353
Lone fathers	-	288537	-	171359
1 child	-	275901	-	173358
2+ children	-	342155	-	168505

Source: Statistics Sweden. Statistikdatabasen/Hushållens ekonomi (HEK). Table 'Disponibel inkomst för hushåll efter hushållstyp. Medianvärden i tusentals kronor och 2009 års priser'.

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=HE&omradetxt=Hush%E5llens+ekonomi&lang=1>

Note: No separate figures for mean disposable income for lone mothers and lone fathers available.

Table A- 11 Percentage of households with earnings below poverty thresholds. Comparing couples, lone parents and childless households, 2003-2007

	2003-2007
Couple without children	2,4
Couple with children 0-18 years	7,6
Lone mothers w. child 0-18 years	22,4
Lone fathers w. child 0-18 years	10,9
Lone women without children	14,4
Lone men without children	13,1

Source: Socialstyrelsen, National Social Insurance Board, Social rapport 2010.

Table A- 12 Percentage of persons with low disposable income by household type (<60% of median equivalised income after social transfers) 1991, 1995, 1999-2009

	1991	1995	1999	2001	2003	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total population 20+ years	7,1	6,5	7,5	8,6	8,0	9,0	9,2	11,2	12,3	12,5
Lone men/women without ch.	13,5	10,4	12,0	15,8	14,0	15,4	15,8	20,2	21,7	22,1
Lone women without children	14,7	9,7	12,5	17,3	14,1	15,8	15,7	22,8	24,9	-
Lone men without children	12,1	11,1	11,4	14,3	13,9	15,0	16,0	17,5	18,5	-
Lone parents w. child 0-19 years	11,1	12,3	11,1	15,4	17,5	19,3	21,0	24,6	29,5	27,0
Lone mothers w. child 0-19 years	12,4	11,1	11,7	16,3	20,1	22,0	23,7	28,2	32,8	-
Lone fathers w. child 0-19 years	5,3	18,0	8,9	12,0	8,1	10,2	14,2	13,9	19,0	-
Couple without children	3,9	4,4	5,0	4,7	4,5	5,1	5,0	5,9	6,3	6,3
Couple w. child 0-19 years	5,1	6,4	7,7	6,6	6,5	7,9	7,6	8,7	8,9	9,7

Source: Statistics Sweden. Statistikdatabasen/Hushållens ekonomi (HEK). Table 'Andel personer i hushåll med låg respektive hög inkomst i förhållande till medianen efter ålder och hushållstyp. År 1991-2009'

(<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=HE&omradetext=Hush%E5llens+ekonomi&lang=1>)

Table A- 13 Share of lone and coupled mothers and fathers living with children 0-17 year who receive unemployment benefits and share of unemployed, mean figures for 2010

	% who receive unemployment benefit	% Unemployed
Lone Parents	3.8	8.8
Men	4.1	6.8
Women	3.6	10.0
Coupled Parents	2.3	5.0
Men	2.1	4.2
Women	2.5	6.0

Source: AKU; Swedish Labour Force Survey, Averaged for four periods in 2010.

Table A- 14 Share of lone and coupled mothers and fathers living with children (0-2 years) who are on parental leave among employed persons, mean figures for 2010

Gender and Family status	
Lone	10.2
Men	5.9
Women	11.8
Coupled	23.1
Men	13.2
Women	32.9

Source: AKU. Swedish Labour Force Survey 2010, Averaged over four periods

Table A- 15 The distribution of singles and individuals in couples receiving social assistance, 2009 (%)

Number of children	Couples	Lone women	Lone men
0 children	5,66%	24,50%	40,13%
1 child	4,35%	7,83%	1,59%
2 children	3,67%	4,29%	0,73%
3+children	4,20%	2,69%	0,37%

Source: Own calculation based on statistics from SCB/Statistikdatabasen (<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/start.asp>) Table: 'Biståndshushåll och utgivet ekonomiskt bistånd (socialbidrag) i riket efter hushållstyp och antal barn. År 1983-2009'; and 'Levnadsförhållanden/Hemmaboende barn och ungdomar 0-21 år efter kön, ålder, familjetyp (sammanboende eller ensamstående föräldrar) och utländsk/svensk bakgrund. År 2004-2008'.

Table A- 16 Share of households with children receiving social assistance by household type and number of children, as proportion of total population for each category, 2008

	Couples	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
1 child	1,28%	18,72%	6,73%
2 children	0,45%	8,67%	2,34%
3+children	0,88%	11,18%	4,56%

Source: Own calculation based on statistics from SCB/Statistikdatabasen (Table 'Socialtjänst/Biståndshushåll och utgivet ekonomiskt bistånd (socialbidrag) i riket efter hushållstyp och antal barn. År 1983-2009' and 'Föräldrars sysselsättning 2008', www.scb.se/Statistik/LE/LE0102/2008A01B/15a_Foraldrars_sysselsattning_2008.xls)

Table A- 17 Share of households with children receiving social assistance by household type, as proportion of total population for each category, 2008

	% of total	Total
Couples with children	0,8%	3453300
Lone mothers	12,8%	255600
Lone fathers	4,3%	129800

Source: Own calculation based on statistics from SCB/Statistikdatabasen (Table 'Socialtjänst/Biståndshushåll och utgivet ekonomiskt bistånd (socialbidrag) i riket efter hushållstyp och antal barn. År 1983-2009' and 'Föräldrars sysselsättning 2008', www.scb.se/Statistik/LE/LE0102/2008A01B/15a_Foraldrars_sysselsattning_2008.xls)

Table A- 18 Number of households receiving social assistance (socialbidrag) by household type, 1990 - 2009

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009
Cohabiting couples w. children					
1 child	14139	18232	11741	9520	10321
2 children	13722	20356	11764	8161	8707
3+ children	12449	19044	14194	9373	9961
Lone mothers					
1 child	27513	30200	22599	18532	18590
2 children	14943	18754	14835	11229	10188
3+ children	6637	9752	8904	6813	6382
Lone fathers					
1 child	3995	4454	3733	3399	3766
2 children	1338	1920	1601	1614	1732
3+ children	742	1187	744	737	869

Source: Statistics Sweden. Statistikdatabasen/Socialtjänst. Table: Biståndshushåll och utgivet ekonomiskt bistånd (socialbidrag) i riket efter hushållstyp och antal barn. År 1983-2009).

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/start.asp>

A.3 Labour market

Table A- 19 Employment rate of people 15-74 years with children living at home by sex, age of youngest child and year. Shares (percentage) out of the total population, 2008 and 2010

	2008	2010
Mothers in couple relationships		
Youngest child: 0 years	71 %	71 %
1-2 years	81 %	77 %
3-6 years	85 %	84 %
7-10 years	87 %	87 %
11-16 years	89 %	88 %
17-18 years	88 %	87 %
Lone parents total		
Youngest child: 0 years	42 %	38 %
1-2 years	67 %	59 %
3-6 years	79 %	77 %
7-10 years	83 %	82 %
11-16 years	84 %	83 %
17-18 years	84 %	83 %
Lone mothers		
Youngest child: 0 years	39 %	27 %
1-2 years	58 %	50 %
3-6 years	73 %	72 %
7-10 years	79 %	80 %
11-16 years	81 %	79 %
17-18 years	81 %	81 %

Source: Statistics Sweden, Statistikdatabasen/Arbetsmarknad, Table 'Sysselsättningsintensitet för personer 15-74 år (AKU) med hemmaboende barn efter civilstånd, kön och yngsta barnets ålder. År 2005-2010'.

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=AM&omradetext=Arbetsmarknad&lang=1>

Table A- 20 Part-time employment by age and sex. Share (percentage) of total population, 1990-2005

	1990 - 91	1994 - 95	2000 - 01	2005
Total 16–64 years	19,5	18,9	17,9	19,6
Men	5,4	7,5	7,9	10,4
Women	34,1	30,7	28,3	29,1
Total in different age categories				
16–24 years	13,2	14,8	18,4	19,3
25–34 years	18,8	16,9	17,4	18,2
35–44 years	23,3	22,2	19,7	21,8
45–54 years	19,3	18,8	17,9	20,4
55–64 years	23,4	22,2	16,1	18,2
Men and Women in different age categories				
<i>16-24 years</i>				
Men	6,9	9,5	11,6	14,6
Women	19,8	20,4	25,7	24,1
<i>25-34 years</i>				
Men	3,7	6,5	8,4	12,9
Women	35,7	28,2	26,9	23,5
<i>35-44 years</i>				
Men	3,9	6,2	6,7	9,1
Women	42,3	38,4	33,1	35,2
<i>45-54 years</i>				
Men	2,7	5,2	6,4	8,6
Women	35,1	32,7	29,9	32,4
<i>55-64 years</i>				
Men	11,4	11,9	7,3	7,9
Women	36,2	32,2	24,8	28,8

Source: Statistics Sweden, Undersökningarna av levnadsförhållanden (ULF). Table 'SY 3. Deltidsanställda personer 16–64 år. Andel i procent av befolkningen', <http://www.scb.se/statistik/LE/LE0101/2005I06J/SY305.xls>

Table A- 21 Full and part-time employment by socio-economic group (age 16-64 years). Share (percentage) of total population, 1990-2005

	1990-91		1994-95		1996-97		2000-01		2005	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
All manual workers										
All	61,9	25	55,4	24,6	53,4	25,3	59,3	24,4	57,6	25,9
Men	83,3	5,7	73,4	8,2	71	9,5	77,2	9,5	76,9	10,8
Women	40,6	44,2	36	42,3	34,6	42,2	38,6	41,6	35,1	43,5
Non-skilled manual workers										
All	55,5	30,2	50,7	29,8	47,8	31,3	54,9	28,3	53,5	27,1
Men	80,7	7,2	73,5	10,2	68,7	12,9	74,5	13,7	74,3	13,4
Women	38,3	45,9	34	44,3	33,1	44,2	38,3	40,7	32,1	41
Skilled manual workers										
All	72,1	16,6	62,5	16,8	61,3	17	65	19,3	62,5	24,5
Men	85,8	4,2	73,4	6,3	73,1	6,5	79,8	5,5	79,6	8,1
Women	46,6	39,5	41,2	37,1	38,2	37,4	39,3	43,5	39,1	46,9
All non-manual workers										
All	72,9	19,2	70	19,8	71,3	18,1	73,7	16,8	70	19
Men	87,2	4,7	83,3	7,7	83,9	7,6	84,4	7	80,1	10,3
Women	59,8	32,4	58,4	30,3	59,7	27,8	64,2	25,4	61,7	26,3
Non-manual workers (lower level)										
All	65,8	25,4	60,6	26,3	62,4	22,4	68,2	20,6	61,7	24,3
Men	87,3	5,6	79,8	10,3	81,5	7,8	85,2	9,4	75,3	13,8
Women	55,1	35,3	50,1	35,1	52,2	30,1	59,1	26,5	54,6	29,8
Non-manual workers (intermediate level)										
All	73,9	19,7	72,5	19,2	73	19,8	74,9	17,5	71,2	20,1
Men	87,1	5,3	84,7	6,4	85,2	8,7	85,1	6,2	81	11,7
Women	60,4	34,5	61,8	30,2	62,4	29,5	66,1	27,2	63,6	26,7
Professionals and other higher non-manual workers										
All	80,8	10	78,2	12,3	78,1	11,3	76,9	12,7	76,3	12,1
Men	87,2	3,3	84,2	7,3	84	6,2	83,3	6,6	81,7	6,6
Women	70,1	21,1	68,7	20,3	67,9	20	68	21	68,7	19,7

Source: Derived from Statistic Sweden, Undersökningarna av levnadsförhållanden (ULF), Tables 'SY 2.

Heltidsanställda personer 16–64 år. Andel i procent av befolkningen'

(<http://www.scb.se/Statistik/LE/LE0101/2010A01B/SY/SY205.xls>) and 'SY 3. Deltidsanställda personer 16–64 år.

Andel i procent av befolkningen' (<http://www.scb.se/statistik/LE/LE0101/2005I06J/SY305.xls>).

Table A- 22 Full-time and part-time employment by age and sex. Share (percentage) of total population, 1990-2205

	1990-91		1994-95		1996-97		2000-01		2005	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Total 16-64 years	54,5	19,5	48,8	18,9	48,4	17,9	52	17,9	50,3	19,6
Men	66,5	5,4	58,8	7,5	58,4	7,9	61,5	7,9	59,4	10,4
Women	42,2	34,1	38,5	30,7	38,1	28,3	42,3	28,3	40,9	29,1
Total in age brackets										
16-24 years	40	13,2	24,1	14,8	20,7	18,4	23	18,4	19,6	19,3
25-34 years	64,6	18,8	57,8	16,9	57,2	17,4	61	17,4	59,2	18,2
35-44 years	60,5	23,3	56,4	22,2	55,7	19,7	61,8	19,7	61,1	21,8
45-54 years	62,1	19,3	59,1	18,8	58,6	17,9	62,4	17,9	61	20,4
55-64 years	38,7	23,4	38,5	22,2	41,1	16,1	43,7	16,1	45,4	18,2
Men and Women in different age categories										
<i>16-24 years</i>										
Men	44,9	6,9	27,7	9,5	23,7	11,6	29,1	11,6	26,6	14,6
Women	34,9	19,8	20,2	20,4	17,5	25,7	16,6	25,7	12,2	24,1
<i>25-34 years</i>										
Men	77,3	3,7	69,9	6,5	69,9	8,4	72,4	8,4	69,1	12,9
Women	50,4	35,7	44,7	28,2	43,6	26,9	49,1	26,9	49,2	23,5
<i>35-44 years</i>										
Men	77,5	3,9	70,6	6,2	69,9	6,7	73,8	6,7	73,6	9,1
Women	43,8	42,3	42	38,4	41,4	33,1	49,4	33,1	47,8	35,2
<i>45-54 years</i>										
Men	75,1	2,7	68,7	5,2	67,5	6,4	69,9	6,4	69,5	8,6
Women	49,7	35,1	49,3	32,7	49,5	29,9	54,5	29,9	52,3	32,4
<i>55-64 years</i>										
Men	50,5	11,4	47,2	11,9	51,2	7,3	53,1	7,3	52,4	7,9
Women	26,1	36,2	29,9	32,2	31,1	24,8	34,4	24,8	38,4	28,8

Source: Derived from Statistic Sweden, Undersökningarna av levnadsförhållanden (ULF), Tables 'SY 2.

Heltidsanställda personer 16-64 år. Andel i procent av befolkningen'

(<http://www.scb.se/Statistik/LE/LE0101/2010A01B/SY/SY205.xls>) and 'SY 3. Deltidsanställda personer 16-64 år.

Andel i procent av befolkningen' (<http://www.scb.se/statistik/LE/LE0101/2005I06J/SY305.xls>).

Table A- 23 Full-time and part-time employment by household type (age 16-64 years). Share (percentage) of total population, 1990-2005

	1990-91		1994-95		1996-97		2000-01		2005	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Lone without children										
Total	50,3	10,9	40,9	12,6	39	12,1	41,9	14,8	38,6	15,7
Men	55,3	5,9	44,1	8,8	43,4	7,5	47,8	9,8	43,5	13
Women	43,2	18	36,4	17,9	32,8	18,5	33,9	21,7	32,3	19,2
Lone with children										
Total	55,2	28,9	43,2	26,5	48,4	22,2	54,9	21,7	57,8	18
Men	-	2,1	-	9	72,9	8,8	67,2	6,9	-	6
Women	49,2	34	40,7	29,9	42,4	25,4	50,3	27,4	49,4	24,5
Cohabiting without children										
Total	55,8	20,9	52,3	20,6	52,1	19,5	55,7	16,6	54,1	19,2
Men	68,5	6,8	62,4	8,1	62,2	8,6	65,4	6,7	64,9	8,3
Women	44,2	33,7	43,1	31,9	42,7	29,5	46,8	25,5	44,4	29
Cohabiting with children										
Total	57,2	25,2	54,1	22,7	54,4	22,7	58,4	21,9	57,9	24,3
Men	76,1	3,7	72,1	5,5	71,8	6,4	73,5	6,8	71,6	9,7
Women	38,5	46,5	35,5	40,3	37,1	39	43,2	37,1	43,9	39,2

Source: Derived from Statistic Sweden, Undersökningarna av levnadsförhållanden (ULF), Tables 'SY 2.

Heltidsanställda personer 16–64 år. Andel i procent av befolkningen'

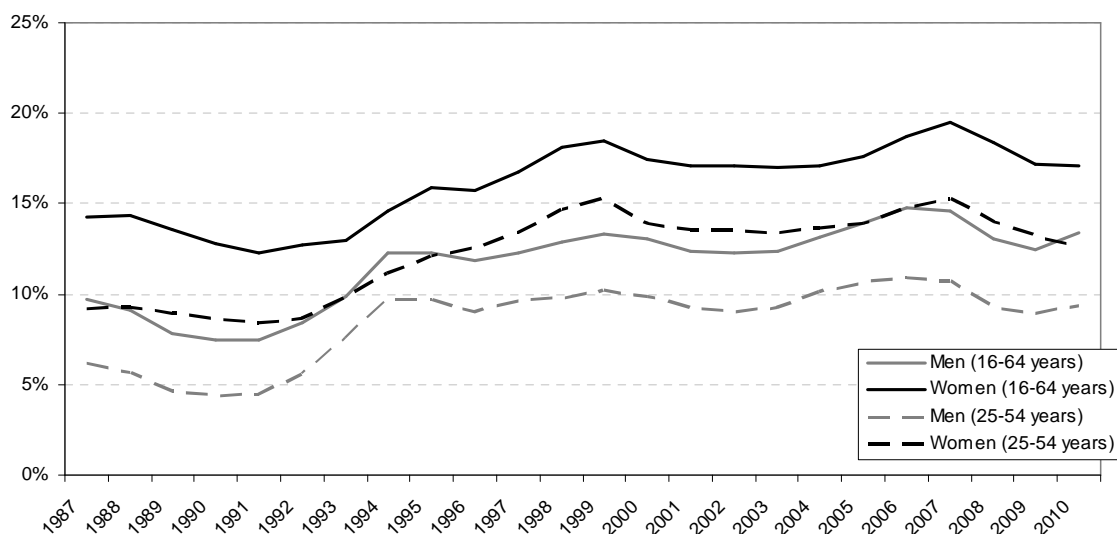
(<http://www.scb.se/Statistik/LE/LE0101/2010A01B/SY/SY205.xls>) and 'SY 3. Deltidsanställda personer 16–64 år.

Andel i procent av befolkningen' (<http://www.scb.se/statistik/LE/LE0101/2005I06J/SY305.xls>)

Table A- 24 Mothers' and fathers' work hours as proportion within different time-bands, by age of youngest child and number of children (age of the children 0-17 years), 2008

	Mothers			Fathers		
	1-19 h/w	20-34 h/w	35+ h/w	1-19 h/w	20-34 h/w	35+ h/w
Cohabiting parents						
0-5 years	5,8%	39,8%	54,4%	1,1%	5,6%	93,4%
6-12 years	3,6%	39,1%	57,3%	0,9%	4,6%	94,5%
13-17 years	2,4%	30,2%	67,5%	0,9%	4,3%	94,8%
Total: 0-17 years	3,8%	36,3%	59,9%	1,0%	4,8%	94,2%
Lone parents						
0-5 years	7,7%	32,0%	60,3%	0,6%	9,3%	90,1%
6-12 years	5,0%	24,9%	70,1%	1,7%	6,7%	91,6%
13-17 years	2,9%	19,2%	77,9%	0,6%	7,2%	92,1%
Total: 0-17 years	4,4%	23,3%	72,2%	1,1%	7,3%	91,6%
Cohabiting parents						
1 child	3,3%	30,7%	66,0%	1,7%	5,4%	92,9%
2 children	3,1%	37,2%	59,7%	0,6%	4,4%	95,0%
3+ children	5,6%	38,9%	55,6%	1,1%	5,3%	93,6%
Lone parents						
1 child	4,3%	24,8%	70,9%	1,4%	8,4%	90,2%
2 children	4,3%	21,4%	74,3%	0,2%	5,6%	94,2%
3+ children	5,4%	26,1%	68,5%	2,7%	11,5%	85,8%

Source: Statistics Sweden. Table 'Barn i olika familjetyper fördelade efter mammans sysselsättning 2008'
www.scb.se/Statistik/LE/LE0102/2008A01B/15a_Foraldrars_sysselsattning_2008.xls

Figure A- 1 Fixed-term employment among men and women, 1987-2010

Source: Statistics Sweden, Statistikdatabasen/Arbetsmarknad. Table ,Sysselsatta 15-74 år (AKU) efter anknyningsgrad till arbetsmarknaden, kön och ålder. År 2005-2010‘.

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=AM&omradete xt=Arbetsmarknad&lang=1>

Table A- 25 Fixed-term employment among 16-64 and 25-54 aged, 1987-2010

	Men (16-64 years)	Women (16-64 years)	Men (25-54 years)	Women (25-54 years)
1987	9,7%	14,3%	6,2%	9,2%
1988	9,1%	14,3%	5,6%	9,3%
1989	7,8%	13,6%	4,6%	9,0%
1990	7,4%	12,8%	4,4%	8,7%
1991	7,5%	12,3%	4,4%	8,4%
1992	8,5%	12,7%	5,6%	8,7%
1993	9,9%	13,0%	7,5%	9,8%
1994	12,3%	14,6%	9,7%	11,1%
1995	12,3%	15,9%	9,7%	12,1%
1996	11,9%	15,8%	9,1%	12,5%
1997	12,3%	16,8%	9,6%	13,4%
1998	12,9%	18,1%	9,8%	14,7%
1999	13,3%	18,5%	10,2%	15,3%
2000	13,0%	17,4%	9,9%	13,9%
2001	12,4%	17,1%	9,3%	13,6%
2002	12,3%	17,1%	9,0%	13,6%
2003	12,3%	17,0%	9,3%	13,4%
2004	13,1%	17,1%	10,1%	13,6%
2005	13,9%	17,6%	10,7%	13,9%
2006	14,8%	18,7%	10,9%	14,8%
2007	14,6%	19,5%	10,8%	15,3%
2008	13,1%	18,4%	9,3%	14,0%
2009	12,4%	17,1%	8,9%	13,2%
2010	13,4%	17,1%	9,4%	12,7%

Source: Statistics Sweden, Statistikdatabasen/Arbetsmarknad. Table ,Sysselsatta 15-74 år (AKU) efter anknyningsgrad till arbetsmarknaden, kön och ålder. År 2005-2010‘

<http://www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/MainTable.asp?yp=tansss&xu=C9233001&omradekod=AM&omradete xt=Arbetsmarknad&lang=1>

A.4 Family related services

Table A- 26 **Share of preschool children enrolled in public or private* preschool by age, 2000, 2005 and 2008**

	1-3 years old	4-5 years old
2000	67 %	88 %
2005	75 %	97 %
2008	78 %	98 %

**Private preschool were very few in number prior to legislation reforms in the mid 1990s that permitted State/municipal subsidies*