

Women's Role in the Context of Coping with Everyday Life : Challenges for Public and Privacy in Germany

Ingrid-Ute Leonhäuser

Professor, Centre of International Development and Environmental Research
Justus-Liebig-University Giessen, Germany

Abstract : The purpose of this paper is to describe the situation of everyday life of women and men in Germany and gender related aspects. Therefore social demographical data, presented by the Office for European Statistics, Luxembourg and by German statistical data, are used. Based on this data the different roles, responsibilities, and social positions of women and men are interpreted in the context of the idea of mainstreaming gender. In comparison to other European countries, especially to the Scandinavian countries, the situation of women in Germany still has to be improved. It is a prevalent problem for women to arrange family life and working career, because the gender-related role-allocation is still an issue. Women, who are involved in looking after children, are significantly less engaged in business life, as for men caring does not make a difference, whether they are employed or not. In addition to this fact women on average earn less than men, especially for women working in higher positions. To improve the situation of women and men the German government has initiated a 'Gender Mainstreaming Policy' in 2000 and has taken important legal measures which make it possible to reconcile family-life and gainful employment. For Home Economists there is a need to integrate the gender dimension into a household analytical approach.

Key Words : Everyday Life, Reconciling Work and Family Life, Gender Mainstreaming, Households

I. Introductory Remarks

I am greatly honoured by the invitation to present my paper about "women's role in the context of coping with everyday life: challenges for public and privacy in Germany". This is a visionary symposium focussed on "family life culture in a gender equal society". To my knowledge no other group within the International Federation of Home

Economics has discussed gender and equality aspects in the context of their central importance to home economic related fields.

II. Notes on the concept "Everyday Life"

The pleasure and the pain of Home Economics

Corresponding Author: Ingrid-Ute Leonhäuser, Centre of International Development and Environmental Research,
Justus-Liebig-University Giessen/Germany Senckenbergstrasse 3, 35390 Giessen
Tel.: 0049-641-99-3908-0/-1E-mail: Ingrid-Ute.Leonhaeuser@ernaehrung.uni-giessen.de

Studies today in its recent manifestation derive from attempts to analyse the fuzziness of its boundaries: not only economy, not quite sociology, nor social history, nor political sciences, nor anthropology, nor even ethnography yet drawing upon all these disciplines, Home Economics Studies at the onset of the 21st century presents itself worldwide as an extremely heterogeneous field of studies and theoretical models.

Whereas in the early years of the development of the discipline its scientific representatives belonged to the micro- and socio-economic research, today the plurality of approaches means a relaxing of more rigidly defined boundaries and methodologies.

The topic of this paper, “women’s role in the context of everyday life”, offers an example of that tendency towards plurality. “Everyday life” is notoriously difficult to theorize. Making an attempt to define what does everyday life mean it provides a perfect example of the pain of trying to determine exactly what our object might be.

Ebel (1999) spoke about people’s routine experiences concerning family, workplace, religion, and the media. Based on the publication of the English Social Scientist Andrew J. Weigert (1981) everyday life means the “socially constructed reality” stretched out between self and society (Ebel, 1999, p.123).

Considering the development of the concept of everyday life under the influences of the French Sociologist Pierre Bourdieu and German scientific representatives of Home Economics in Germany (von Schweitzer, 1993, Thiele-Wittig 1992) have worked out theories and models of private households to visualise towards society their

relevance, functions and competencies to manage daily life (reproduction, regeneration and care of individuals and household members). One of the main focus are women’s everyday lives. As several studies show, women’s everyday life transcends the traditional division of the every day in work and leisure and calls for a re-evaluation of what has been considered in former times as private, not heroic, uneventful, boring and insignificant (Bassnett, Ecker, Editorial, 1999).

III. From “Women in Development” to “Mainstream Gender” in Europe

In contrast to the more or less traditional concept of ‘women in development’ (WID), which was developed either by international agencies or western living models, the empowerment approach was established. It was a result of women’s movement and groups of the South and at the end of the worldwide women decade 1985 it expressed an implementation of national and international women networks (Braig, 1999, Leonhauser, 2002). The concept discussed in the late ninety is the so called mainstream gender. Its idea is targeted on the political area, and not on special projects of women.

1. Gender

The gender aspect was introduced most recently in a new concept since the World Conference on Women in 1995 in Beijing. This new concept differs from the common one, since it focuses on equality among genders and elimination of

women's subordination. The objective is not only to change the women's situation, but also to change the relation between genders, which means that women and men are encouraged to participate equally in the process of development in their societies.

proposals, plans and programmes in general and in sectoral policy must also thus include a separate analysis of the effects on both genders of the decisions planned before those decisions are finalized" (Schunter-Kleeman, 1999, in Woodward, A. E., 2001, p.7).

2. Mainstreaming Gender

By the European Parliament "Mainstreaming means that the promotion of equal rights for both genders is clearly seen to be integrated into all political fields and programmes at all administrative levels. The preparation of all

IV. From "Women in Development" to "Mainstreaming Gender" in Germany

Since unification of the eastern and the western part in 1990 Germany <Figure 1> has a total



<Figure 1> Germany 2000

population of 82.2 million with 42.1 million women and 40.1 million men. Women thus represent a slight majority within the population.

Among young people, the distribution of men and women is likewise nearly equal: there were roughly 8.2 million boys and young men up to age 18, as compared to 7.7 million girls and young women. Equal rights for women and men are guaranteed in Article 3 Para. 2 of the constitution as a basic right. The active promotion of women is particularly served by the obligation of the state to enforce real equal rights between women and men.

Since the last three years the Federal Republic of Germany is implementing a gender mainstreaming policy step by step:

In 2000 the German government started with the programme "Modern State - Modern Administration" which is focused on gender mainstreaming as the main idea. It means that the equality of women and men has to be realised in all political and administrative activities (FRG, 2002).

There are three effective and proofed categories of political instruments which try to initiate gender mainstreaming in our society:

- (1) analytical instruments like gender oriented statistics, check lists, examinations of equality measures;
- (2) educational and vocational instruments, e. g. schoolings and gender trainees;
- (3) consulting instruments for groups of policy makers and decision makers.

These instruments are very important to sensitise the different societal groups and to bring them to translate the gender mainstreaming idea into public policy and to transform it in everyday life.

By the following two examples of women and

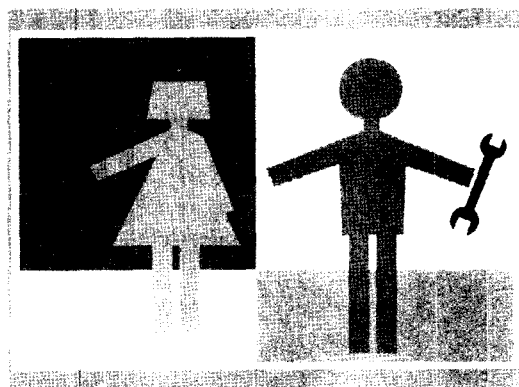
men in real everyday-life in Germany <Fig. 2, Fig. 3> the basic necessity to put into practise such measurements will be shown.

Example 1: women and men in everyday-life focussed on 'career choice' and its consequences:

<Figure 2> career choice and choice of employment

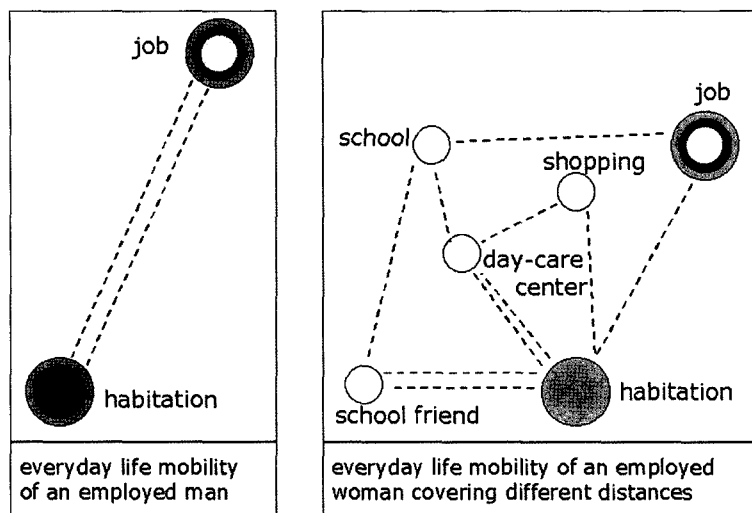
Today girls and boys have approximately the same school-graduation and much the same access to all forms of job training. But still there is a major difference concerning the career choice. Although there are over 400 professions in Germany, most girls decide between 10 jobs, which are in particular nurses, physician assistants, clerks, retail saleswomen and hairdressers. As a matter of course boys naturally choose between a wide spectrum of jobs, but they prefer industrial or technical occupations.

Another gender-related process is the choice of studies at universities. Young women prefer academics such as languages, pedagogies and



<Figure 2> Women and men in everyday-life. Example: career choice and its consequences

Source: Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen u. Jugend (Ed.): Gender Mainstreaming. Was ist das? Berlin, 2002



<Figure 3> Women and men in everyday-life. Example: mobility

Source: Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen u. Jugend (Ed.): Gender Mainstreaming. Was ist das? Berlin, 2002

psychology; as young men rather choose technical or natural sciences.

This form of career choice has a lot of consequences, especially on employment opportunities, income and on the social prestige.

It might be the reason for living in poor conditions, as the occupations, women choose, are often less lucrative than the jobs men practice, women rarely reach senior positions and are often willing to shorten their professional life for the benefit of their families.

Example 2: women and men in everyday-life focussed on 'mobility':

Women and men have a different form of mobility. Women rarely have a car for their everyday usage and the public transportation system is primarily used by women. At the same time they are - because the gender-related role-allocation is still prevalent - in charge of the coordination of all family activities. The outcomes

of this are special gender-related needs and demands, for example on the public transportation system.

The different behaviour in mobility is clarified in the chart: men normally move exclusively between their work place and their residence; whereas women have to head for many places in varying times: the kindergarten, the school, shops, physicians, recreational facilities, the house and as the case may be the work place.

V. Examples of Everyday Life Situations in Europe and in Germany

To describe some selected everyday life situations in Europe and Germany it will be argued with data which are based on a report of the European Commission. This report is a statistical

portrait of the similarities and differences between women and men in Europe at various stages of their lives (European Communities 2002, a). Recently it is not comprehensive in the sense of attempting to cover all aspects of the lives of women independently of men, because there is a lack of statistics and more specifically a lack of statistics by sex across the EU. In former times they are not regarded as being important. In some EU Member States, where the data are both limited and not broken down by sex, some attempt has been made indirectly by using the household budget data. Promoted by the gender-policy of the European Commission it should be a matter to distinguish between women and men in all social statistics. But “despite significant improvement over recent years, it is still the case that some series

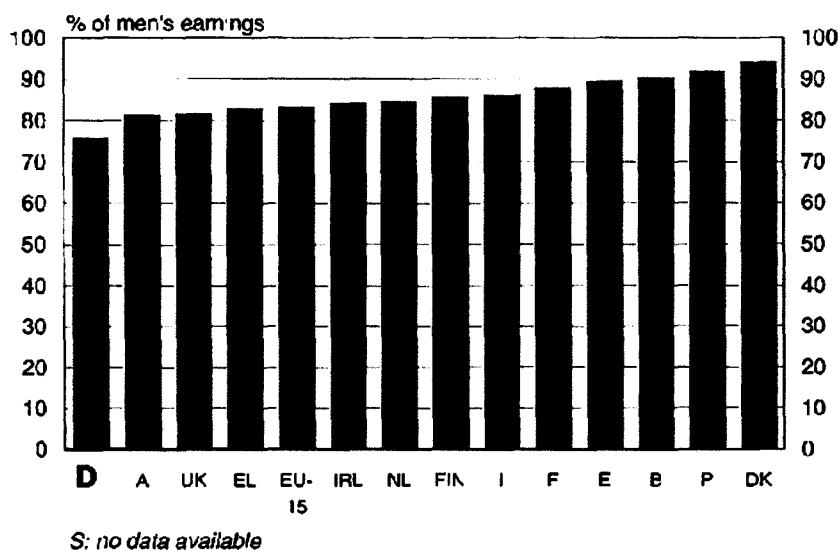
are published without being so divided” (European Communities 2002, a, p. 5).

The following data cover the fifteen EU Member States. They do not cover the countries which are candidates for EU accession, e.g. the Eastern European States like Russia or the Baltic Nations. The following data allow to compare some aspects of everyday life of women in Germany in comparison with those of other single European countries or with the aggregate figure of the European Union.

1. Earnings of Women and Men

In the European Union as well as in other countries of the world women on average earn less than men do <Table 1>.

<Table 1> Average gross hourly earnings of women aged 20 and over in full-time employment relative to men aged 20 and over, 1998



Source: EC (Ed.): The life of women and men in Europe. A statistical portrait. Data 1980-2000. Eurostat, Luxembourg, 2002, S. 91

The average hourly earnings of full-time working women (above the age of 20) in 1998 lay 17% below the average earnings of full-time working men. The extent of the difference varied between Member States, but it was substantial in most of the countries.

Only in Belgium, Portugal and Denmark the average earnings of women were less than 10% below those of men -but in Belgium and Portugal only marginal- and in Austria and the UK they were about 19% below the average earnings of men.

Germany presents the tailight of the States of the European Union with average hourly earnings of women lying 24% below those of men.

A much larger proportion of women are located at the bottom end of the wage distribution than at

the top end <Table 2>.

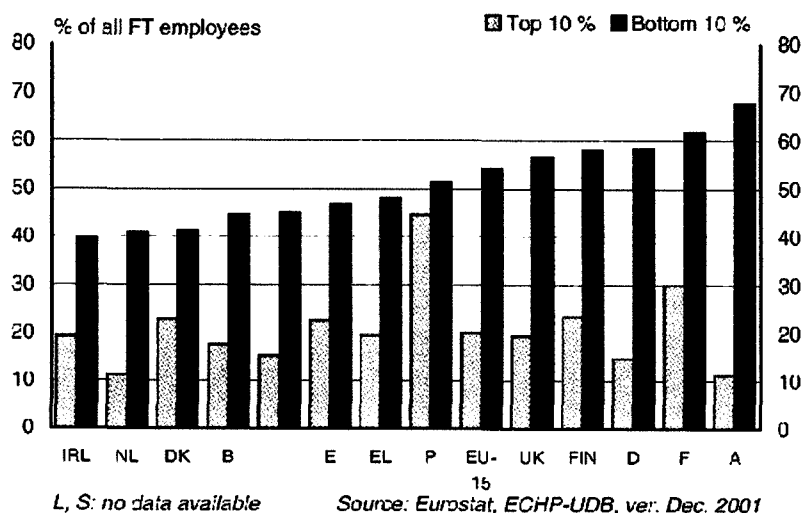
In the European Union women on average made up only 20% of the top 10% of full time employees with the highest hourly earnings, as opposed to just under 40% of all full-time employees. But in opposition to this fact women made up some 54% of the bottom 10% of employees with the lowest hourly earnings.

In countries, where women's earnings on average are well below those of men, this difference is more explicit.

In Austria, women represented only 11% of the top 10% of wage earners, but 67% of the bottom 10%; while in Germany women made up 15% of the top 10% of hourly earnings contrary to 59% of the bottom 10%.

The smallest difference in the European Union

<Table 2> Women aged 20 and over as a share of full-time employees in the top and bottom 10 % hourly wage-earners, 1998



Source: EC (Ed.): The life of women and men in Europe. A statistical portrait. Data 1980-2000. Eurostat, Luxembourg, 2002, S. 92

appears in Portugal, where women represent 45% of the top 10% end and 51% of the bottom 10% end.

2. Reconciling Work and Family Life

It is a prevalent problem for women to arrange family life and working career, because the gender-related role-allocation is still an issue. In every state of the European Union women spend more time looking after children than men do <Table 3>.

1998 more than 80% of women (of the age-group 20 to 49 years) with young children spent time caring on a daily basis. In Germany, Greece, Denmark and the Netherlands the percentage was even higher, with over 90% and in France lower with fewer than 70%. Especially in the southern Member States - Greece, Spain and Portugal- the

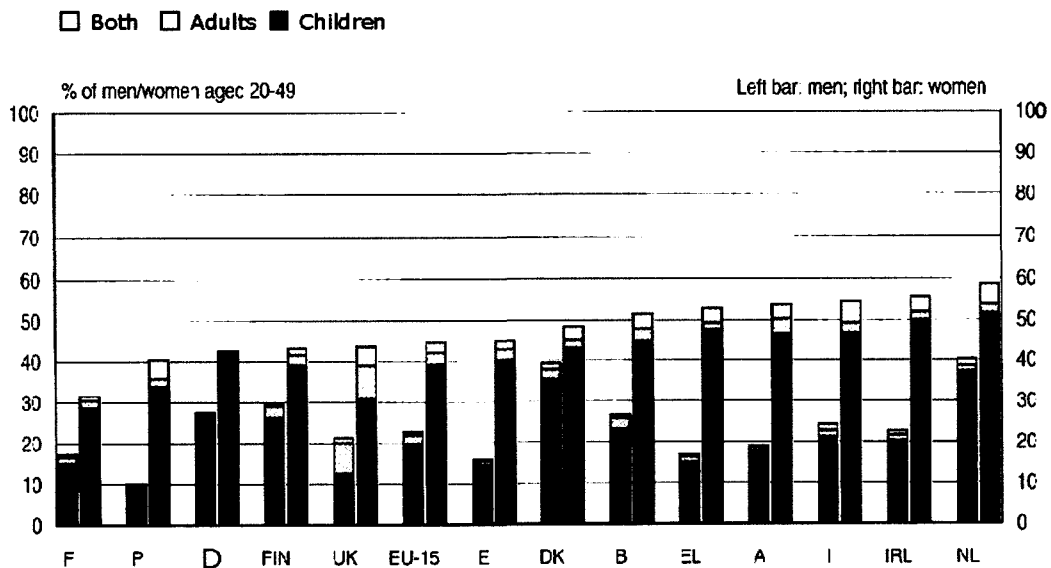
proportion of women looking after children was over twice that of men, as in northern States - Denmark, Finland and the Netherlands - men were involved in this part of family life to a higher percentage, the proportion was under 30 % higher.

Not only are many more women than men involved in looking after children in all countries of the European Union, they also spend more time doing so.

Women, who are involved in looking after children, are significantly less engaged in business life, as for men caring doesn't make a difference, whether they are employed or not. This is a fact for all Member States of the European Union <Table 4>.

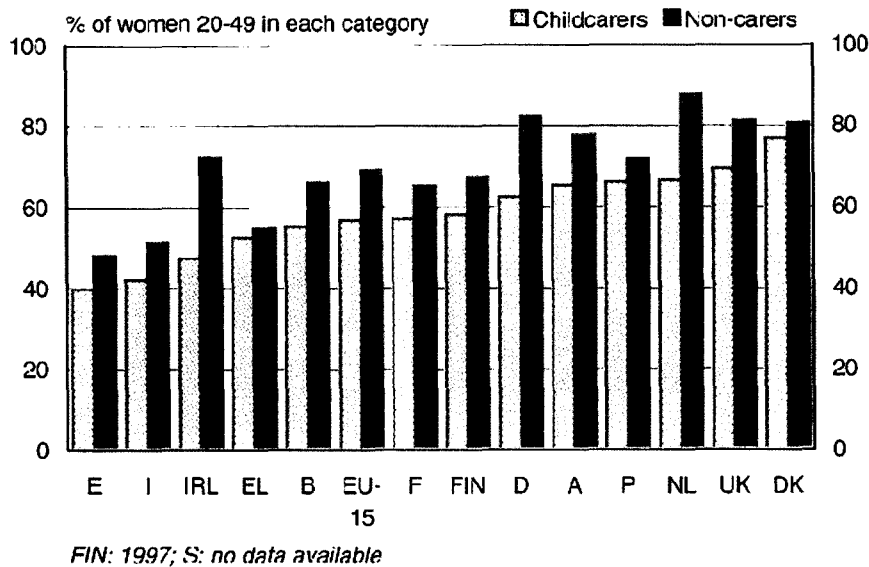
An average of 57% of women aged 20-49, who were looking after children, were in employment in the year 1998, whereas 69% of women, who were not caring, took part in working life.

<Table 3> Men and women aged 20 - 49 spending time caring, 1998



Source: EC (Ed.): The life of women and men in Europe. A statistical portrait. Data 1980-2000. Eurostat, Luxembourg, 2002, S. 55

<Table 4> Employment of women aged 20-49 looking after children and not doing so, 1998



Source: EC (Ed.): The life of women and men in Europe. A statistical portrait. Data 1980-2000. Eurostat, Luxembourg, 2002, S. 59

Only in Denmark and Greece the difference in the employment rate between carers and non-carers was less than five percentage points. But in Denmark, about 80% of women took part in business life in 1998, as in Greece; the overall percentage was around 55%. In the southern Member States of the European Union the gap between the employment rates of those caring for children and those not doing so was relatively small, but you have to take into consideration that only a small number of women are engaged in business life in these countries, regardless their family situation.

In Germany and the Netherlands the gap between employed women caring or not was the widest in the European Union, with a difference of around 20 percentage points and an overall employment rate of women above the EU average.

Comprising the graph shows that the likelihood of being in employment is greater for women who don't have to care for children than for those who have to.

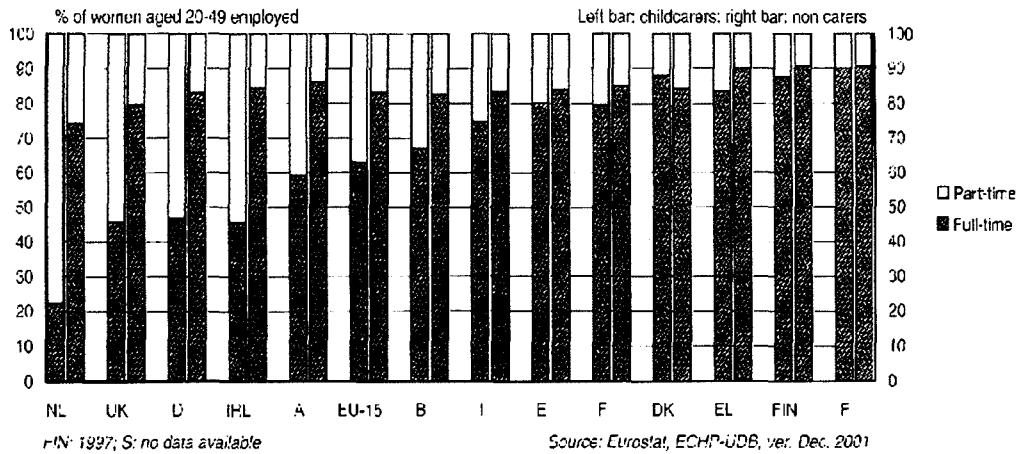
Looking after children does not only influence if someone is working or not, it also has an impact on the time a person is working. Women mostly coordinate caring and business life by working in part-time jobs in many countries of the European Union <Table 5>.

In 1998, an average of 37% of women (age group 20-49 years), who combined working and caring, worked part-time, which means that they were working less than 30 hours a week.

Contrary to this women of the same age group who were not looking after children were engaged in part-time-jobs only to a percentage of 17%.

An exception is Denmark with more women

<Table 5> Women aged 20-49 in employment working part-time and full-time, 1998



Source: EC (Ed.): The life of women and men in Europe. A statistical portrait. Data 1980-2000. Eurostat, Luxembourg, 2002, S. 64

working part time who are not caring than women who had to look after children.

In Finland, Spain and Portugal the difference was relatively small, but in the other countries of the European Union there was a large distinction.

In the Netherlands the gap between women caring for children and working part-time and those not caring for children and working part-time was about 50 percentage points. And in Germany, Ireland and the UK it was about 35 percentage points. So women in the European Union are more likely to have shorter working weeks if they look after a child than women who do not.

Summarising the situation of women in Germany briefly in comparison with men, they are subjects to discrepancies in education, economic activities, distribution of paid and unpaid work, social security benefits, and political participation. In comparison to the Scandinavian countries, you can imagine, how difficult it is for women in Germany to decide in which way they will create

their lives in the area of conflict of family and work.

3. Causes

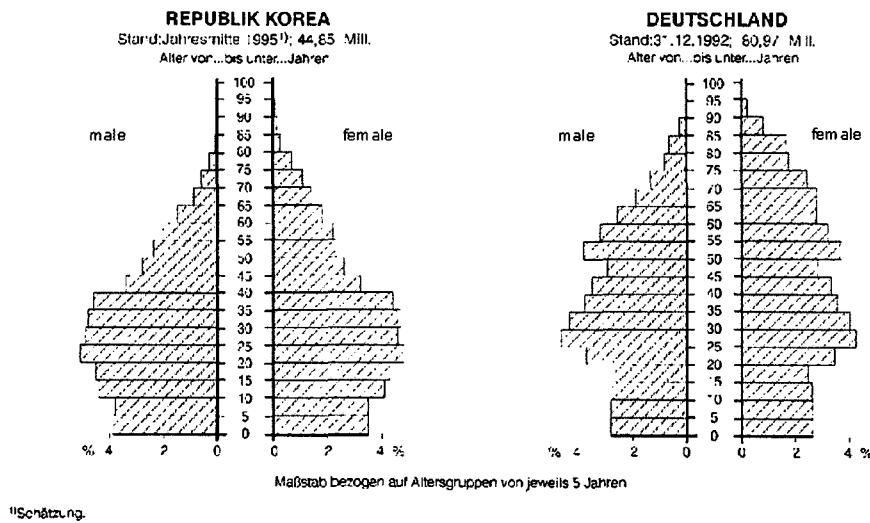
This conflict seems to be documented in a variety of different trends within the western societies and the modifications of everyday life:

At the moment birth rates in Europe are not just low, they are very low. All of the countries in Europe have fertility rates below the so called replacement level of 2.1 children per women. A majority of these countries even has fertility levels of 1.5 or below. There, one generation will only be replaced by two-thirds as many people or less (Lutz 2000). Together with increases in life expectancy, the low fertility rates cause a significant ageing of the population age structure.

The next figure <Figure 4> shows the demographical development of the German population:

As you can see the age pyramid of Germany is

Age groups in % of the population



<Figure 4> Age structure of the population

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt (Ed.): Länderbericht Korea, Republik. Verlag Metzler-Poeschel, Stuttgart, 1995, S. 31

not any more onion shaped like this one of the Republic of Korea. The age structure of the German population seems to be a “tousled conifer”, the experts of the demography realise. In both countries this process is an adaptation to the age structure of high-industrialised countries. In Germany the trend of the excess of age started earlier and is more advanced with a still higher proportion of senior citizens (over the age of 60), few childbirths and therefore a decreasing proportion of the younger population (Statistisches Bundesamt 1995).

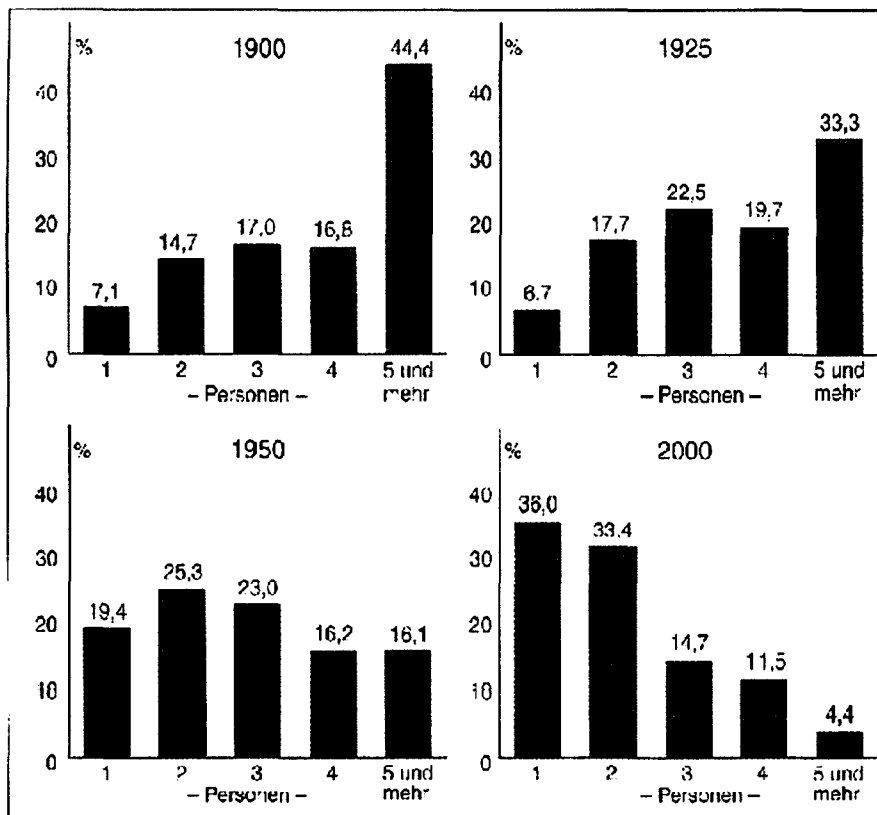
To make additional remarks with regard to Europe the biggest age cohorts are those born in the 1960s. Roughly speaking, per five year age group, the number of people born in the 1960s is about 50 % bigger than those born in the 1980s and 1990s. The small recent age cohorts are

primarily a consequence of a drop of fertility rates between 1965 and 1975 (European Commission 2002, b).

In contrast to Ireland (30 %), followed by France (25,4 %) and the United Kingdom (25,1 %) Germany shows by 21 % one of the smallest proportions of people under 20 years of age. The proportion of people aged 60 or over in Germany is 24 % (European Commission 2002, p. 52).

The proportion of those persons in Germany who are able to earn one's living is 56 % (Datenreport 2002, p. 36). During the last fifty years the cohort of the 60 year old persons in Germany has been increasing and the cohort of those aged under 20 becomes smaller and smaller (Datenreport, p. 35)

Beside demographical changes and the reduced birth rates there is another tendency which is called



<Figure 5> Sizes of households (in % of the households)

Source: Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung (Ed.): Datenreport 2002. In Zusammenarbeit mit WZB und ZUMA, S. 39

by representatives of the Sociology “the trend towards individualisation”. It seems to be a phenomenon of the process of modernisation. It is characterised by a transition from ‘community’ (in terms of living together) to ‘society’. “While ‘community’ to a living arrangement that is lasting and complete under a relatively stable structure, ‘society’ means a mere proximity of persons who are independent of one another and who live within relatively open structures” (Lutz 2000, p.58).

With respect to the future of the family and to households with more than two or three

generations living in it, sociologists assume that there is little reason that the societal institution ‘family’ will survive as the mainstream model for future living patterns.

The following figure “sizes of households” <Figure 5> documents the basic and radical change in our society in the last century:

In Germany, recently more than 38,1 million households exist. In 2000 the average household-size in Germany was 2,2 persons per household. But compared to the year 1900 you can see a total reverse in the household-structure (Datenreport

2002).

At the size of the households in Germany the change from extended families to small families becomes apparent and associated with this trend are a decrease in household-size and an increase in the number of households.

The number of large households with 5 persons or more decreased from nearly half of the households (44,4 %) in 1900 to only 5,5 % in the year 2000. The number of single-person households increased from 7 % in 1900 over 19,4 % in 1950 to 36 % in 2000. That means that nearly every sixth person in Germany is living alone, especially in large cities.

One of the basic causes of this trend is the change from an agricultural to an industrial society.

The fact that in our days the proportion of single households is 36 % and this one of 2-person households is more than 33 % means one indicator to describe the socio-economical changes of households in the last decades of Germany. The demographical experts discuss about a 'second demographic transition'. It characterises a new phase of demographic behaviour that expresses itself through lower marriage intentions (purposes), higher instability of partners, couples and families, an extramarital fertility (unmarried and single parents), and lower total fertility (Lutz 2002).

Another aspect is, that men and women are increasingly reluctant to make decisions that have long-term consequences and constrain their future opportunities to create everyday life. The decision to have a child predetermines many choices especially of young women who really want to be employed or to start with a vocational or scientific career. If the trend of social and spatial mobility

becomes greater, this might mean more difficulties and more complexity for men and women to manage their common household ("living apart together") and to dare to become parents.

Although there is little empirical basis to evaluate the validity of these hypotheses for the future, they seem to be powerful arguments and explanations for recent trends, and finally they seem to be real challenges for policy makers to pay attention to the living conditions which make it possible for women and men to combine both: family life and working.

VI. Measures and activities in Germany

First steps have been done by the German government in the 1990s. As you have seen by the statistical data the reconcilability of family and career is an important issue for many people today, but particularly still for women and mothers. Being well educated - more and more women today are deciding to go to university - they no longer want to be forced to choose between an occupation or family and children.

Thus the improvement of the reconcilability of family and career is a current area of activity of the government and the economy as well as a future task of high priority in the Federal Republic (Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth 1998).

Nearly ten years ago the Federal Government has taken important legal measures which make it possible to harmonise occupational and family responsibilities in a better way. Examples in this

context are the legal claim to a kindergarten place and the child-raising leave. This makes it easier for parents to interrupt their work or cut it down to part-time (up to 19 hours per week) for a specific period of time, in order to dedicate their time to their child. Only gainfully employed parents have a claim to child-raising leave. They can decide who of them wants to care for it, after the maternity protection period has ended. Even if one parent is unemployed or currently in vocational training, the other parent can still take child-raising leave. It can be taken for a maximum of up to the end of child's age three.

Kindergarten places were available (1994) on the average for 85.2 % of children between the ages of 3 and 6 in the old Federal States (Bundeslander) and for all children in this age group in the new Federal States (after unification). But for most of the parents especially for mothers the operating hours of kindergartens are still primarily based on a schedule, which is not so much compatible with the working hours of the parents. This is particularly difficult for gainfully employed single mothers and fathers. Therefore there is a need for day-care centres - not only for school aged children but also for the younger ones. So in 1990 places were available in public and publicly supported child-care institutions for only 2 % of all children under three in western Germany (eastern Germany: 50 %), in contrast to 48 % (1993) of all three years old children in Denmark (Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth 1999).

The concept of day-care mothers offers another option. Day-care mothers who care for the small children of employed parents, have also become a

permanent element within the framework of family policy.

As we know legal regulations are not the only way to improve the reconcilability of family and career. For example, flexible, family-friendly working hours and more family-friendly part-time jobs can only be created by the companies and agencies themselves. In many companies today adequate activities already exist. They are the results of collective wage agreements. But they are not often reproduced because they are not widely known. For this reason, the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs published a "Pro-family company programmes" manual in 1996, which documents positive examples from company practice and also points out relevant regulations in collective wage agreements and shop agreements (Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth 1998, p. 67).

Beside the described measures meanwhile there are lot of other campaigns initiated by the government, big companies and the public. But in this context only main milestones of the last decade in Germany could be presented in a nutshell.

VII. Closing Remarks

Finally there are some aspects, which seem to be very important for the further discussion of women's and men's everyday life in the context of a gender equal society, especially in Germany:

For us as home economists, there is the challenge to develop an integrated concept of households, paid and unpaid employment, and

gender. So far, the unity of household has been the subject of an ongoing debate in the field of household studies and household research. There had been a lot of discourses, research and political debates focussed on the question what can we do to visualise the daily work women are doing in their home. Based on these results and knowledge the policy-makers have initiated the above mentioned measures. As in the post-war period, women's role has changed more dramatically than men's. The more important task is now to analyse the different roles, positions, and outcomes of both men and women. In this context a conceptualisation of households of the American economist Sen (1990) is very interesting. He speaks about households as institutions "as experiencing cooperative conflict" (Niehof 1999, p.109), in which there is also co-operation generated by joint livelihood and living together.

Because within households conflicting basic needs and interests as well as conflicting perceptions of the interests are between women and men, we have to analyse the different sex- and gender-related perceptions. For us as home economists it is relevant to apply such a gender perspective to the functioning of household and families. Such approach implies looking at intra-household power differentiation and division of labour in coping with everyday life along gender line (Niehof 1999).

Beside the gender-oriented household research approach another point is very important with regard to socialising boys and girls in Germany: co-educational programmes have to be established to enable them to identify their individual and collective needs and to satisfy them in the context

of a so called gender-related co-operation. Recently the Federal Ministry of Education and the Federal Ministry of Consumer Protection, Nutrition and Agriculture is starting with administrative reforms to implement the new elementary school subject: Consumer and Nutrition Education.

■ References

- Bassnett, S., Ecker, G. (1999). Editorial. *Journal for the Study of British Cultures (JSBC)*, 2, 119-121.
- Braig, M. (1999). *Fraueninteressen in Entwicklungstheorie und -politik. Von Women in Development zu Mainstreaming Gender*. In R. E. Thiel (Ed.), *Neue Ansätze zur Entwicklungstheorie*. Deutsche Stiftung für internationale Entwicklung (DSE) (pp.110-121). Bonn.
- Ebel, K. (1999). *Everyday Life Underground: Aspects of Culture on London's Tube*. *Journal for the Study of British Cultures (JSBC)*, 2, 123-137.
- European Commission (2002, a). *The life of women and men in Europe: A statistical portrait*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- European Commission (2002, b). *European social statistics: Demography*. Luxembourg: Office for the Official Publications of the European Communities.
- Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), (2002). *Gender Mainstreaming. Was ist das? (What does it mean?)*. Edited by Federal Ministry of Family, Seniors, Women and Youth.

- Bonn.
Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (Ed.) (1998). *Women in the Federal Republic of Germany*. Bonn
- Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (Ed.) (1999). *Families in Germany - a statistical view*. Bonn
- Leonhauser, I. U. (2002), (Ed.). *Women in the Context of International Development and Co-operation. Review and Perspectives*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH.
- Lutz, W. (2000). *Determinants of low fertility and ageing prospects for Europe*. In European Commission - Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs (Ed.). *Family issues between gender and generations*. Luxembourg: Office for the Official Publications of the European Communities (pp.49-66).
- Niehof, A. (1999). *The Gendered Nature Of Household Food Security*. In A. Niehof, P. Terpstra (Eds.), *Households in an interdisciplinary perspective*. Liber amicorum for Antine Hardon-Baars. Wageningen: Agricultural University Wageningen (pp. 105-119).
- Schunter-Kleeman, S. (1999). *Mainstreaming of an Innovative Approach of the EU Policy of Equal Opportunities*. Discussion Papers, Wissenschaftliche Einheit Frauenstudien und Frauenforschung, 3, Hochschule Bremen. (Comments of the EP Committee for Social Affairs on the Commission's Communication Incorporating equal opportunities-mainstreaming 24 July 1996, appendix to Kokkola report of EP, 18 July 1997, p. 20), cited in Schunter-Kleeman 1999).
- Sen, A. (1990). 'Gender and Co-operative Conflicts'. In I. Tinker (Ed.). *Persistent Inequalities*. Oxford: Oxford University Press (pp. 123-150).
- Schweitzer, R. v. (1993). *The Personal and Social Theory of Family Household Systems*. In R. von Schweitzer (Ed.). *Cross Cultural Approaches to Home Management*. Frankfurt am Main: Campus Verlag (pp.101-126).
- Statistisches Bundesamt (2002). *Datenreport 2002*. In Zusammenarbeit mit WZB und ZUMA. Bonn: Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung.
- Statistisches Bundesamt (1995). *Korea, Republik. Landerbericht*. Stuttgart: Metzler-Poeschel.
- Thiele-Wittig, M. (1992). *Interfaces Between Families and the Institutional Environment*. In N. B. Leidenfrost (Ed.). *FAMILIES IN TRANSITION*. United States of America: Mattie Graphics Corp., Upper Marlboro, MD 20772 (pp. 169-175).
- Woodward, A. E. (2001). *Gender Mainstreaming in European Policy: Innovation or Deception?* Discussion Paper FS I 01 - 103. Social Science Research Center Berlin: Berlin.
- Weigert, A. J. (1981). *Sociology of Everyday Life*. New York - London: Longman.

Received February 1, 2003

Accepted March 20, 2003