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Families and Generations Survey 2013

First results



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Families and Generations Survey 2013

First results

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Table of contents

Introduction	5	4 Attitudes to solidarity between generations	21
1 Becoming parents	6	5 Grandparents	24
1.1 The desired number of children is shaped by the two-child norm	6	5.1 Contact between grandparents and grandchildren	24
1.2 Number of children born	6	5.2 Looking after grandchildren	25
1.3 Childlessness	8	5.3 Number of grandparents	26
1.4 What would the birth of a (or another) child change?	9	6 Attitudes towards family and family models	28
1.5 What factors are important when deciding whether to have a (or another) child?	10	6.1 Can women and men only feel fulfilled and happy in life if they have children?	28
2 Division of childcare and household chores between women and men	12	6.2 What does a child need to have a happy upbringing?	29
2.1 Division of childcare between mothers and fathers	12	6.3 How have values and attitudes changed in the last 20 years?	31
2.2 Satisfaction with the division of childcare	13	7 Attitudes towards gender roles	33
2.3 Division of household chores between partners	14	8 Method	36
2.4 Satisfaction with the sharing of household chores	16	8.1 Survey	36
3 External childcare	18	8.2 Random sample and response rate	36

Introduction

This publication presents the first results of the 2013 Families and Generations Survey (FGS 2013), whereby individual topic areas were purposely selected on which no or very little data existed, as it was not possible to cover all issues relating to families and generations.

The family is a fundamental element of our society and the first place of integration into society; it plays a key role in the value systems and behavioural patterns of future generations. Activities that are carried out within families – in particular caring for children, helping, and looking after elderly people – are crucial to society.

The capacities of families are set to be influenced by current and future social changes, however. Given the projected population ageing in the coming decades, encouraging the highest possible labour market participation among all those of working age will be essential; it will also become more important to create the right conditions to reconcile work and family life as well as care work.

Reliable statistical information on the evolution and current situation of families and on the relationships between generations is therefore essential. This is why the Federal Statistical Office conducted a survey on families and generations for the first time in 2013 as part of the federal population census system; this survey will be repeated every five years.

The first chapter of this publication deals with the desire to have children and childlessness. The second chapter looks at the division of childcare and household chores between men and women, while the third examines the use of paid and unpaid childcare. Chapters four and five look at the relationships between generations and generational solidarity. Chapter six focuses on the attitudes of the population to various family structures and the conditions considered favourable for children, and finally the seventh chapter deals with attitudes towards gender roles.

1 Becoming parents

Around six in ten men (59%) and women (65%) living in Switzerland aged between 20 and 80 are parents to one or more biological children. The following chapter highlights, among other things, how many children young men and women want, to what extent women who have reached the end of their child-bearing years have managed to fulfil this desire and what factors are of particular importance when deciding whether or not to have a (or another) child.

1.1 The desired number of children is shaped by the two-child norm

Almost two thirds of (still) childless men and women aged between 20 and 29 (63%) want two children. At just over a quarter (28%), the number of people who consider three or more children ideal, is also relatively high. Meanwhile, hardly any young men and women say they only want one child (fewer than 2%) or do not want any children (7%). In terms of the desired number of children, there are virtually no differences between men and women.

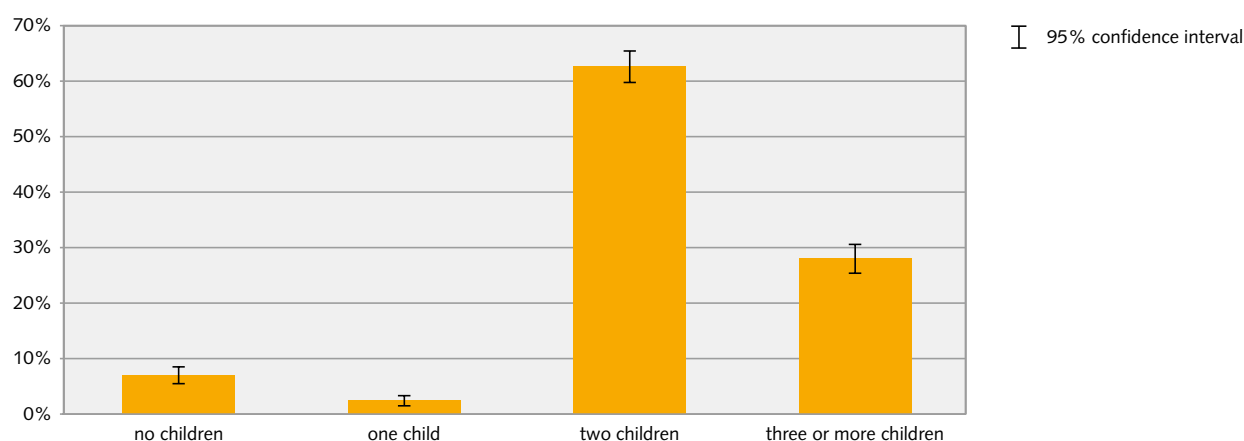
1.2 Number of children born

If we want to know how many women remain childless or have one, two or three or more children, we have to limit our analysis to women at the end of their child-bearing years (15–49 years old). Admittedly, it cannot be ruled out that some women may have a child later than this, but the number of children born to women aged over 49 makes up a negligible share.

Although the 50–59 age group cannot be directly compared with the 20–29 age group, the contrast between the number of children born to the older generation and the number of children desired by the younger women illustrates the differences between the desire to have children in the early child-bearing years and the actual size of families. Whereas only very few young women only want one child (3%) or want to remain childless (6%), 16% of women aged between 50 and 59 have only one child and a fifth have no children. On the other hand, families with two or three or more children are less common than we might assume based on the young women's responses regarding their desired family size.

Number of children desired

Men and women aged between 20 and 29 with no biological or adoptive children **G 1**

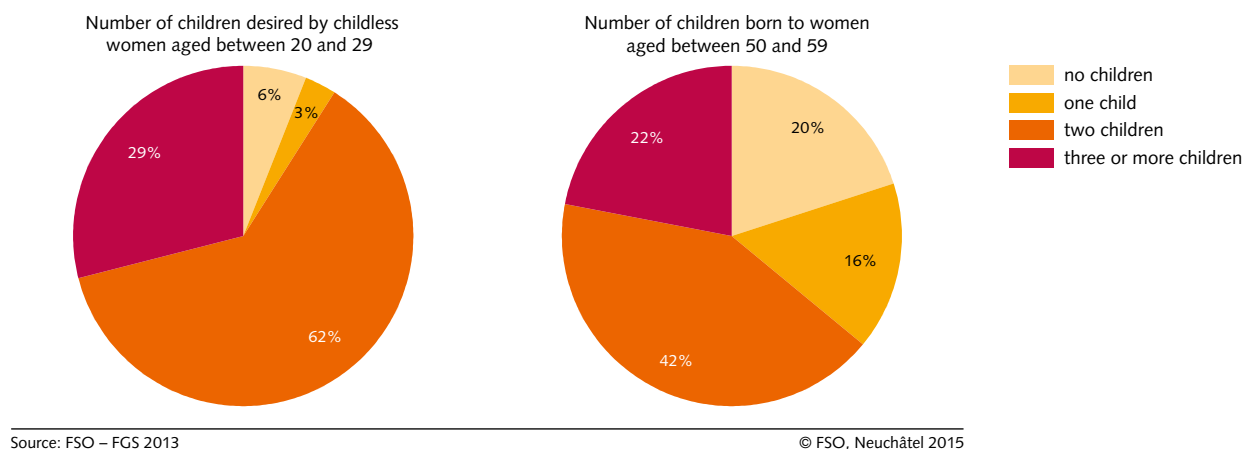


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Number of children desired by childless women aged between 20 and 29 and number of children born to women aged between 50 and 59

G 2



Of particular note is the fact that three in ten women with a tertiary level of education remain childless, whereas this figure is only 17% among women who hold an upper secondary level of education and only 13% among those who did not complete post-compulsory education or training. Women who did not complete post-compulsory education or training and those who have an upper secondary level of education are more often mothers of two (46% and 42%, respectively) or three or more children (25% and 24%, respectively) than women with a tertiary level of education (two children: 37%, three or more children: 19%). Among men, however, there is no correlation between level of education and number of children.

The women aged between 50 and 59 with a tertiary level of education are therefore much more often childless and are less likely to be mothers of two or more children. If we compare these figures with the data on the desired number of children among 25–29-year-old women, we notice that there is no distinction regarding desired number of children between women with a tertiary level of education and those with a lower educational level. These results suggest that particularly women with a tertiary level of education often do not fulfil their desires in terms of family size because of their circumstances.

Confidence interval

As the Families and Generations Survey involved random sampling and only a portion of the population permanently resident in Switzerland aged between 15 and 79 (at the reference day, January 1, 2013) was surveyed, the results are subject to a degree of uncertainty. This uncertainty depends on the size of the sample, the sampling rate, the non-response rate and the spread of the observed characteristic in the population. It can be quantified by calculating a confidence interval which is larger the more imprecise the results are. For reasons of legibility, the confidence interval is not indicated in the text. In the bar charts the 95% confidence interval is graphically depicted.

Level of education

Compulsory education

Compulsory education, transitional courses (10th school year)

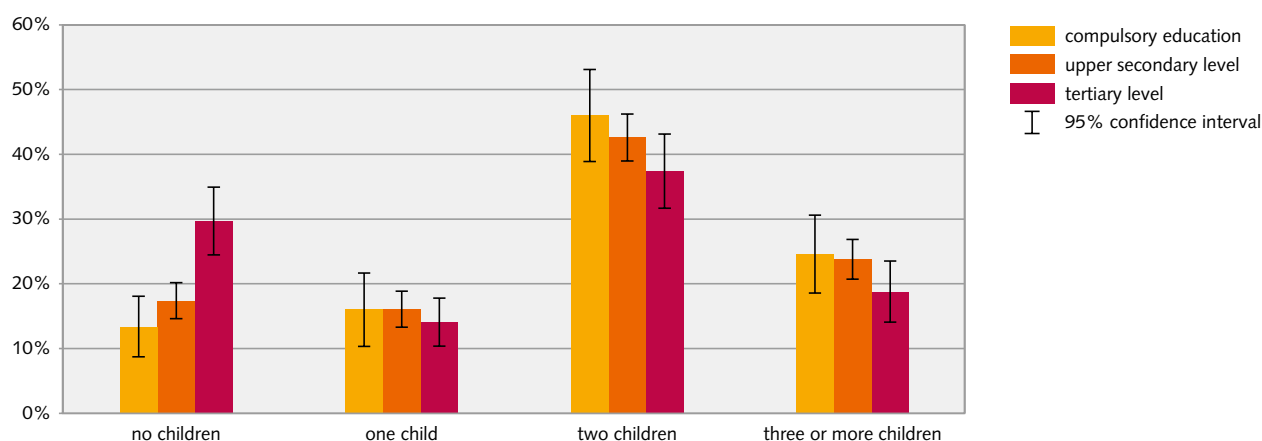
Upper secondary level

Academic Matura, specialised Matura, upper secondary specialised school, vocational education and training (VET) (apprenticeship), vocational Matura

Tertiary level

University incl. Federal Institutes of Technology, University of teacher education, University of applied sciences, professional education and training college

Number of children born to women aged between 50 and 59 by level of education G 3



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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1.3 Childlessness

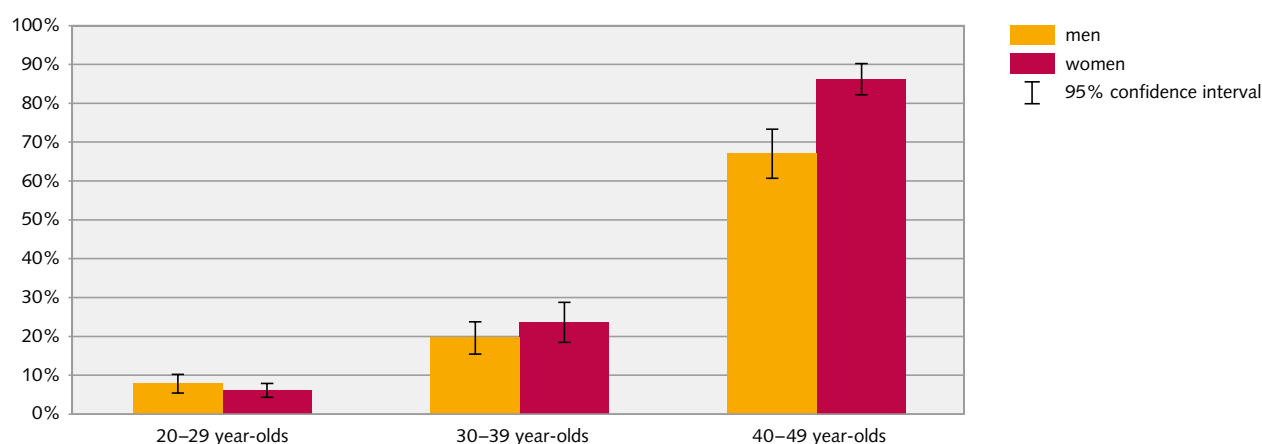
Childlessness is a relatively widespread phenomenon in Switzerland, with 19% of women and 21% of men aged between 50 and 80 having no biological or adoptive children. Childlessness may have various causes. Besides women and men who consciously decide not to have children, there are also those whose childlessness is due to other factors, such as the lack of a suitable partner, difficulties reconciling family and career, illness or infertility.

The proportion of men and women who do not want children is under 10% in the 20–29 age group (8% of men and 6% of women). In the 30–39 age group, too, a large majority would still like children, with only 20% of men and 24% of women saying they want to remain

childless. The situation is different in the 40–49 age group, however, where almost nine in ten women (86%) and two thirds of men (67%) do not want children. In the oldest age group, the percentages of those who do not want children are significantly higher, which shows that those who do not have children tend to adjust to a future without children as the years go by, and alter their desires and life plans accordingly.

While there is hardly any difference between the sexes in the younger age groups, significantly more women than men want to remain childless in the 40–49 age group. This difference is due to the fact that men can still become fathers later in life if they have a younger partner, whereas for women, the childbearing years are generally over by the age of 50.

Share of childless respondents who do not want children, by gender and age group G 4



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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1.4 What would the birth of a (or another) child change?

These days, having children does not usually just happen, but is rather a conscious decision that significantly affects the lives of future parents. A couple's decision as to whether and when to have a child, or to have another child, is influenced by the positive and negative expectations they associate with having children.

Just over half of men (56%) and just under 50% of women (49%) aged between 20 and 39 believe that a child (or another child) would increase their happiness and life satisfaction. However, they expect constraints in terms of personal freedom and with regard to their professional lives and finances. A significant majority of men and women fear that a (or another) child would reduce their opportunities to do what they want in their day-to-day lives (61% of men and 58% of women), or that it would have a negative impact on their financial situation (75% of men and 73% of women).

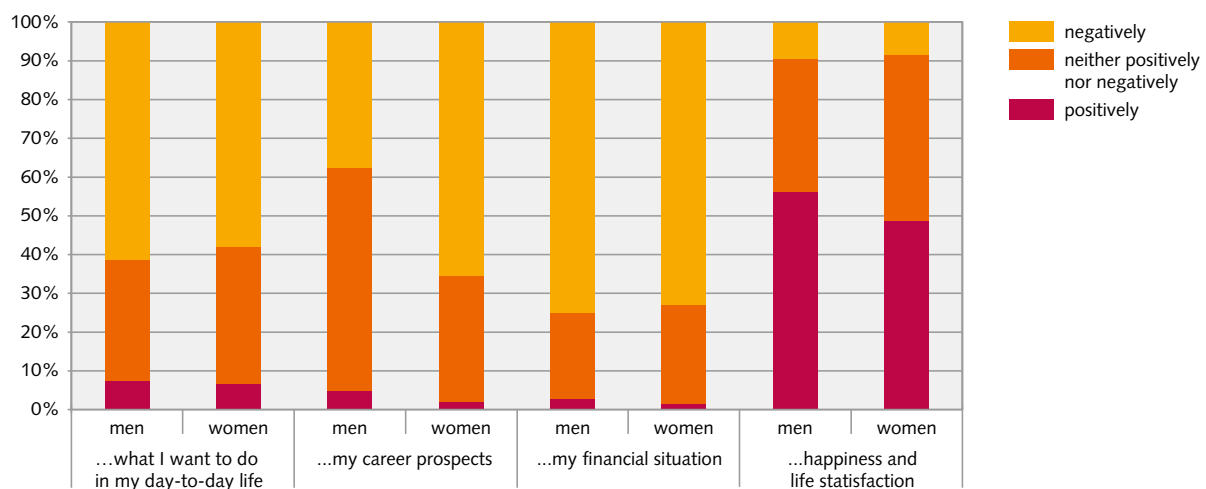
Around two thirds of women (65%) assume that a (or another) child would worsen their career prospects. Although at 37% this figure is significantly lower among men, it is nevertheless considerable. Only 5% of men are of the opinion that a (or another) child would improve their career prospects. Men's fears regarding their career prospects do not necessarily reflect the reality, as research suggests that children have a positive impact on men's career prospects¹.

The percentage of women who fear that a (or another) child would have a negative impact on their career prospects increases with the level of education: women with an upper secondary level of education (62%) and women with a tertiary level of education (67%) are much more likely to expect a (or another) child to have a negative impact on their career progression than women who did not complete post-compulsory education or training (43%). Among men, around 30%² believe a (or another) child would negatively affect their career prospects, irrespective of the highest level of education they completed.

How would the birth of a (or another) child affect...

Men and women aged between 20 and 39

G 5



Source: OFS – FGS 2013

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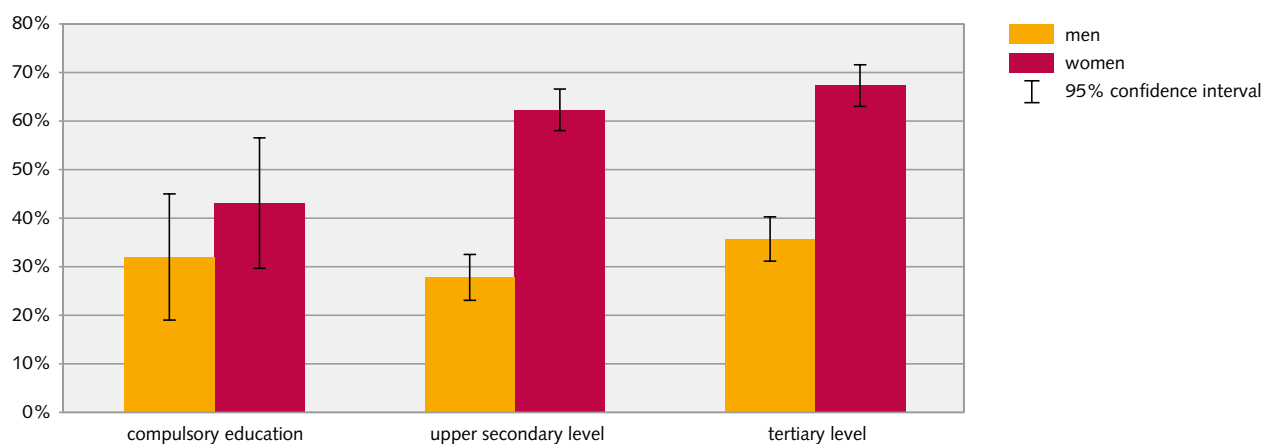
¹ Cf. e.g. Schubert, Frank and Engelage, Sonja: "Sind Kinder ein Karrierehindernis für Hochgebildete? Karriere und Familie bei Promovierten in der Schweiz" ("Are children a career obstacle for the highly educated? Career and family among holders of a PhD in Switzerland"), *Zeitschrift für Soziologie*, Vol. 39, Issue 5, October 2010, p. 382–401.

² The proportion is slightly smaller than in chart 5, the reason being that chart 6 only takes into account those aged over 25, whereas the lower age limit for chart 5 is 20. The split according to highest level of education completed is not relevant for those under 25 as the (initial) training is not usually completed yet at this age.

Share of respondents who expect that a (or another) child would have a negative impact on their career prospects, by gender and level of education

Men and women aged between 25 and 39

G 6



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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1.5 What factors are important when deciding whether to have a (or another) child?

For both men (71%) and women (70%), the quality of the couple's relationship is very important when deciding whether to have a (or another) child. Other factors that are frequently mentioned are own state of health (56% of men and 61% of women), partner's state of health (62% of men and 58% of women) and financial situation (66% of men and 61% of women). On the other hand, the division of household chores and childcare between the couple influences the decision whether or not to have a (or another) child for only 17% of men and 21% of women (household chores), and 25% of men and 34% of women (childcare duties). One factor that is mentioned somewhat more frequently, however, is childcare facilities, with 44% of men and 48% of women admitting that childcare facilities have a strong or very strong influence on their decision to have a (or another) child.

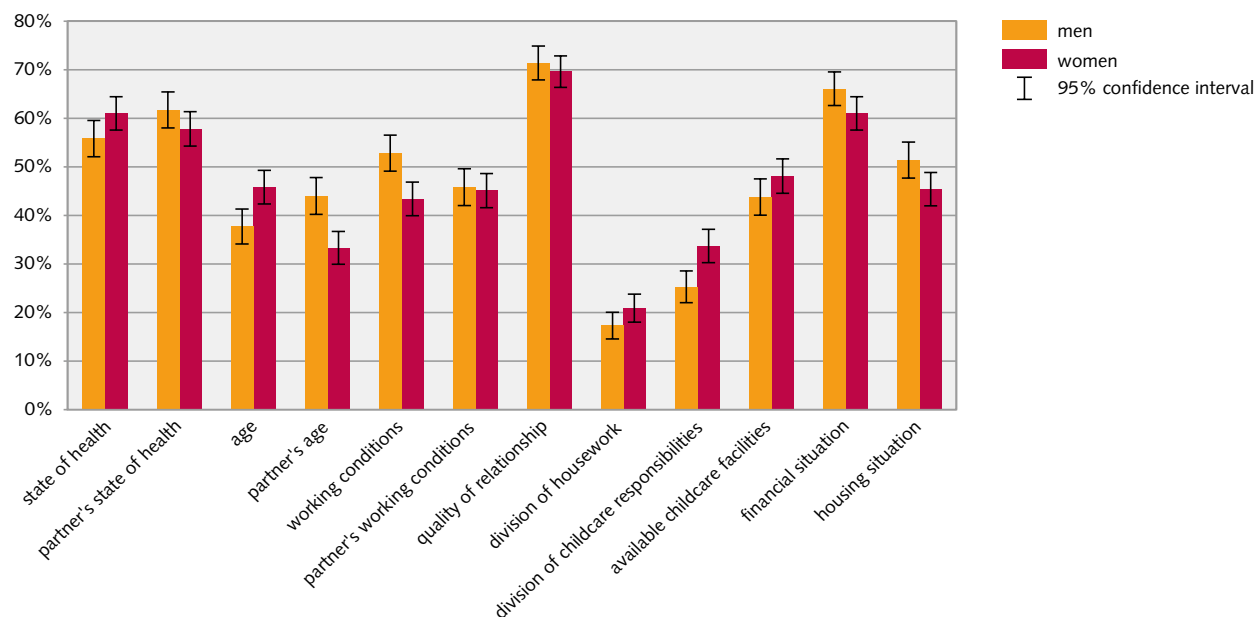
The importance attached to the various factors is heavily dependent on the level of education: over four fifths of all respondents with a tertiary level of education say that the quality of their relationship influences their decision whether or not to have a (or another) child (87% of men and 80% of women). Among men and women with an upper secondary level of education, this figure is only 63% for men and 60% for women. Meanwhile, relationship quality has even less importance for respondents who have no post-compulsory education, with only 45% of men and just 20% of women who did not complete any post-compulsory education or training basing their decision on this factor.

The division of childcare responsibilities and the available childcare facilities are particularly important for women with a tertiary level of education, with 42% claiming that the decision whether to have a (or another) child is heavily or very heavily impacted by the sharing of child care duties between themselves and their partners. Childcare facilities are a decisive factor for a majority (57%) of these women.

Share of respondents who claim the corresponding factors have a strong or very strong influence on their decision whether to have a (or another) child by gender

Men and women aged between 20 and 39 who want a child

G 7



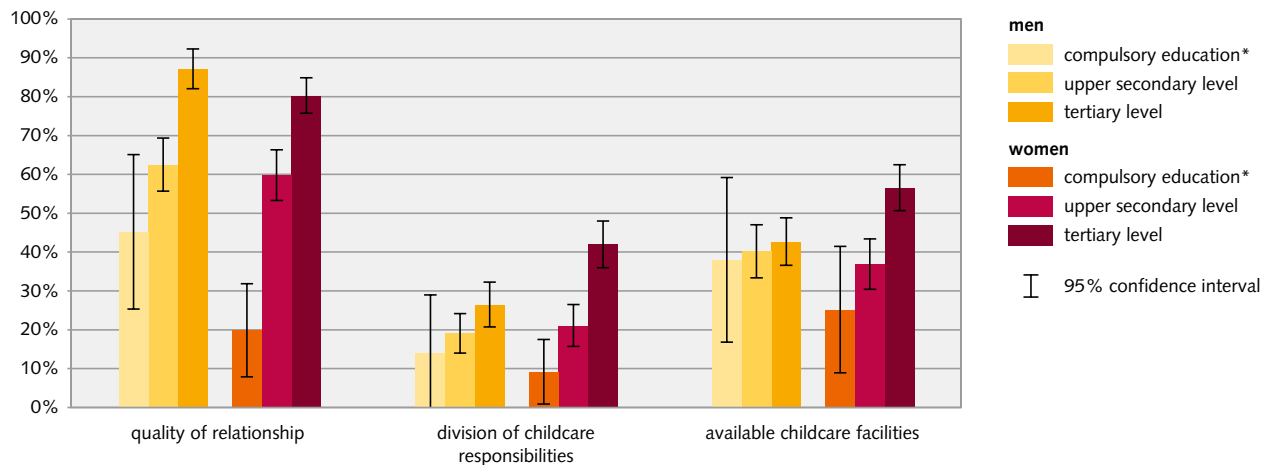
Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Share of respondents who claim the corresponding factors have a strong or very strong influence on their decision whether to have a (or another) child, by gender and level of education

Men and women aged between 25 and 39 who want a child

G 8



* Results based on fewer than 50 observations.

Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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2 Division of childcare and household chores between women and men

2.1 Division of childcare between mothers and fathers

In most couple households³, childcare duties are mainly carried out by mothers. In four fifths of households, it is predominantly mothers who stay at home when children are sick, and in more than two thirds (71%) of couple households, mothers are primarily responsible for dressing children.

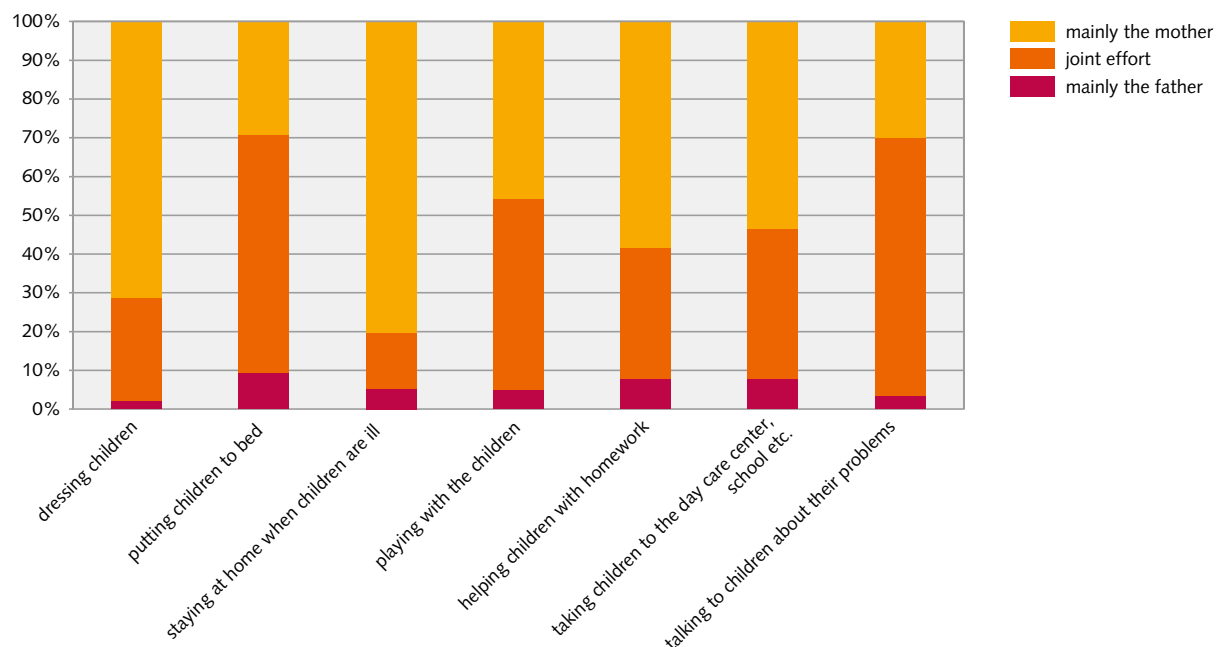
The tasks of “putting children to bed or checking that they go to bed” and “talking to children about their problems” tend to be more of a joint effort, with parents carrying them out together in 61% and 66% of households, respectively.

The share of childcare duties mainly completed by men in couple households is under 10%, with the highest share (9%) for putting children to bed.

The age of the youngest child in the household has barely any influence on the division of childcare in couple households. However, if the youngest child is under six, childcare tends to be more the mother’s responsibility than when the youngest child is aged between 6 and 12.

Division of childcare in couple households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12

G 9



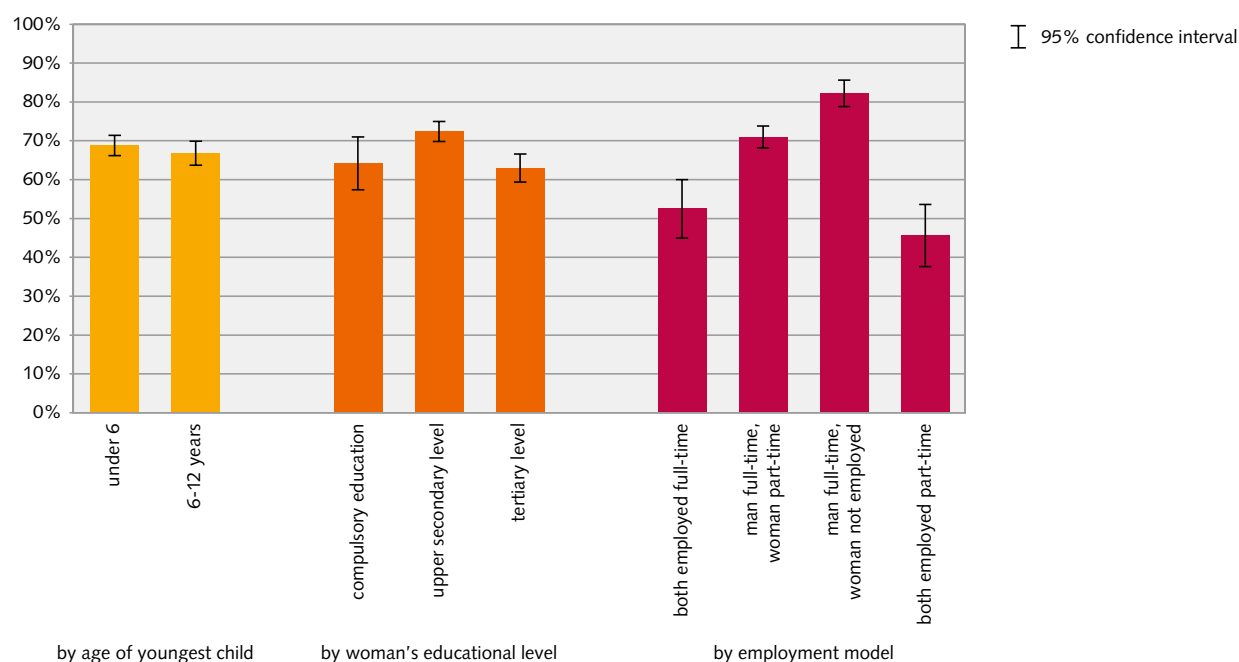
Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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³ This publication only takes into account heterosexual couples.

Share of couple households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12 where childcare is mainly carried out by mothers*

G 10



* In order to determine the cases where childcare is mainly carried out by mothers, all seven tasks areas shown in chart G9 were combined. Childcare is mainly carried out by women if e.g., they are mainly responsible for three or more tasks and the parents carry out the other tasks jointly or if one task is mainly carried out by fathers while mothers are mainly responsible for at least four other areas. Concerning the employment model, only couple households where one of the depicted employment models applies were taken into account. Couples with a different employment situation were not taken into account.

Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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In households where the woman has an upper secondary level of education, childcare duties are more often carried out mainly by mothers (in 72% of households) than in households with women who have no post-compulsory education or those with a tertiary level of education (in 64% and 63% of households, respectively).

In addition, the division of childcare responsibilities is also associated with the employment model. If the man is in full-time employment and the woman does not work, childcare responsibilities are mainly taken care of by mothers in over four fifths of households (82%). If the man works full-time and the woman part-time, childcare is mainly the mother's responsibility in 71% of households. However, if both partners work full-time or both part-time, the division is more equal, with childcare duties being mainly the mother's responsibility in around half of cases (52% when both work full-time and 46% when both work part-time).

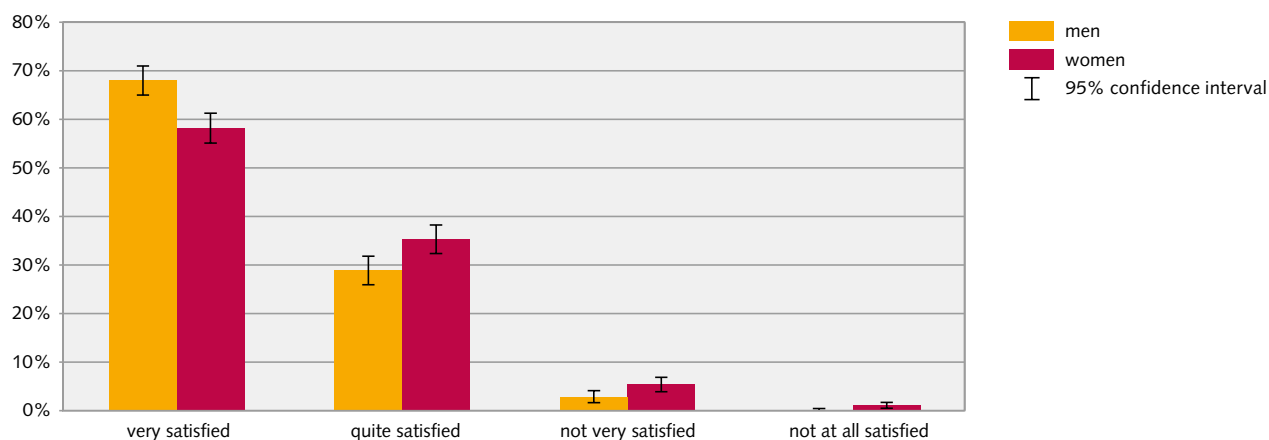
2.2 Satisfaction with the division of childcare

Mothers and fathers are very satisfied with the existing distribution of childcare. Over two thirds of men (68%) claim to be very satisfied and just under 30% (29%) say they are quite satisfied. Among women the share of respondents who are "very satisfied" is somewhat lower at 58%, but the share of those who are quite satisfied (35%) and not very satisfied (5%) is somewhat higher than among men. Hardly any mothers and fathers (less than 1%) say they are not at all satisfied.

In couple households where childcare duties are divided more equally, satisfaction with the division of childcare is higher – almost four fifths of mothers and fathers say they are very satisfied (78%). If childcare is mainly the mother's responsibility, the share of women and men who are very satisfied is lower – particularly among women, where just over half (52%) say they are very satisfied.

Satisfaction with the division of childcare by gender

Men and women in couple households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12

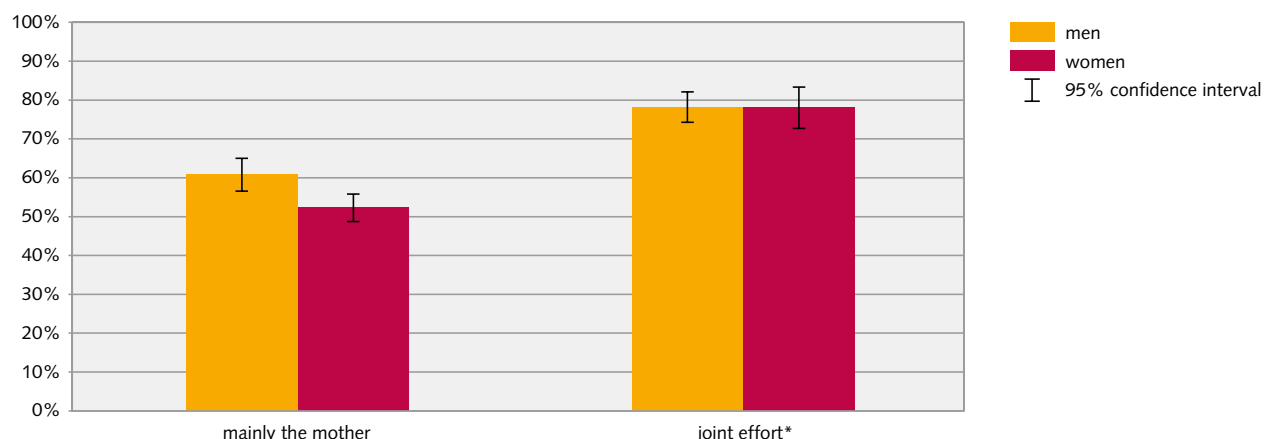
G 11

Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Share of respondents who are very satisfied with the division of childcare, by gender and division of childcare duties in the household

Men and women in couple households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12

G 12

*This category also include the few cases where childcare is mainly the father's responsibility.

Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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2.3 Division of household chores between partners

Household chores remain a female domain; women are mainly responsible for taking care of them in almost two thirds of cases (65%), while they are mainly the man's responsibility in just 5% of households. In almost three out of ten couples (29%) the housework is mostly done by both partners together.

In households where the woman has a tertiary level of education, couples share household chores more equally: they are more often carried out jointly and in just over half of these households (53%) the woman is mainly responsible.

As with childcare, the division of household chores is also influenced by the employment model. If the man works full-time and the woman does not work or works part-time, household chores are mainly carried out by

the woman in the vast majority of households (83% and 76% of couple households, respectively). If both partners work part-time, women are still mainly responsible for household chores in over half of households (54%). At 43%, this figure is lower when both partners work full-time. In both cases, the share of households in which the partners share household chores about equally

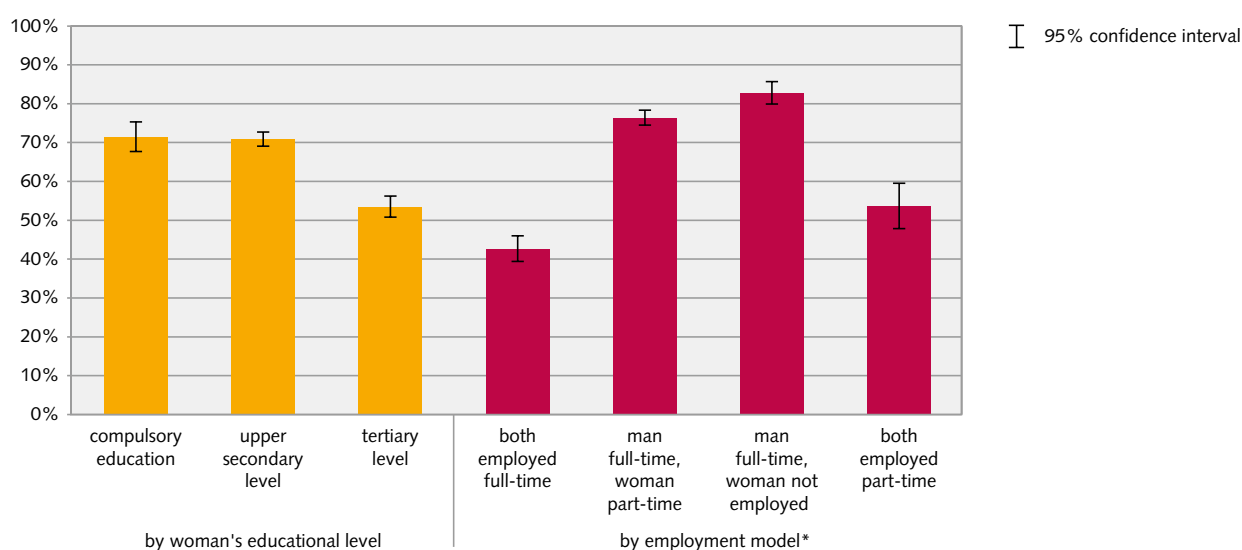
increases, whereas the share of households where the household chores are mainly carried out by the man is low here, too (6% if both partners work part-time and 8% if both partners work full-time).

Particularly among the younger age groups in which the woman is aged between 20 and 29 or 30 and 44 respectively, the division of household chores heavily

Share of couple households where household chores are mainly carried out by women

Only households in which both partners are aged between 20 and 64

G 13



* Concerning the employment model, only couple households where one of the depicted employment models applies were taken into account. Couples with a different employment situation were not taken into account.

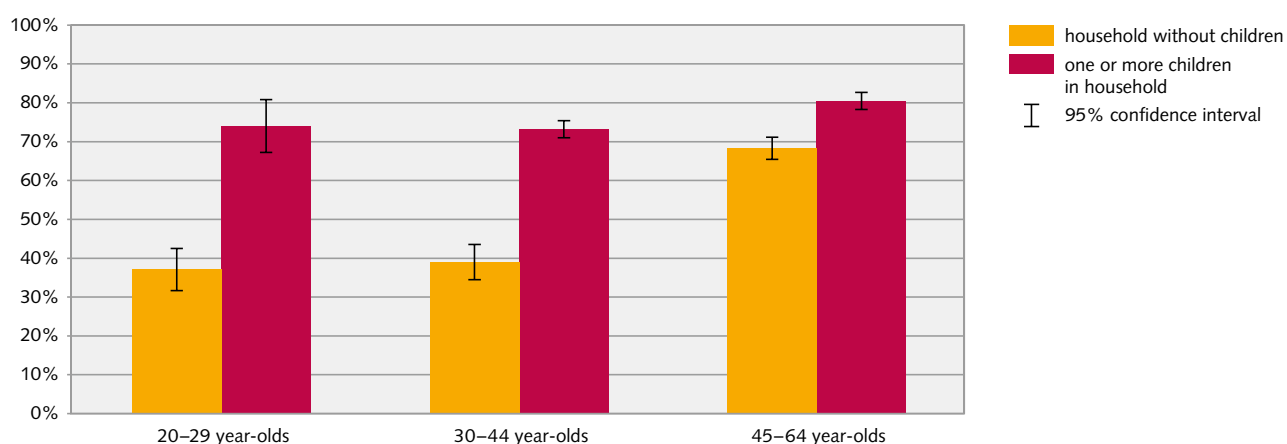
Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Share of couple households in which household chores are mainly carried out by women, by age group of the woman and depending on whether or not there are children living in the household

Only households in which both partners are aged between 20 and 64

G 14



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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depends on whether there are children living in the household. Whereas women are mainly responsible for household chores in households with children in around three quarters of cases (74% and 73%, respectively), this figure is under 40% in households with no children (37% in the 20–29 age group and 39% in the 30–44 age group). There is also a difference, albeit smaller, between households with and without children in the 45–64 age group. In households with children, women are responsible for the majority of household chores in four fifths of cases (81%), while in households without children women carry out most of the household chores in two thirds of cases (68%).

The smaller difference in this age group between households with and without children may be due to the fact that this data refers partly to couples whose children have already left home and who have retained the same division of household chores even after their children have moved out. This is confirmed by distinguishing between couples without children and couples with biological or adoptive children who have already left the household: in 60% of the couples without children women are mainly responsible for the household chores, while this figure is 73% in couples with children outside the household.

This is also linked to the fact that couples in which the woman is aged between 45 and 64 belong to a generation in which the traditional division of roles, whereby the woman takes care of the household and children and the man goes out to work, is still more common. In the youngest age group women are mainly responsible for the housework only in 36% of the couples without children, while this figure is 60% in the oldest age group.

2.4 Satisfaction with the sharing of household chores

The majority of men and women are satisfied with the way in which household chores are divided between themselves and their partners, although men say they are very satisfied much more often than women (74% of men compared to 51% of women). Meanwhile, women say they are quite satisfied (40%) or not satisfied (8%) more often than men. However, hardly any men or women say they are not at all satisfied with the division of household chores (fewer than 2%).

Men and women in households with no children are more satisfied with the division of household chores: 81% of men in households with no children are very satisfied with the division of household chores, while this figure is just under 70% (69%) in households with children. The difference is even more marked among women: in households with no children, around 60% (61%) are very satisfied with the division of household chores, while in households with children this figure is only just over 40% (42%).

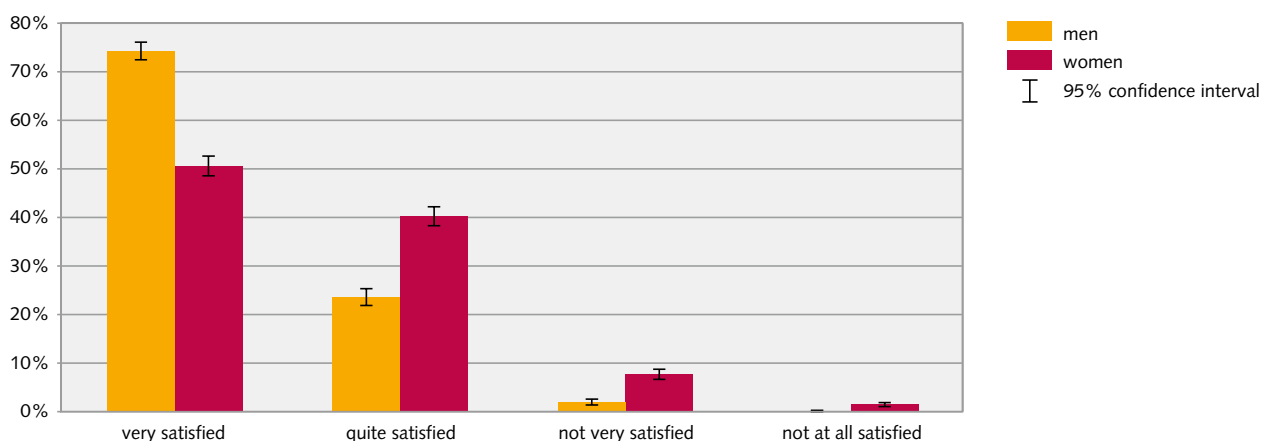
The lower level of satisfaction in households with children could be linked to the fact that the burden of household chores is greater in households where there are children, which tends to lead to more disagreements and dissatisfaction.

The level of satisfaction with the division of household chores also depends on how household tasks are shared within the couple. The percentage of men who are very satisfied with the division of household chores is high in households where women do most of the housework (74%) or if it is mostly done by both partners together

Satisfaction with the division of household chores by gender

Only households in which both partners are aged between 20 and 64

G 15



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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(77%). The share of men who are very satisfied in cases where the man does most of the housework is much lower, at just under 60% (59%).

The largest share of women who are very satisfied with the division of household chores is to be found in the group where most of the housework is done by men (83%). In cases where both partners take care of the household together, the share of women who are very

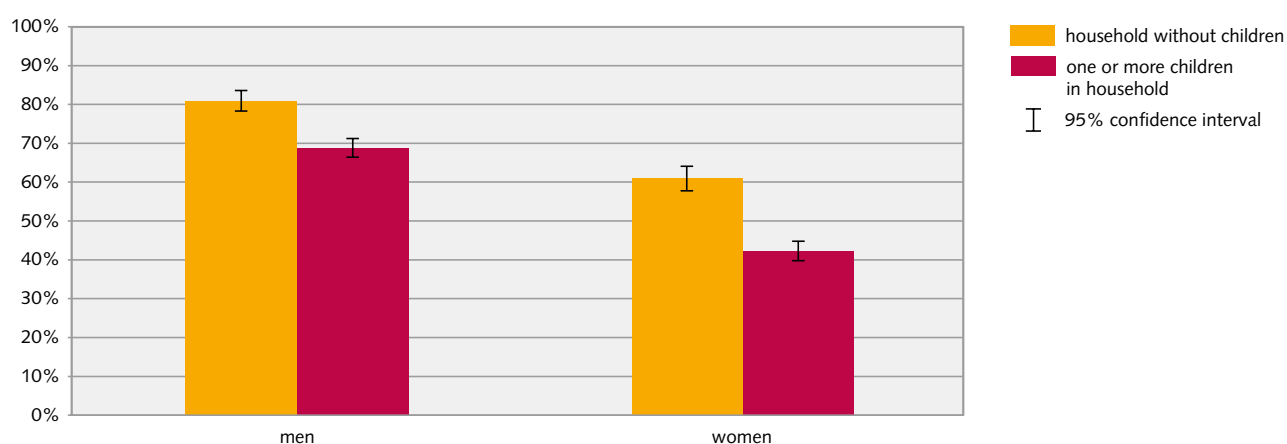
satisfied with the division is high (76%). If women are mainly responsible for household chores themselves, however, only 40% say they are very satisfied with the division of housework.

Therefore, for both men and women, the level of satisfaction is higher if the household chores are mainly done by the other partner or at least if both parties make a roughly equal contribution to housework.

Share of respondents who are very satisfied with the division of household chores, by gender and depending on whether or not there are children living in the household

Only households in which both partners are aged between 20 and 64

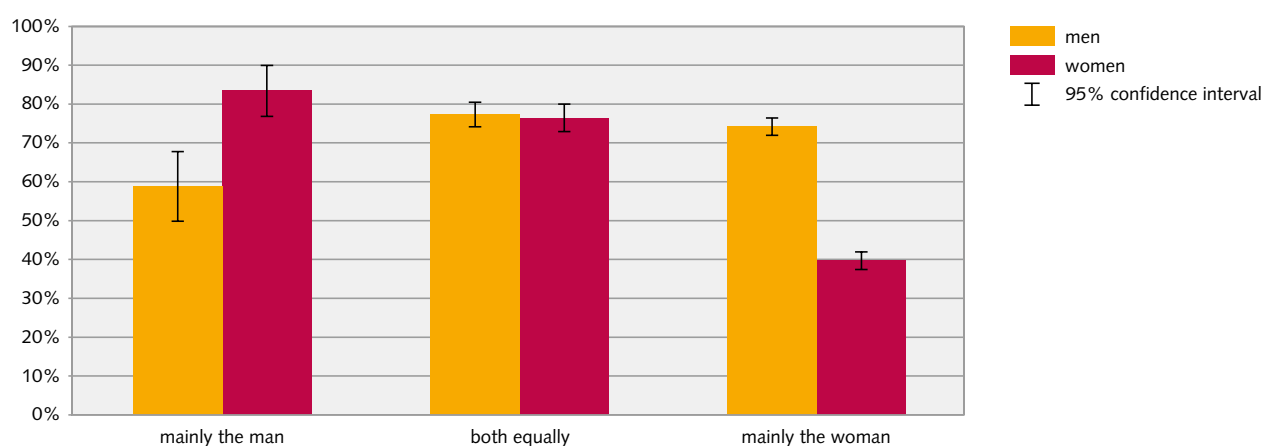
G 16



Share of respondents who are very satisfied with the division of household chores, by gender and existing division of household chores

Only households in which both partners are aged between 20 and 64

G 17



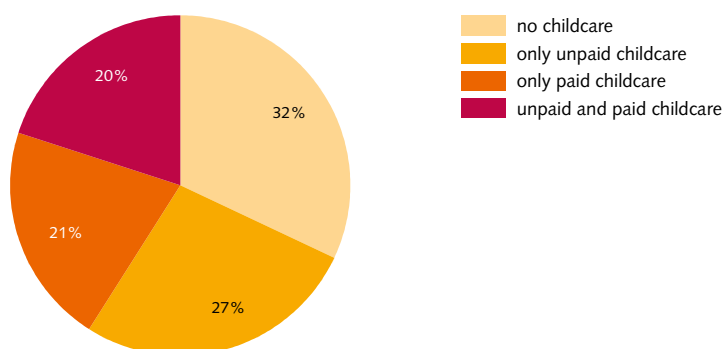
3 External childcare

Social change, in particular the higher labour force participation among mothers, has led to an increasing number of households relying on childcare. A portion of parents therefore resort to informal and unpaid care by relatives – particularly grandparents or family friends, while other households make use of childcare services they have to pay for, such as day care centers for pre-schoolers, out-of-school day care, day schools or day care families. Whether a household opts to use an institutional or informal childcare service or does not use any childcare service, is influenced by various factors. These include, for example, the parents' employment situation, their financial circumstances, the availability of childcare facilities where they live and the possibilities of getting their social network involved.

Overall, around seven in ten households in Switzerland with children aged between 0 and 12 make use of childcare (68%). The majority of parents rely on unpaid care: 27% use only unpaid childcare, while 20% also use childcare they have to pay for. Around a fifth of households (21%) only use paid childcare.

There is a clear correlation between the form of childcare and the employment model: over half (52%) of households where the mother does not work do not use any regular childcare; in households where both parents work full-time and those where the man works full-time and the woman part-time, this is around a quarter (26% and 24%, respectively), and in households where both partners work part-time it is only around a fifth (18%). If the woman does not work, paid childcare is rarely used: only just over a tenth (13%) of these households exclusively use paid childcare and again, just under a tenth (9%) use both paid and unpaid childcare. Households in which both parents work full-time tend to rely exclusively on paid childcare provision (30%) more often than other households do. Families where the mother or both parents work part-time tend to use only unpaid childcare more frequently (29% and 32%, respectively). These differences are mainly due to the fact that those who work full-time regularly require more hours of childcare and therefore opt for an institutional form of childcare, whereas families where one or both parents work

Use of childcare by households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12 G 18

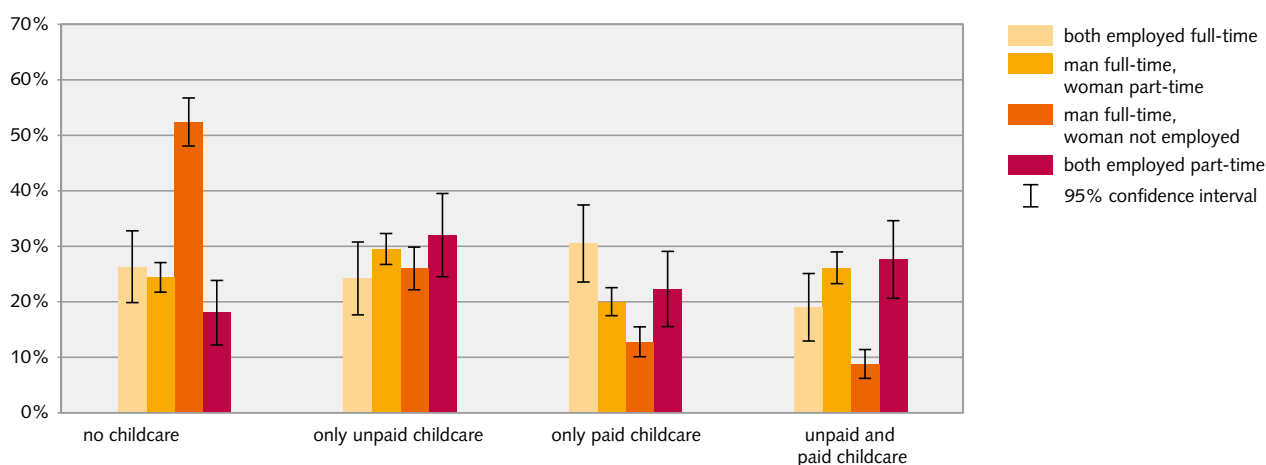


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Use of childcare by households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12, by employment model*

G 19



* Concerning the employment model, only couple households where one of the depicted employment models applies were taken into account. Couples with a different employment situation as well as lone parent households were not taken into account.

Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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part-time are able to look after their children themselves for a greater period of time and can cover their remaining childcare requirements using unpaid childcare from friends and relatives.

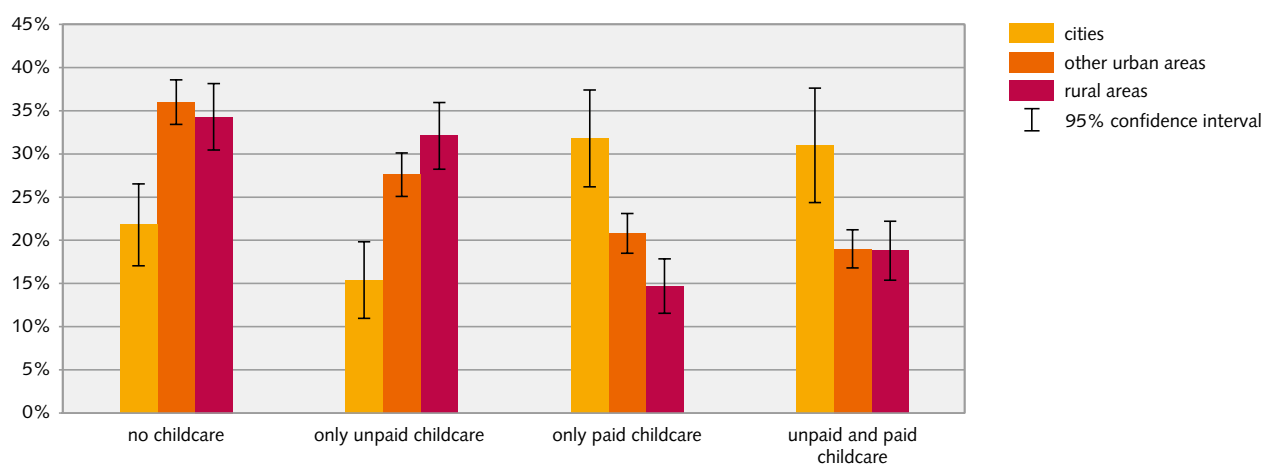
Whether the parents live in a big town or city, another urban municipality or a rural area⁴ also proves significant in this choice of a paid or unpaid form of childcare. In this respect, there is a clear distinction between households in the six large cities and those living in other urban regions and rural areas. The share of households that do not use any childcare is significantly lower in large cities (22%) than in other urban areas (36%) and in rural regions (34%). The percentage of parents who cover their childcare requirements exclusively with unpaid childcare is also much lower in large cities than in other regions. In cities this figure is 15% compared to 28% in other urban areas and 32% in rural areas. In large cities almost a third of households use only paid (32%) or paid and unpaid (31%) childcare; in the other urban areas and rural regions these figures are much lower, at 21% and 15% respectively (only paid childcare) and 19% (paid and unpaid childcare).

Various factors could influence the link between the level of urbanisation and the choice of childcare type. In particular, social and family bonds tend to be stronger in rural regions and family networks are often tighter, which makes it more likely that informal childcare options are available. Furthermore, rural areas often lack comprehensive organised childcare facilities or the opening hours of the available childcare facilities are very limited, meaning parents feel more compelled to seek informal alternatives. At the same time, the employment level of mothers in urban areas is slightly higher on average and the associated increase in childcare requirements may lead to households having to supplement unpaid childcare by using a paid childcare service or generally opting for an institutionalised childcare service. Admittedly, the factors mentioned explain the urban-rural differences but do not necessarily justify why large cities in particular are different from the other urban areas and rural regions. These differences are probably more due to varying norms and values in large cities, where the image of the traditional family and attitudes to the traditional division of tasks in families are less established than in other regions. As regards childcare in day care centres for pre-schoolers, out-of-school day care, day schools or day families, social and individual values play an important role.

⁴ Cities are defined as communes with more than 100,000 inhabitants, i.e. Zurich, Geneva, Basel, Lausanne, Bern and Winterthur (as at 31.12.2012). The other urban areas comprise all other communes that belong to an agglomeration according to the definition of an agglomeration that dates back to 2000, as well as the isolated towns of Lyss, Langenthal, Einsiedeln, Davos and Martigny. All other communes that are not part of an agglomeration, are considered rural areas.

Use of childcare by households with a child or children aged between 0 and 12, by cities, other urban areas and rural areas

G 20



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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4 Attitudes to solidarity between generations

The demographic change of the last decades has altered the generational structure. Despite the fact that men and women are now on average older when their children are born, the increase in life expectancy results in the various generations having a longer shared lifespan. This means that family structures that used to be rare, for example where someone is both a mother of an adolescent daughter and “child” of elderly parents, is becoming more common. These changes may affect the relationships between generations.

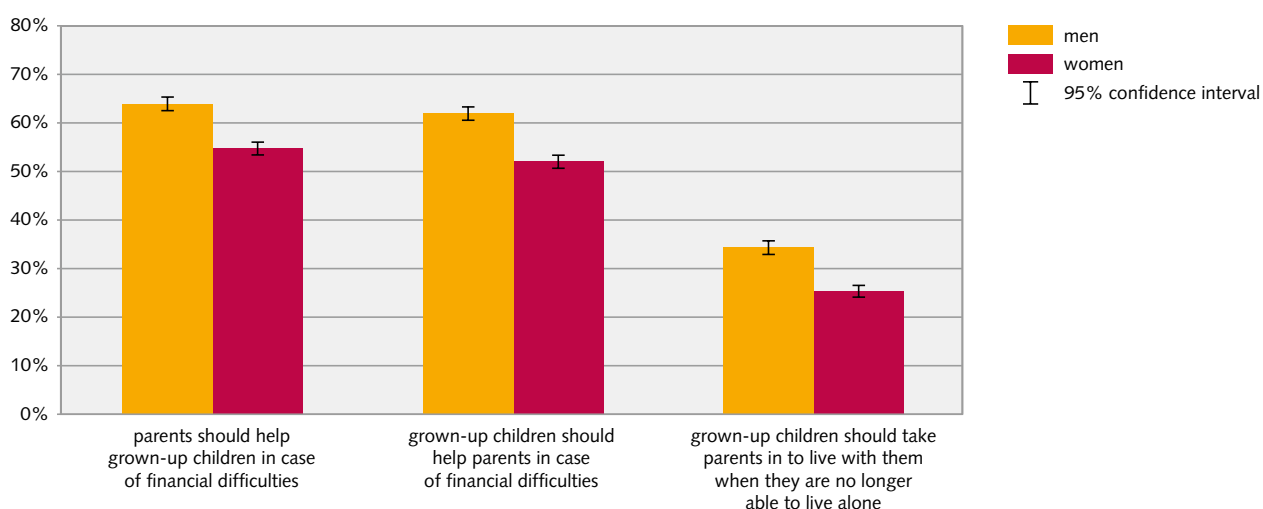
The majority of men and women believe that parents should help their grown-up children and vice versa if they have financial difficulties (64% and 62% of men and 55% and 52% of women, respectively). However, the statement that grown-up children should take their parents in to live with them when they are no longer able to live alone garners less support. Only a quarter of women and just over a third of men (34%) agree with this statement. On all three statements the agreement of men was around 10 percentage points higher than that of women. This is noteworthy as we could assume

that providing material support has a similar impact on men and women, whereas women tend to be more heavily burdened if they take their parents or in-laws in to live with them because they would continue to be primarily responsible for caring for elderly persons. We might therefore assume that the difference between men and women would be greater in this sense than in terms of material support.

Regarding the questions on mutual financial support between grown-up children and adults, the level of agreement decreases with age and only significantly increases again from 65 onwards. It is noteworthy that agreement is lowest on this issue among respondents in the age categories 45–54 and 55–64 (54% and 56% respectively for the statement “parents should help their grown-up children if they have financial difficulties” and 49% and 46% respectively for the statement “young people should help their parents if they have financial difficulties”), in other words among those who, on account of their age, are most likely to have to provide financial support to their parents or grown-up

Attitudes to generational solidarity – share of respondents who strongly or somewhat agree with the statement, by gender

G 21

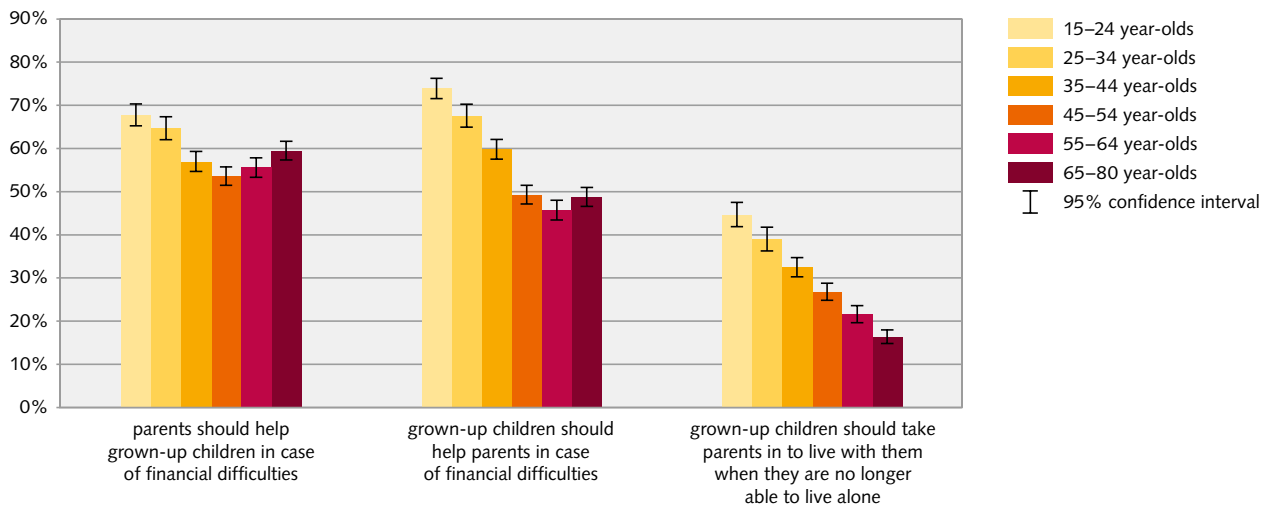


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Attitudes to generational solidarity – share of respondents who strongly or somewhat agree with the statement, by age group

G 22



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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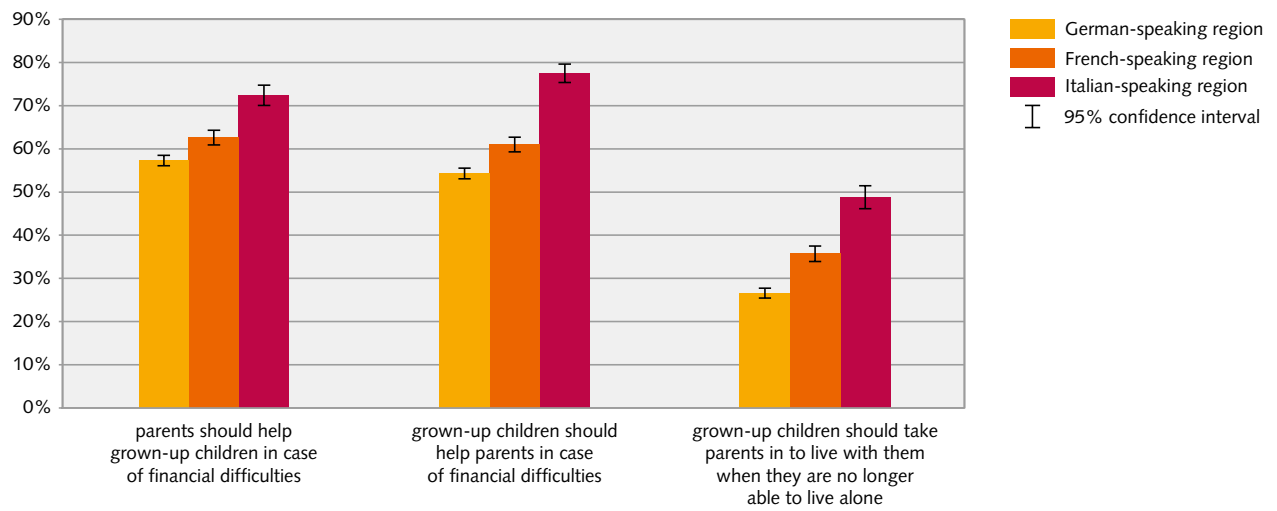
children. This so-called “sandwich generation” often has teenage children who have not finished their education and are therefore not yet financially independent. Meanwhile, individuals in this generation may often find themselves in the role of grown-up children who are expected to look after their elderly parents. Women and men in the younger age groups generally do not yet have the financial means to provide material assistance to their parents. At the same time, their parents are less likely to rely on financial assistance as they generally still work. The same applies to those over 65, whose parents are often no longer alive and whose children are that bit older and are usually financially independent themselves.

Support for the statement “children should bring their parents to live with them when they are no longer able to live alone” decreases with age. Among respondents aged between 65 and 80, not even a fifth (16%) strongly or somewhat agrees. Unlike with financial assistance, agreement is lowest on this question among those who are likely to need this help soonest on account of their age.

Attitudes to generational solidarity also vary according to language region. Agreement is lowest in the German-speaking part of Switzerland, both on the issue of financial help (57% and 54%, respectively), and on the question of whether grown-up children should take their elderly parents in to live with them (27%). The highest level of agreement with the statements is found in the Italian-speaking part of the country, where 72% think parents should provide financial assistance to their grown-up children and 78% think grown-up children should provide financial assistance to their parents. Furthermore, 49% of respondents in the Italian-speaking region also believe that grown-up children should take their parents in to live with them when they are no longer able to live alone. Meanwhile, French-speaking Switzerland comes out in between the German-speaking part and the Italian-speaking part on all three statements: 63% (financial support for grown-up children), 61% (financial support for parents) and 36% (grown-up children bringing parents to live with them).

Attitudes to generational solidarity – share of respondents who strongly or somewhat agree with the statement, by language region

G 23



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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5 Grandparents

The number of grandchildren increases the older the grandparents are. In the 60–69 age group, half of all men and women already have at least one grandchild and 17% have four or more. In the 70–80 age group, seven in ten persons have at least one grandchild and the share of grandmothers and grandfathers with at least four grandchildren is just over a third (34%). On average, women become grandmothers at 62 and men become grandfathers at 66, in other words half of women and men at this age have one or more grandchildren.

5.1 Contact between grandparents and grandchildren

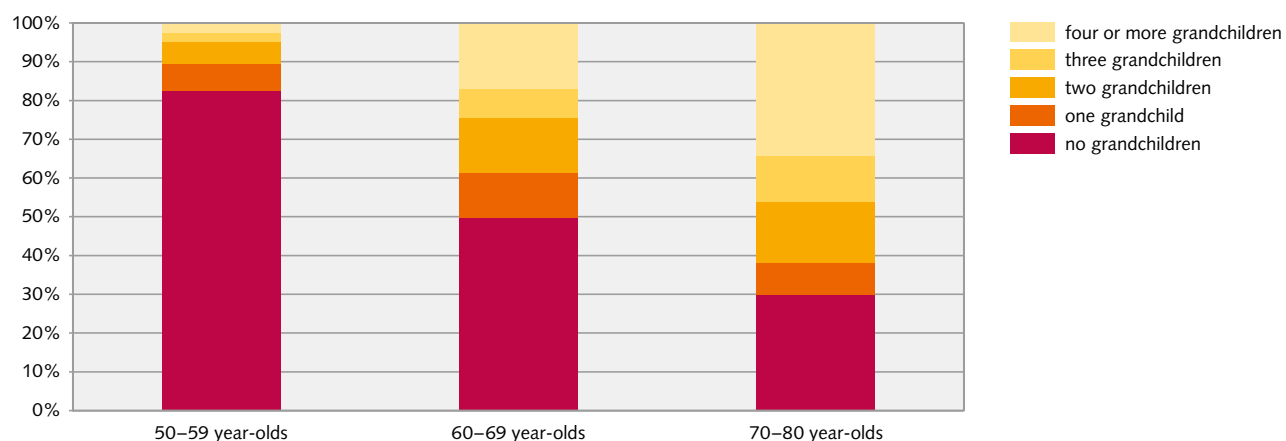
Most grandparents have regular contact with their grandchildren. Just under 60% (59%) see their grandchildren at least once a week. At 62%, this percentage

is slightly higher among grandmothers than grandfathers (54%). Only 1% of grandparents have no personal contact at all with their grandchildren.

Grandparents see their grandchildren slightly more often when the youngest grandchild is aged under six: the share of grandfathers who have contact with one or several grandchildren at least once a week is 59% in this case, compared to 47% if the youngest child is six or older. Among grandmothers, 73% have contact at least once a week with their grandchild or grandchildren when the youngest is aged under six, and 51% when the youngest grandchild is six or older.

Number of grandchildren by grandparents' age group

G 24

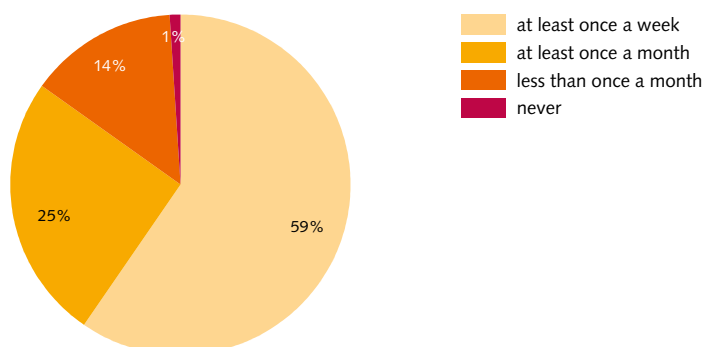


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Frequency of personal contact with grandchildren

G 25

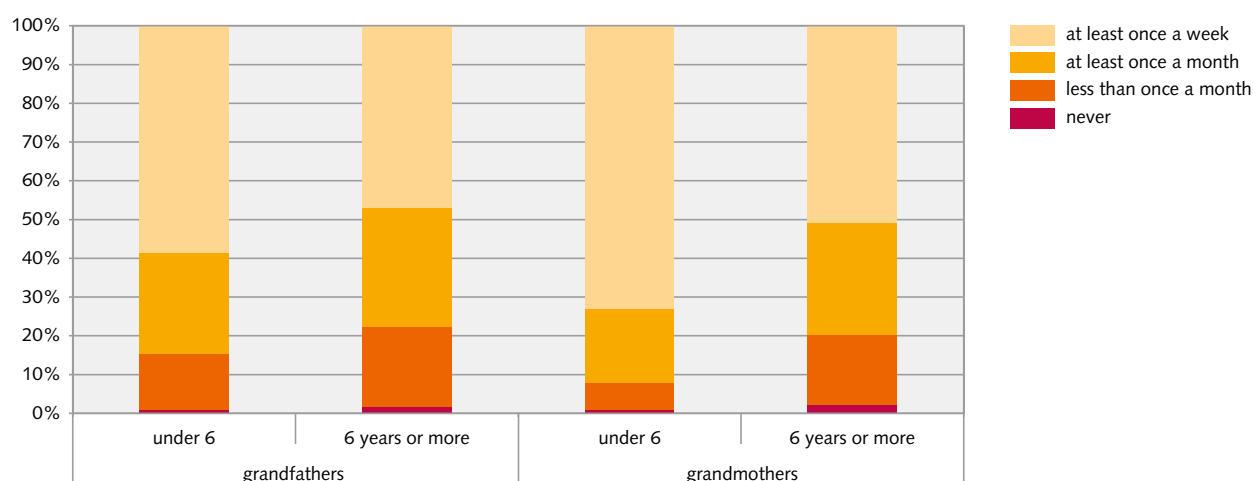


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Frequency of personal contact between grandfathers and grandmothers and their grandchildren, by age of the youngest grandchild

G 26



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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5.2 Looking after grandchildren

Around a quarter of grandparents with grandchildren aged between 0 and 12 look after one or several of these children regularly (24%). Among this group, the vast majority look after their grandchildren at least once a week (83%), while the rest do so less often.

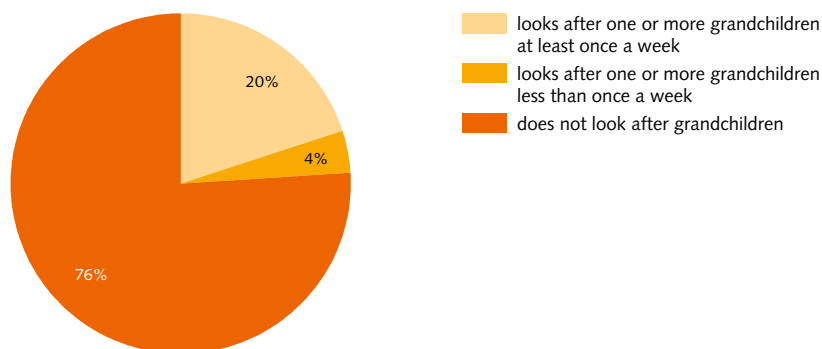
In particular when the youngest grandchild is under six, grandmothers help more often than grandfathers with looking after children. Around 30% (29%) of grandmothers with grandchildren under six look after one or several of their grandchildren at least once a week, whereas this figure for grandfathers is only half that, at 15%. Of particular note is the fact that the gap between grandmothers and grandfathers narrows when

the youngest grandchild is aged between 6 and 12. Whereas the share of grandmothers who look after a grandchild at least once a week falls to 16% when the youngest grandchild is six or older, the share of grandfathers is virtually constant, at 13%. The difference between grandmothers and grandfathers is therefore most marked when the grandchildren are small. Once the youngest grandchild is aged between 6 and 12, however, grandfathers look after their grandchildren almost as often as grandmothers. This finding is in line with the predominant perception in society, namely that looking after babies and young children, i.e. tasks such as changing nappies and dressing babies and toddlers, are generally a women's job. This could also be explained by the fact that grandfathers of younger

Looking after grandchildren

Grandparents with a grandchild or grandchildren aged between 0 and 12

G 27



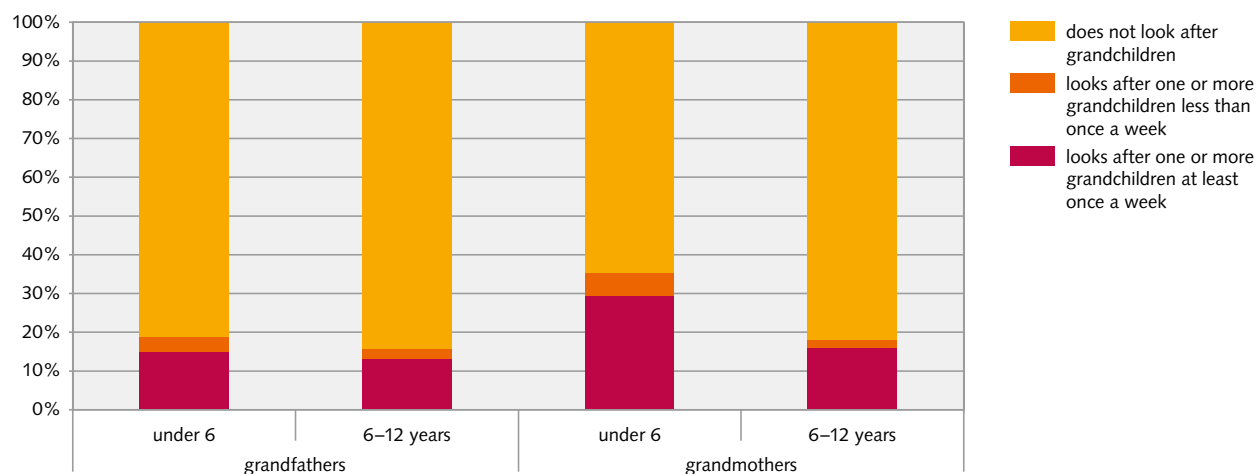
Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Looking after grandchildren by grandfathers and grandmothers, by age of the youngest grandchild

Grandparents with a grandchild or grandchildren aged between 0 and 12

G 28



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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grandchildren are still fully involved in the labour market, and that they only find time to take care of their grandchildren later, when they retire. On the other hand, grandmothers more often do not work or are employed part time, even before they reach retirement age.

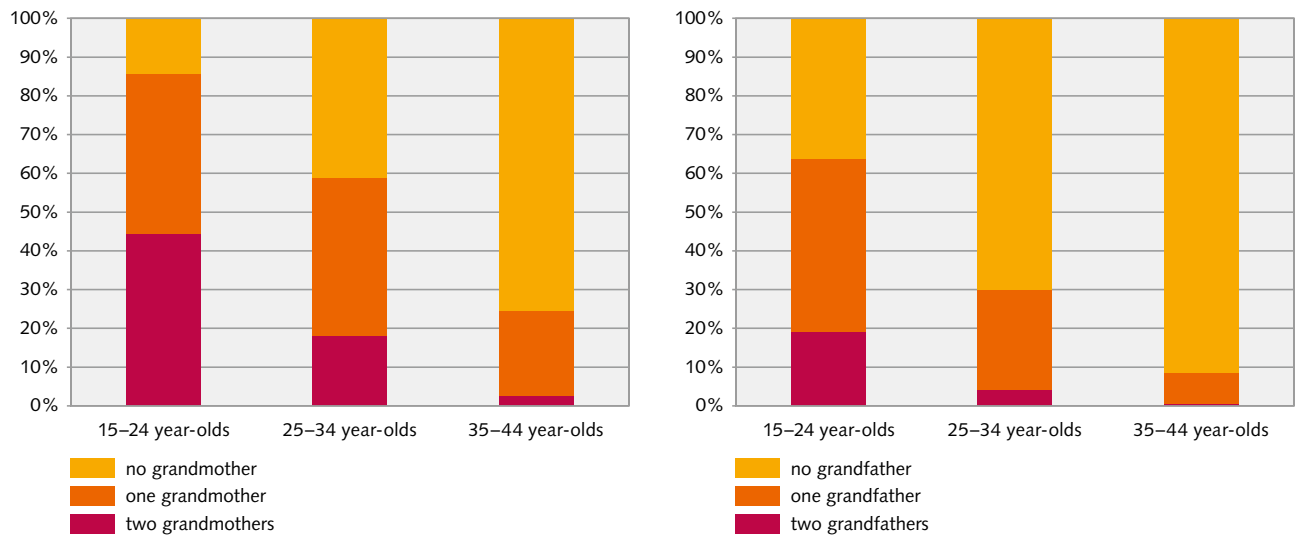
5.3 Number of grandparents

The increase in life expectancy means relationships between the generations last longer and there is more overlap between the lifetimes of grandparents and their grandchildren. Consequently, it has become more common for adults to have grandparents who are still alive.

In the 15–24 age group, the vast majority (86%) have at least one grandmother and almost two thirds (64%) have at least one grandfather still alive. In the 25–34 age group, too, almost 60% (59%) have at least one grandmother and 30% at least one grandfather. In the 35–44 age group, these figures are 25% (grandmother) and 9% (grandfather). Proportionately, more people have at least one grandmother than at least one grandfather. This is partly due to the higher life expectancy of women and is also the result of age differences within couples: as men are often older than their partners, they have children later than their wives and therefore become grandfathers later, too.

Share of respondents with grandmothers and grandfathers, by age group of grandchildren

G 29



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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6 Attitudes towards family and family models

6.1 Can women and men only feel fulfilled and happy in life if they have children?

Family structures and family living arrangements have become much more diverse in recent decades and life courses have become more varied. These days, there are attractive alternatives to marriage and having a family for many young men and women. But is this reflected in attitudes? How did the population respond to the statements "women/men can only be happy and fulfilled if they have children"?

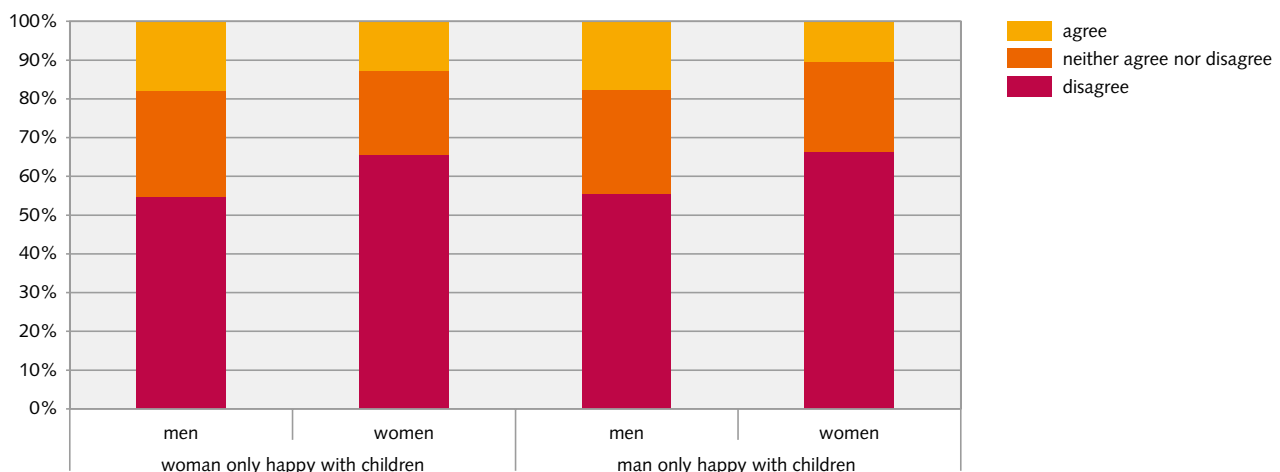
The majority of women and men disagree with the statements, with 55% of men and 66% of women not sharing the view that a woman can only be happy and fulfilled if she has children. The level of disagreement was the same regarding the statement that a man can only be happy and fulfilled if he has children, with 55% of men and 66% of women somewhat or strongly

disagreeing. The share of women and men who strongly or somewhat agree with both statements is under 20%. Worthy of note is the fact that female respondents rejected the statements that a man/a woman can only be happy and fulfilled if she/he has children much more often than men (66% of women compared to 55% of men). By the same token, the share of men who agree with both statements is slightly higher (18% of men compared to 13% and 10% of women, respectively).

Education has a significant impact on attitudes: whereas around two thirds of men and women with a tertiary level of education (66% and 67%, respectively) and around 60% with an upper secondary level of education disagree with the statements that a woman/a man can only be happy and fulfilled if she/he has children, this figure is only around 40% (41% and 42%, respectively) among those who have no post-compulsory education.

Agreement with the statements "a woman/a man can only be happy and fulfilled if she/he has children", by gender

G 30

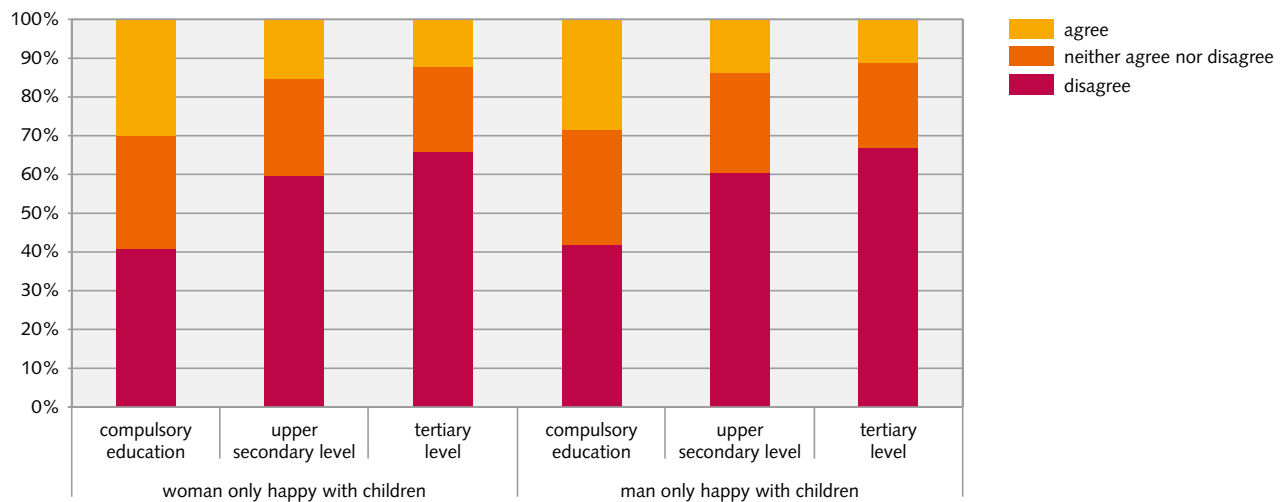


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Agreement with the statements “a woman/a man can only be happy and fulfilled if she/he has children”, by level of education

G 31



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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One reason for this finding could be that men and women who are more highly educated generally have better career prospects, travel more and are more active in their free time, meaning that children tend to be seen as somewhat less important to their personal happiness. Another reason could be that individuals with a higher level of education tend to be less likely to hold traditional values.

6.2 What does a child need to have a happy upbringing?

The issue of mothers working has continually sparked debate in recent years. The economic and political sectors are keen to integrate qualified women more strongly in the employment market in order to reduce the existing and looming skills shortage. Furthermore, many households now rely on a second income for financial reasons. Meanwhile, there have also been efforts to promote the traditional “single earner model” through tax breaks for families who look after their own children.

Labour market participation among mothers is relatively high in Switzerland. In 2013, 72% of mothers in couple households and 81% of lone mothers with at least one child aged between 0 and 6 were employed⁵.

Despite this high percentage of working mothers, the population is somewhat sceptical regarding women with young children being employed: around half of men (49%) and just under four in ten women (38%) think that a child of pre-school age will suffer if his/her mother works. Only 25% of men and 37% of women reject this statement.

Although 13% of children under 25 currently live in a lone parent household and 6% in a patchwork family⁶, there was a high level of agreement with the statement that a child needs a home with both a father and a mother to grow up happily. Seven in ten men and over half of women (52%) agree with this statement and only 15% of men and 28% of women disagree with it.

Finally, the statement that a child can also be happy and develop if he/she is brought up by same-sex parents, met with agreement among just under half of women (47%) and around one third of men (32%).

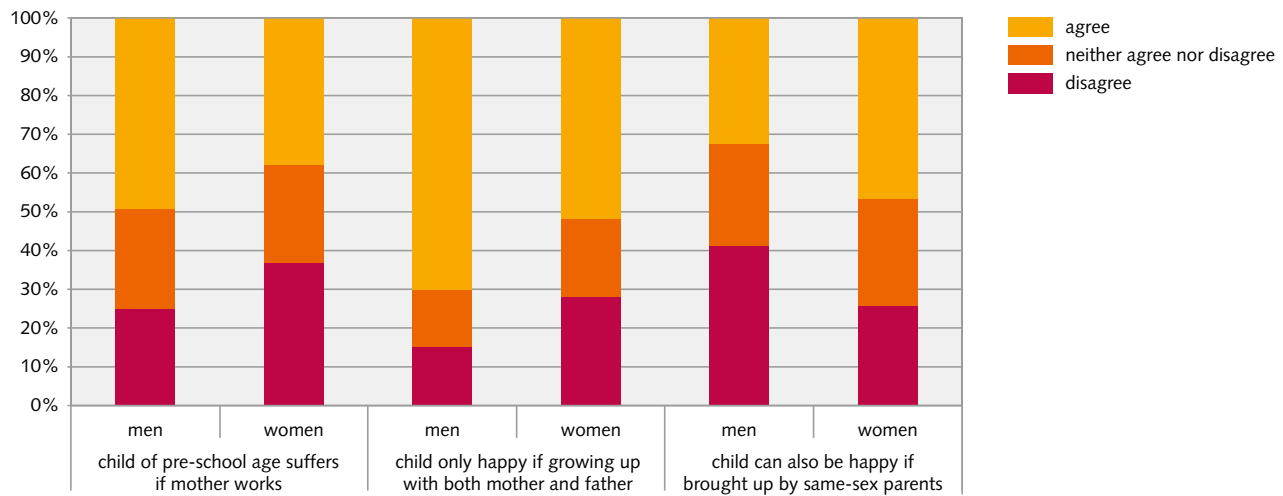
It is interesting to note that the attitudes of men and women to all three statements vary significantly: men are more sceptical about women working and are more likely to agree with the statement that a child should grow up with its mother and father to be happy. Men were also more critical regarding the statement that a child can have a happy upbringing if he/she is brought up by a same-sex couple.

⁵ Labour Force Survey 2013.

⁶ Structural Survey 2012.

Attitudes to what a child needs for a happy upbringing, by gender

G 32

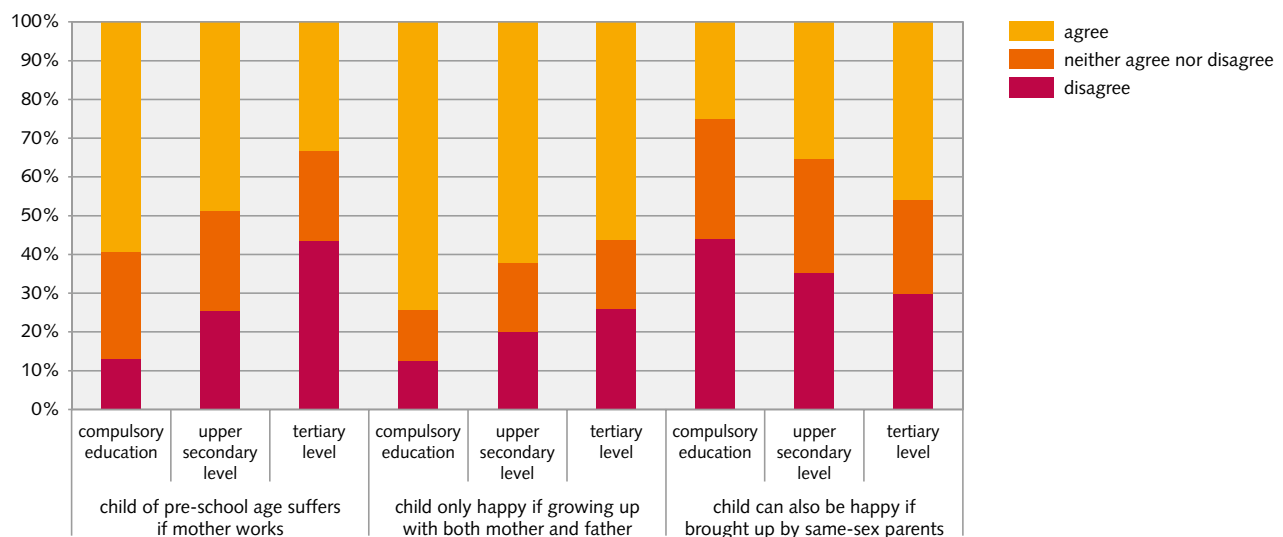


Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Attitudes to what a child needs for a happy upbringing, by level of education

G 33



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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Besides gender, level of education also has a significant influence on attitudes. Particularly the level of scepticism towards mothers with pre-school age children who work decreases the higher the level of education: whereas the majority of respondents with no post-compulsory education (59%) believe that a child will suffer if his/her mother works, just under half (49%) of respondents with an upper secondary-level education agree with this statement and a third of respondents with a tertiary level of education.

The share of respondents who believe that a child can only have a happy upbringing if he/she lives with his/her mother and father, also decreases as the level of education increases: 74% of those with no post-compulsory education agree with this statement, 62% of those with an upper secondary level of education and 56% of respondents with a tertiary level of education.

Finally, level of education also affects attitudes towards the statement that a child can also have a happy upbringing with a same-sex couple: whereas a quarter of respondents with no post-compulsory education agree with this statement, over a third of those with an upper secondary level of education agree (35%) and almost half of those with a tertiary level of education (46%).

6.3 How have values and attitudes changed in the last 20 years?

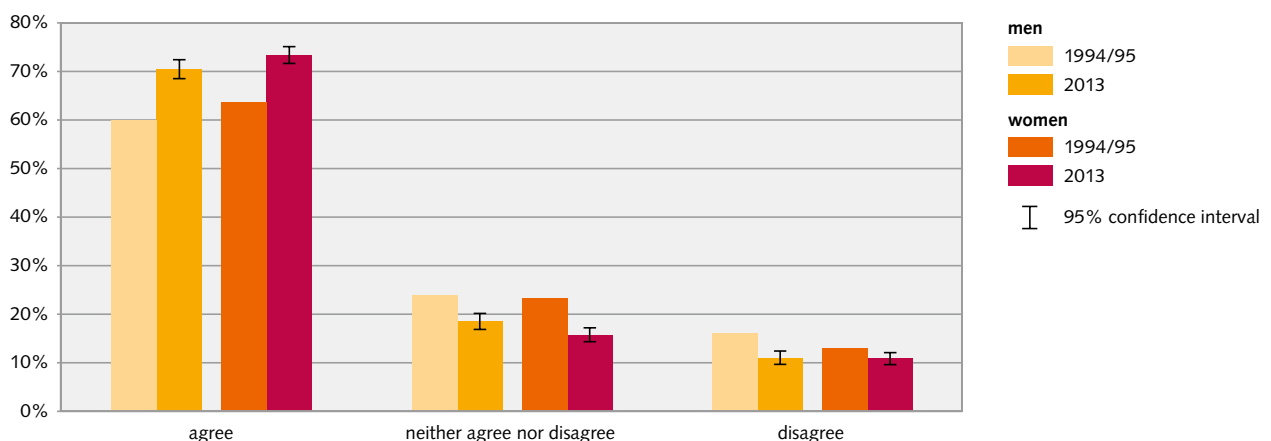
Among both men and women, the level of agreement with the statement that having a job is the best way to guarantee independence for both men and women, was around 10 percentage points higher in the 2013 survey than in the 1994/95 one (70% versus 60% for men and 73% versus 64% for women). At the same time, the share of respondents who disagree with the statement decreased slightly. The pattern, whereby women are more likely to agree with the statement and men more likely to reject it, remains the same, however.

An even more marked change has taken place as regards attitudes towards working mothers. Whereas six in ten men (61%) believed that a child would suffer if his/her mother worked in 1994/95, this figure was only four in ten (44%) in 2013. The share of women who agree with this statement fell from just under half (49%) to a third. As in 1994/95, men were still more sceptical regarding mothers being employed in 2013.

Agreement with the statement “having a job is the best way to guarantee independence for both men and women” – comparison with the family survey of 1994/95

Men and women aged between 20 and 49

G 34

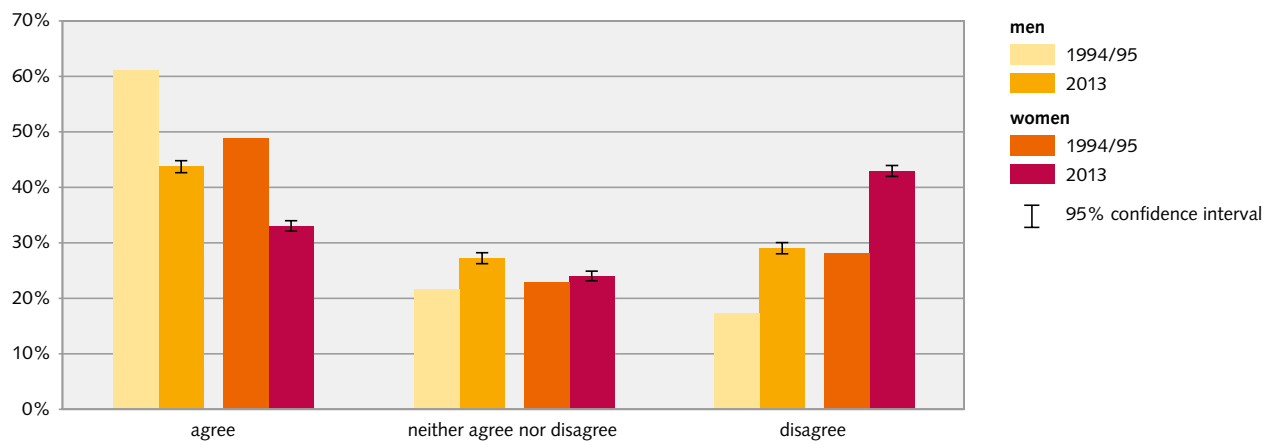


Source: FSO – FGS 2013, FS 1994/95

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Agreement with the statement “a child of pre-school age suffers if his/her mother works” – comparison with the family survey of 1994/95
Men and women aged between 20 and 49

G 35



Source: FSO – FGS 2013, FS 1994/95

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7 Attitudes towards gender roles

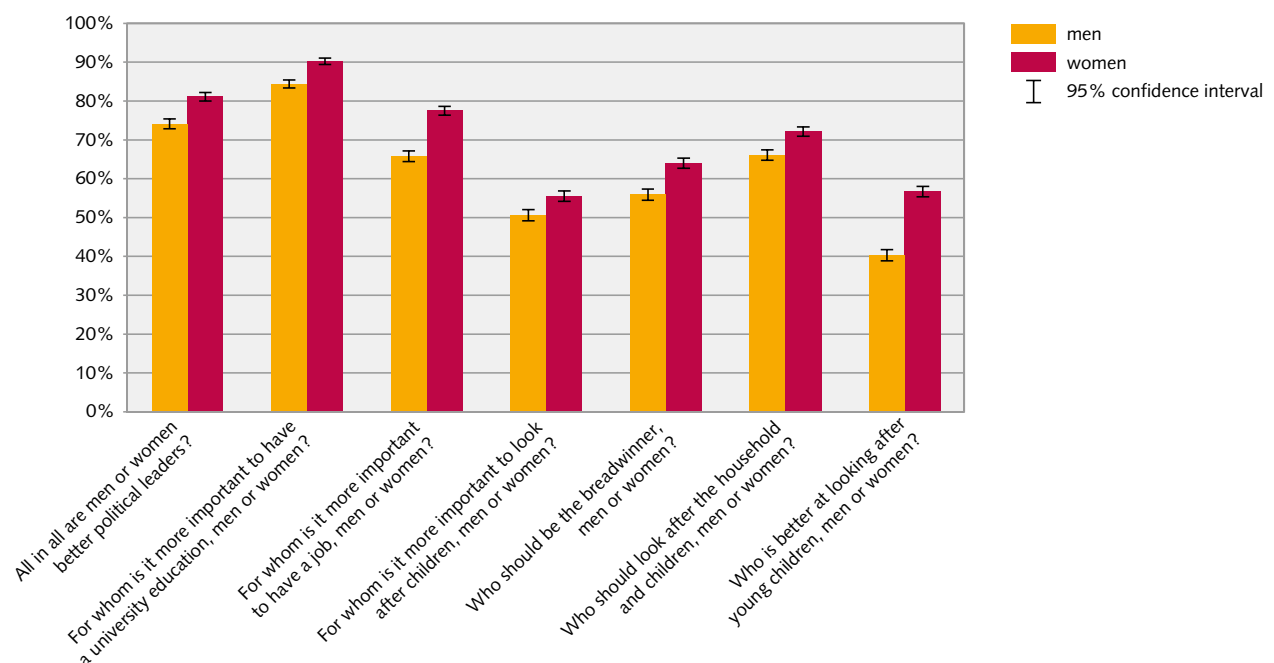
Society assigns certain behaviours and social roles to men and women. These expectations are based on socio-cultural norms and have changed over the course of history. The constitutional article on gender equality, which dates back to 1981, and the new marriage law of 1988, brought about formal equality of men and women in the eyes of the law in Switzerland. The traditional division of labour between the sexes has started to break down in the past few years and labour market participation among women has seen a sharp rise. Meanwhile, a very large number of women still work part-time, household chores and family-related tasks are still mainly done by women and there is still a discrepancy between women's and men's pay⁷.

How are these trends reflected in attitudes towards gender roles? What share of men and women believe that earning money to support the family is no longer exclusively the domain of men and that men can look after young children just as well as women?

In general, it is interesting to note that men believe more strongly in traditional social roles than women: the share of men who assign a behaviour or attribute to a man or woman is consistently higher. The clearest differences between men and women arise in response to the statements "who is better at looking after young children – men or women?" and "for whom is it more important to have a job – men or women?" Whereas almost eight in ten women believe it is equally important

Attitudes towards gender roles – share of respondents who think there are **no differences between men and women, by gender**

G 36



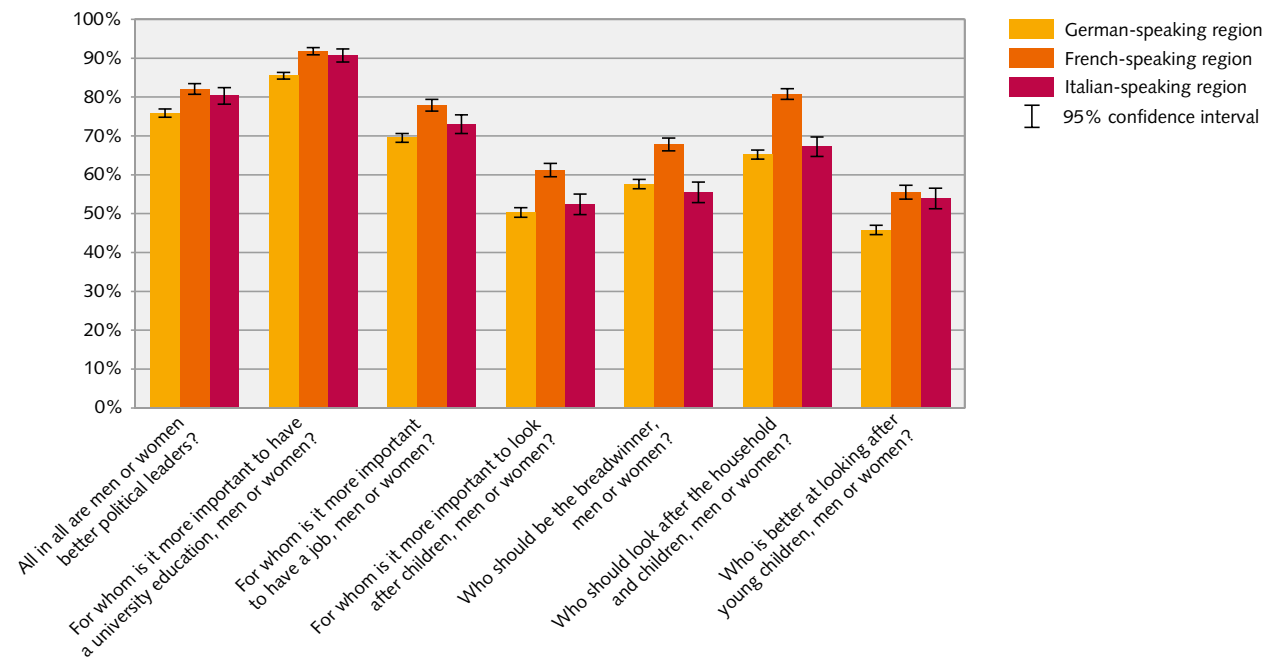
Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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⁷ Federal Statistical Office: "On the way to gender equality. Current situation and developments". Neuchâtel 2013, p. 22–27.

Attitudes towards gender roles – share of respondents who think there are **no** differences between men and women, by language region

G 37



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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for men and women to have a job (77%), only two thirds of men think so. The difference regarding looking after young children is even more marked: only 40% of men think that men and women can look after young children equally well, compared to 57% of women.

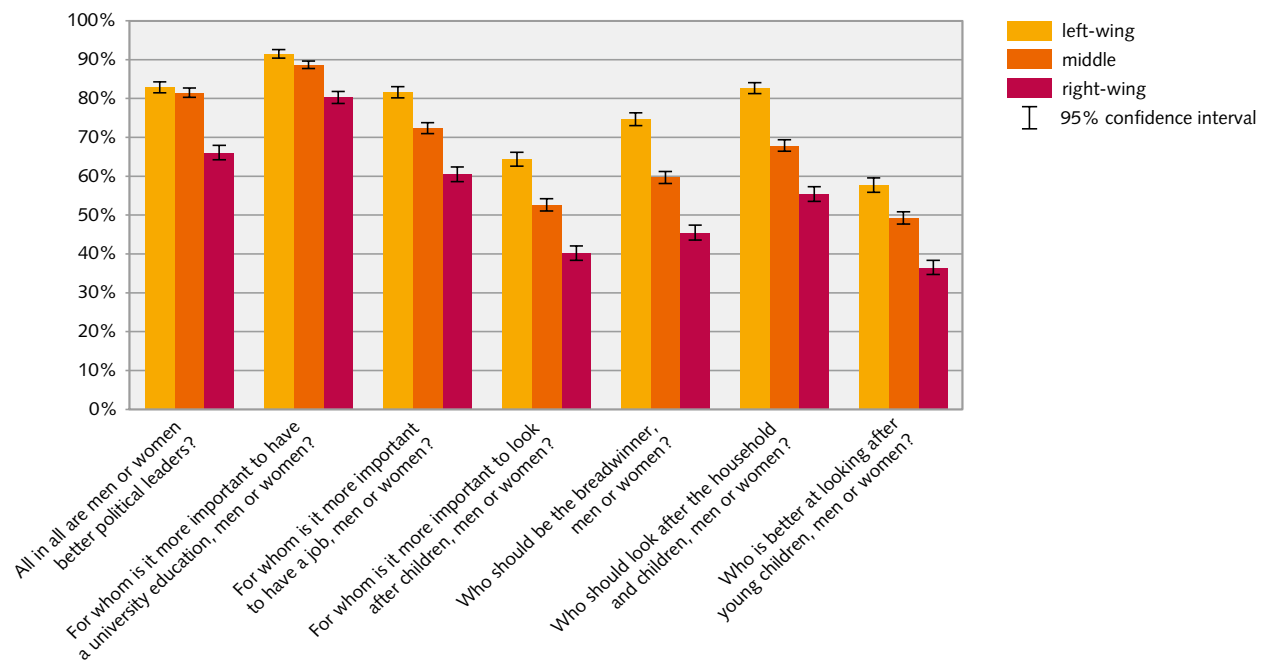
Language region and political orientation⁸ also have a significant impact on attitudes towards social roles. The German-speaking Swiss are consistently more traditional in their attitudes, whereas the French-speaking Swiss have the most egalitarian attitudes on all statements. There is a particularly marked gap between the language regions when it comes to the questions of who is the breadwinner and who should be responsible for looking after the household and children. In French-speaking Switzerland, 68% and 81%, respectively, think there are no differences between men and women in this regard, while in German-speaking Switzerland these figures are just 58% and 65%, respectively.

Among respondents who describe themselves as politically “right wing”, traditional gender roles are generally more firmly established, whereas the majority of respondents who consider themselves “left wing” do not think there are any differences between men and women on all statements. In particular on the questions “for whom is it more important to look after children?” and “who is better at looking after young children?”, the majority of the right wing respondents thought it was women, with only 40% and 37%, respectively seeing no difference between the sexes. Furthermore, on the question of whose duty it is to earn money to support the family, only a minority of respondents who consider themselves right wing think this is equally important for both sexes (45%).

⁸ The political orientation has been determined based on the self-evaluation of respondents on a scale from “left” to “right”.

Attitudes towards gender roles – share of respondents who think there are **no differences between men and women, by self-assessment on a left-right scale**

G 38



Source: FSO – FGS 2013

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8 Method

8.1 Survey

The Families and Generations Survey (FGS) is part of the survey programme of the Swiss Census. It was conducted for the first time in 2013 and will be repeated every five years.

In this sample survey, data were collected using a computer-assisted telephone interview (CATI) and a supplementary online or paper questionnaire (CAWI/PAPI). The survey was conducted in three languages.

The FGS sample takes into account permanent residents of Switzerland aged between 15 and 79 (at the reference day, January 1, 2013).

As the interviews took place all along the year 2013, a few of the persons who participated in the survey had already reached the age of 80.

8.2 Random sample and response rate

For the 2013 Families and Generations Survey, the FSO drew a random sample of 34,818 persons from the sampling frame for surveys on individuals and households (SRPH). 17,288 people (50%) took part in the survey, of whom 53% were female and 47% male. 82% of respondents were Swiss nationals and 18% were foreign nationals. In order to take into account the sampling plan and non-responses, data were weighted and calibrated.

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How many children do young women and men wish to have? How large is the share of households which make use of external childcare for their children? How do adult children and their parents help one another? This publication presents the initial findings from the Families and Generations Survey, 2013. Certain areas from the Families and Generations topic for which no or little data was previously available were purposely selected for this analysis.

The findings presented here provide important indications on the division of labour in households and families, on inter-generational relations as well as on people's desires and attitudes with regard to family lifestyles and the organisation of day-to-day life.

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