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### Intimate Citizenship: Statistical and Contextual Background

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WP6

Working Paper No.3

Intimate Citizenship:  
Statistical and Contextual Background

April 2010

**Gendered Citizenship in Multicultural Europe:  
the impact of contemporary women's movements**

**FEMCIT**

**Work Package 6**

**Intimate Citizenship**

**STRAND 3a Report  
Intimate Citizenship:  
Statistical and Contextual Background**

**(2010)**

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## **Introduction**

Sasha Roseneil

### **The FEMCIT Project**

The FEMCIT project aims to provide a new critical, multi-dimensional understanding of contemporary gendered citizenship in the context of a multicultural and changing Europe, and to evaluate the impact of contemporary women's movements on gendered citizenship. Our research focuses on six dimensions of citizenship: political, social, economic, ethnic/religious, bodily/sexual, and intimate citizenship. The scientific work of FEMCIT is delivered through work packages which address these six inter-related dimensions of citizenship.

This report has been produced by Work Package 6 of FEMCIT, which focuses on *Intimate Citizenship in Multicultural Europe: women's movements, cultural diversity, personal lives and policy*.

### **The Concept of Intimate Citizenship**

We are using the concept of “intimate citizenship” normatively to refer to “the freedom and ability to construct and live selfhood and a wide range of close relationships – sexual/love relationships, friendships, parental and kin relations – safely, securely and according to personal choice, in their dynamic, changing forms, with respect, recognition and support from state and civil society” (Roseneil, 2010:82). Intimate citizenship involves rights, responsibilities and capacities – so we are interested in both the rights and responsibilities of intimate partners/ parties, and the (relational-) autonomy of intimate subjects.

For the purposes of this research, we define *intimate life* primarily in terms of close relationships between adults, both sexual and non-sexual, and the relationship that an individual has with her/himself. We are also concerned, although less centrally, with parent-child relationships (Roseneil, 2008).

The project's conceptualization of intimate citizenship draws particularly on the work of Ken Plummer (1995; 2001; 2003), who suggests that the concept is “wider and more inclusive” (Plummer, 2003:65) than that of sexual citizenship (as developed, for instance, by Evans, 1993; Weeks, 1998; Bell and Binnie, 2000; Richardson, 2000). According to Plummer, the “intimate citizenship project” looks at “the decisions people have to make over the control (or not) over one's body, feelings, relationships; access (or not) to representations, relationships,

public spaces, etc; and socially grounded choices (or not) about identities, gender experience; erotic experiences” (1995:151).

## **The Focus of WP6**

The focus of WP6 is on transformations in intimate citizenship across Europe in the context of increasing cultural diversity. Social theorists argue that we are living through a period of intense and profound social change in the sphere of intimacy, and identify the post 1960s women’s movement as a key driver of this change (Castells, 1997; Giddens, 1992; Beck and Beck-Gernsheim, 1995, Weeks, 2007). Processes of individualization and de-traditionalization, and increased self-reflexivity, fundamentally linked to feminist political projects, are seen as opening up new possibilities and expectations in personal relationships, and as radically transforming gender relations and family life.

Over the past thirty years, across European populations as a whole, more and more people are spending longer periods of their lives outside the heterosexual, co-resident nuclear family unit (which became the dominant model during the twentieth century), as a result of the dramatic rise in divorce rates, the increase in the number of births outside marriage, the rise in the proportion of children being brought up by a lone parent, the growing proportion of households that are composed of one person, and the climbing proportion of women who are not having children (Roseneil and Budgeon, 2004). The change in the pace of migrations in Europe, which is producing increasing cultural diversity, is also challenging the hegemony of the modern western European nuclear family, as different models of intimate and family life prevail in different ethnic groups (e.g. Reynolds, 2005; Mand, 2006a and b). As a result of all of these changes, the heterosexual couple, and particularly the married, co-resident heterosexual couple with children, no longer occupies the centre-ground of European society, and cannot be taken for granted as its basic unit (Roseneil, 2000, 2002). The male-breadwinner/ female-homemaker model on which post second war citizenship was based is, therefore, no longer applicable (Roseneil and Budgeon, 2004; Roseneil, 2006), and new conceptualizations of “intimate citizenship” (Plummer, 1995; 2001; 2003) and new welfare settlements are being constructed to respond to the increasing diversity and non-conventionality of the intimate lives of European citizens (see Roseneil, 2008). These transformations have major implications for the EU in relation to future welfare policies, the legal regulation of personal life, “care regimes” and the labour market.

Whilst theorists have linked the transformation of intimate life to the impact of women's movements, there is very little empirical research which systematically examines the lived experience of intimacy in the wake of the cultural gender revolutions unleashed by second wave feminism.<sup>1</sup> In particular, there is no comparative research which focuses on differences and similarities between European nation-states in this regard. It is clear from existing census and survey data that changes in the organization of personal life are not uniform across Europe, and that they are inflected by national and regional cultures, and vary between religious, ethnic and "lifestyle" groups. The specificity of experiences of those from minority cultural and religious backgrounds has not been subjected to systematic investigation.

Moreover, the significant historical agency and impact granted to women's movements and feminists by Giddens, Castells, and Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (something which feminist theorists concerned with the constitution and continuities of gender oppression and difference have been less ready to do, have been asserted and assumed; the processes by which this impact might have taken place have not been explicitly investigated. In addition, the north-western European/ north American assumptions that undergird these arguments about the influence of 'second wave feminism' should be interrogated. Women's movements and feminism have taken quite different form, across the east-west, communist-capitalist, north-south, democratic-fascist, secular-religious divisions which have characterized European nation-states and structured the map of the continent. The histories and nature of the claims and demands of women's movements in different national contexts need to be grasped, in order for their relationship to changing modes of legal, policy and social regulation of intimate life to be assessed, and for their cultural impact on the everyday lived realities of intimate life to be traced.

### ***Objectives of WP6***

1. To investigate across four contrasting European nation-states the experiences of transformation in intimate life of those most distanced from the male-breadwinner model i.e. those living outside conventional families
2. To analyze the relationship between the transformation of intimate life and the demands and actions of movements for gender and sexual equality and change;

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<sup>1</sup> One project which does this is the UK based ESRC Research Group for the Study of Care, Values and the Future of Welfare ([www.leeds.ac.uk/cava](http://www.leeds.ac.uk/cava)). Roseneil was one of the grantholders of this project.

3. To examine cultural diversity in relation to the transformation of intimate life, with reference to religion, “race”/ ethnicity, lifestyle, sexuality, nation and region
4. To analyze the historical, cultural and policy background of transformations in intimate life in four contrasting European nation-states
5. To develop an analysis of the implications of these transformations for social policy in the EU, with recommendations for policy makers and legislators

### ***Research Design and Methods***

The project has a multi-disciplinary three-stranded approach to the understanding of the transformation of intimate citizenship, focusing on its cultural, policy and socio-biographical dimensions, and encompassing both a “top down” and a “bottom up” approach to social change. Each strand of the research is being conducted according to the same methodology in each of the four national contexts:

#### Strand 1: Changing cultural discourses about intimate life (objectives 2, 3)

An historical survey of women’s movement demands and actions in relation to intimate life, and of other social movements’ and NGOs’ demands, actions and responses (e.g. black/ minority ethnic/ anti-racist, men’s, disability, lesbian and gay, pro-family), to map the main shifts in discourses about intimate life

#### Strand 2: Policy contexts and responses to changes in intimate life (objective 5)

1. A comparative policy analysis of how national social policies are being re-framed (or not) in response to changes in intimate life (towards objective 4)
2. European and national level policy recommendations on the basis of the findings of Strand 3 below

#### Strand 3: Intimate lives at the cutting edge of change (objectives 1, 2 and 3)

A qualitative study of intimate life using the biographical-narrative interview method, and focusing on those whose lives might be expected to have been most affected by the cultural shifts set in train by the women’s movement - those living outside conventional familial relations. The sample includes men and women, all of whom are one or more of the following: un-partnered (single); in a non-cohabiting relationship (“living apart together”);



lesbian, gay or in a same-sex relationship; living in shared/ communal housing. The sample includes members of the majority ethnic/ national population in each country, and members of two minoritized/ racialized groups from each country: Bulgaria – Roma and Turkish; Norway – Pakistani and Sami; Portugal – Cape Verdeans and Roma; the UK – Pakistani and Turkish.

### National Research Sites

The research is being conducted out in four contrasting national contexts which differ in terms of contemporary and historical welfare and gender regimes, state/ market relationship, dominant and minority religions and ethnic groups and patterns of im/migration. The four chosen national contexts are Bulgaria, Norway, Portugal and the UK. This provides a post-communist country, a Nordic “woman-friendly” (Hernes, 1987) welfare state, a southern European country, which has relatively recently transitioned from dictatorship to democracy, and a north-western European liberal democratic welfare state.

### **The Report**

This report is the first output from Strand 3 of WP6. It provides an overview of the statistical and contextual background to the empirical work carried out in Strand 3. The focus is on the period with which FEMCIT is primarily concerned –from the emergence of the contemporary women’s movements at the end of the 1960/ early 1970s until the present day. In compiling this report, we have relied primarily on publicly available datasets that offer comparative data on our four countries. We have supplemented this comparative data with data from the individual countries that is not directly comparable cross-nationally. Hence brief overviews of the comparative data are followed by short discussions of national data, where it is available.

The range of issues relating to intimate life and citizenship that we have been able to address in this report has been determined by the available data. There is a lack of data on many issues that we wished to explore comparatively. For instance, there is no readily available data on the four groups that comprised our sample: un-partnered (single) people; people in a non-cohabiting relationship; lesbians, gay men or those in a same-sex relationship; people living in shared/ communal housing. It is clear that statistical data still overwhelmingly focuses on conventional categories of intimate life, and particularly on the heterosexual reproductive family and household. There is also a lack of data on the intimate lives of the minority groups that we have chosen to study.

Working with these constraints, the report is divided into four sections. The first explores statistics relating to the transformation of intimate life across the four countries. The second focuses on changes in women's employment, which we conceptualise as important background for understanding changes in intimate life over recent decades. The third section discusses attitudes to same-sex sexuality and discrimination, drawing on EU data which necessarily excludes Norway, as a non-EU member state. The final section offers an overview of available data on ethnic minority populations in the four countries, with a focus on the minoritized groups that we include in our research. There are also two short appendices, addressing the debate about recent Bulgaria demographic change, and the rapid transformation in attitudes to same-sex sexuality in Portugal.

### **Authorship of the Report**

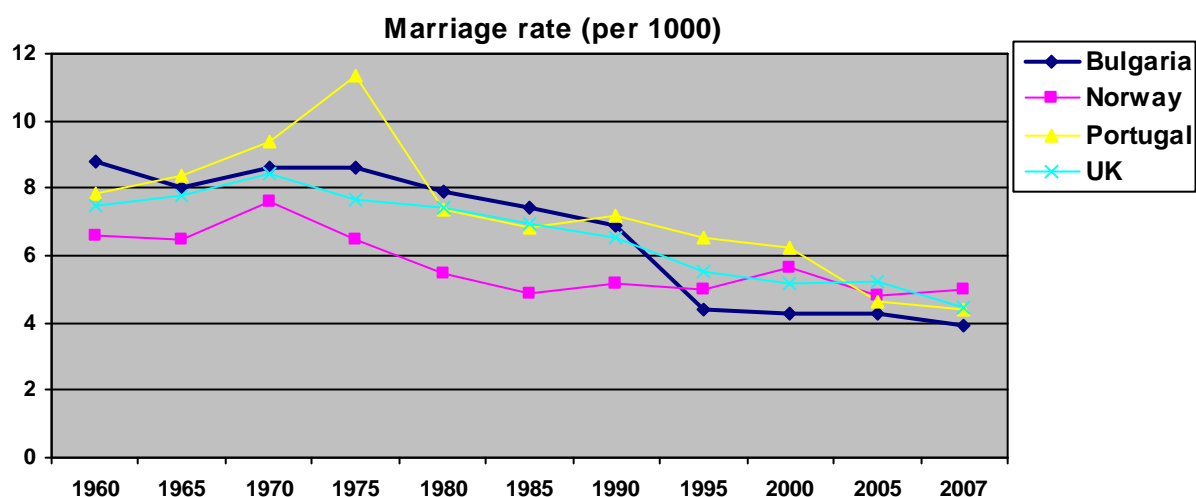
The work package leader and principal investigator of WP6 is Sasha Roseneil, who edited the report. Contributions were made by the country researchers as follows: Bulgaria – Mariya Stoilova; Portugal – Ana Cristina Santos; Norway – Tone Hellesund; United Kingdom – Isabel Crowhurst.

# 1. Transformations in Intimate Life

## 1.1. Marriage Rates

Crude marriage rate						
	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2007
<b>Bulgaria</b>	8.76	8.61	7.87	6.87	4.30	3.87
<b>Norway</b>	6.60	7.58	5.44	5.17	5.65	4.98
<b>Portugal</b>	7.84	9.38	7.39	7.18	6.23	4.37
<b>United Kingdom</b>	7.51	8.46	7.43	6.56	5.19	4.43

Crude marriage rate – marriages per 1000 population  
 Source of data<sup>2</sup>: EUROSTAT statistical database



*Marriage rates have declined significantly over the past five decades in all four countries.*

Norway, which through most of the 20<sup>th</sup> century has had marriage laws which define marriage as a secular pact between two independent and free individuals (Melby, 2000; 2006), began the period (1960-2007) with the lowest marriage rate, but ended it with the highest.

Conversely, Bulgaria began the period with the highest marriage rate and ended it with the lowest. Portugal and the United Kingdom have exchanged places, from having the second highest and second lowest marriage rates respectively, to having the second lowest and second highest respectively.

<sup>2</sup> Sources identified in the tables are also used to produce the graphs, unless stated otherwise.

## **Bulgaria**

There was a slow but steady decline in the marriage rate from the 1960s to the 1980s, except for the years between 1966 and 1970 when there was an increase, which might be linked to the liberalisation of divorce legislation during this period. The next period of decline in the rate of marriage occurred after the collapse of communism, when it fell from 7.1 in 1989 to 3.7 in 2002, its lowest rate in the history of contemporary Bulgaria (NSI, 2006). Despite a small increase since 2002, the rate is well below its 1989 levels, and there was another drop during the last year of available statistics, to 3.9 in 2007.

## **Norway**

Marriage rates have been declining in Norway after a peak of approximately 30000 married couples in 1969. The number of marriages reached a low in the early 1990s when fewer than 20000 couples married. Since then the number of marriages has increased again, and in 2008, 25000 couples were married (SSB, 2008a). In 2007, 20% of all marriages in Norway were between a Norwegian resident and a foreign resident (SSB, 2008c).

## **Portugal**

The steady decline in the marriage rate between 1960 and the present day conceals a significant increase in the 1970s, following the fall of the dictatorship in 1974, which brought about social and legal changes that favoured gender equality and welfare, and made it possible for divorced couples to re-marry.<sup>3</sup> The decline in the marriage rate since 2000 has been 24%.

The rate of first marriage is decreasing steadily (29% less between 2000 and 2005), and by 2005, 19% of marriages were not first marriages. Marriages in which the couple had already lived together increased 42% between 2000 and 2005, and constituted 25% of all marriages in 2005. There was also an increase in marriages where the couple already have children (from this or previous relationships): from 15.6% in 2000 to 26.1% in 2005. According to the Census 2001, 49.6% of people living in Portugal are married.

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<sup>3</sup> In 1975, the *Concordata* was changed so that Catholics could access civil divorce (law-decree n. 187/75, 4<sup>th</sup> April). On 27 May 1975, a new Divorce Law was approved, extending the possibility of divorce to Catholic marriages.

## United Kingdom

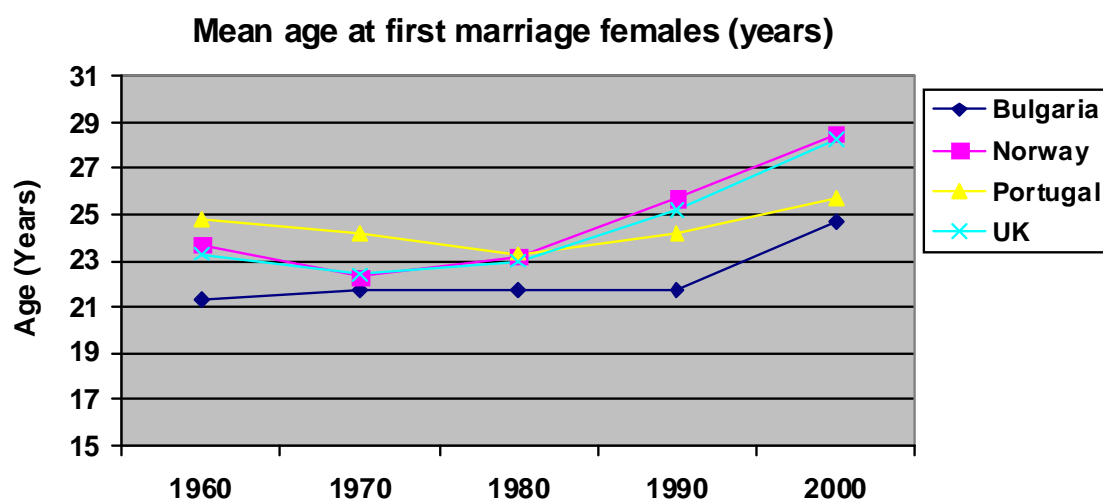
The marriage rate in the UK has declined steadily from a peak of 480,285 marriages in 1972, with the only the exception being an increase between 2002 and 2004 (ONS 2009a). In 2007 in England and Wales marriage rates fell to the lowest level since records began in 1862 (ONS, 2009b).

### 1.2. Age at First Marriage

	Mean age at first marriage				
<b>Bulgaria</b>	<b>1960</b>	<b>1970</b>	<b>1980</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>
Female	21.3	21.7	21.7	21.7	24.7
Male	..	24.4	24.5	24.7	28.1
<b>Norway</b>	<b>1960</b>	<b>1970</b>	<b>1980</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>
Female	23.7	22.3	23.2	25.7	28.5
Male	..	24.8	25.7	28.2	31.1
<b>Portugal</b>	<b>1960</b>	<b>1970</b>	<b>1980</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>
Female	24.8	24.2	23.3	24.2	25.7
Male	..	..	25.4	26.2	27.5
<b>UK</b>	<b>1960</b>	<b>1970</b>	<b>1980</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>
Female	23.3	22.4	23	25.2	28.3
Male	..	..	25.3	27.2	30.4

The *mean age at first marriage* is the weighted average of the different ages (limited at age 50), using as weights the age-specific marriage rates for first marriages only.

Sources: BG, NOR (for 1960) and PT and UK (for 1960-1970) data from Council of Europe (2005); BG and NOR (for 1970-2000) data from United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (2006); PT, UK (for 1980-2000) data from UNECE (2008a);



*Across all four countries, the age at which people marry has increased significantly since 1960, with little change during the 1960s and 1970s, increases in the 1980s (except in Bulgaria), and the sharpest increases during the 1990s.*

Bulgaria had the earliest mean age of first marriage for women in 1960 and in 2000, with an increase of 3.4 years, from 21.3 to 24.7 years. The smallest change has been in Portugal, where the average age of first marriage for women increased by less than a year, from 24.8 to 25.7 years. Norway and the UK have had, and continue to have similar ages of first marriage for women, increasing from 23.7 and 23.3 to 28.5 and 28.3 respectively between 1960 and 2000. The UK has seen the largest increase, of 5 years, followed by Norway, at 4.8 years.

The age gap between men and women at first marriage has been greatest in Bulgaria, rising from 2.8 years in 1960 to 3.4 years in 2000, followed by Norway, where it has risen slightly, from 2.5 years in 1960 to 2.6 years in 2000. In the UK and Portugal, where the age gap has been lower, it has declined slightly, from 2.3 years in 1960 in the UK, to 2.1 years in 2000, and from 2.1 years in Portugal in 1960 to 1.8 years in 2000.

### **Bulgaria**

The mean age of men and women at first marriage remained relatively stable, and low, from the 1960s until the end of 1980s, but has been rising since the fall of communism. In 1989, the average age for a woman to marry was 21.5 years, and 24.7 years for a man, but in less than two decades the average age has risen by more than four years, reaching 25.9 years for women in 2006 and 29.3 years for men (UNICEF, 2007b; NSI, 2007b).

### **Norway**

The average age of first marriage between 1961 and 1965 was 23.4 years for women and 26.4 years for men; by 2007, this had increased to 33.7 for men and 30.8 for women (SSB, 2009b). Between 1906 and 1910 the average ages for marriage were 26.3 for women and 29.8 for men. The age of marriage reached an all time low between 1950 and the late 1960s, when men's average marriage age fell to 26.5 and women's 23.7 (SSB, 2004).

## Portugal

The average age at first marriage has been rising steadily since 1985. In 2005, it was 31.3 for men and 28.9 for women.<sup>4</sup>

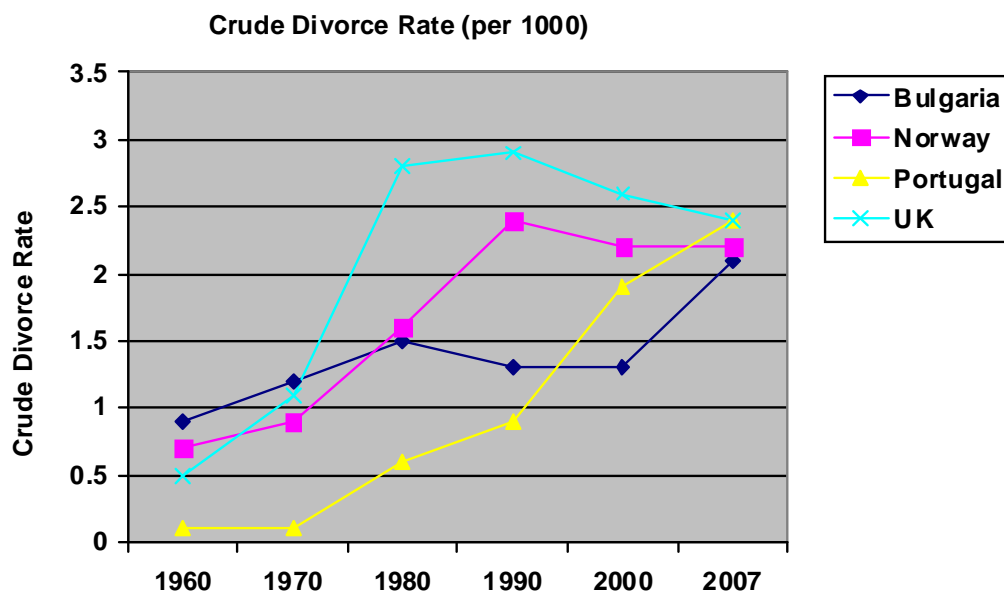
## United Kingdom

The *median* age at first marriage for men in the UK remained mostly stable in the 1960s and 1970s, whilst it decreased for women during the same time (ONS 2009c). At the beginning of the 1980s, the *mean* age at first marriage for both men and women started to steadily increase. Since 1991, the mean age at first marriage has increased by just over four years for both men and women in England and Wales. In 2007, the mean age at first marriage in England and Wales “increased to 31.9 years for men and 29.8 years for women, compared with 2006 when the figures were 31.8 and 29.7 respectively” (ONS, 2009a: 2).

### 1.3. Divorce

	Crude divorce rate					
	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2007
<b>Bulgaria</b>	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.3	2.1
<b>Norway</b>	0.7	0.9	1.6	2.4	2.2	2.2
<b>Portugal</b>	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.9	1.9	2.4
<b>United Kingdom</b>	0.5	1.1	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.4

Crude divorce rate – divorces per 1000 population  
 Sources: Council of Europe (COE) (2003) for all countries (for 1960-2000),  
 EUROSTAT online database (for 2007) (EC, 2007a)



<sup>4</sup> Source: INE (2006), *Indicadores Sociais 2005*, 22/12/2006 [Official Statistics].

*Divorce rates have increased very significantly in all four countries since the 1960s.*

Portugal had the lowest divorce rates in 1960 and 1970 (when there was negligible divorce), 1980, and 1990, but by 2007 had, with the UK, the joint highest rate. Between 1970 and 2007, Portugal has had the greatest increase in divorce rate, and Bulgaria the smallest. In 1970, Bulgaria had the highest divorce rate of the four countries, but by 2007 had the lowest, with a near doubling of the divorce rate concentrated in the 2000s. In 1960, Norway had the second highest level of divorce, but in 2007 had lower divorce rates than Portugal and the UK.

### **Bulgaria**

The divorce rate increased throughout the socialist period, starting at 0.8 divorces per 1000 population in 1947 and rising to 1.4 in 1989 (NSI, 2006), the highest rate for the whole socialist period. The first years of the transformation period (early 1990s) saw a decline in divorce rates, reaching a low of 0.9 in 1994 and then there was a new peak with divorce reaching its highest rate for the past 50 years - 2.1 divorces per 1000 population in 2007 (NSI; 2006, 2007b). The number of divorces per 100 marriages has doubled since 1989, from 20 divorces per 100 marriages to 43.8 divorces per 100 marriages in 2005 (NSI; 2006, 2007b).

### **Norway**

The divorce rate in Norway was under 5 per 1000 married couples until the mid-1970s. It then increased steadily, to a peak of 12.6 divorces per 1000 married couples in 2005. Since then there has been a small decline; in 2008, there were 11.6 divorces per 1000 married couples (SSB 2009c).

### **Portugal**

The most significant increase in the divorce rate in Portugal was from 1.8 per thousand of the population in 2001 to 2.7 in 2002. According to Eurostat 2007, "The substantial growth observed between 2001 (18,851 divorces) and 2002 (27708 divorces) was due to the adoption of a law which aims to facilitate divorce procedures" (EC, 2007c). The divorce rate then decreased to 2.2 per thousand of the population for the next three years (2003-2005), rising again in 2004 and 2005.



## **United Kingdom**

UK divorce rates have been amongst the highest in Europe since the 1970s (Gonzales and Viitanen 2006). After a fall in the early 1970s, divorce rates in the UK increased steadily, with a peak in 1993. Between 2007 and 2008, the number of divorces granted in the UK fell by 5.5%, which was the fourth consecutive fall in the number of UK divorces since the new millennium, and as a result the number of divorces in 2008 was the lowest since 1976 (ONS 2009d).

### **1.4. Cohabitation**

*Comparative data on cohabitation is not available, and neither is good national time series data, although it is clear that non-marital cohabitation has increased across all four countries.*

#### **Bulgaria**

According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (NECE) (2008b) in 2001 only 2% of households were cohabiting couples. The latest Census (2001), as quoted by Belcheva (2003), shows, however, that 13.1% of the population aged between 15-59 years live together without being married. The proportion of the population that is cohabiting is 17.6% of those aged between 15-29, 12.1% of those aged 30-44, and 10.4% of those aged 45-59. Belcheva (2003) also presents the distribution of cohabiting people according to ethnic groups. The Roma population has the highest proportion of people in cohabiting relationships (33.7 %), followed by the Bulgarian Turks (16.2%) and the ethnic Bulgarians have the lowest percentage (11.3%) (Belcheva, 2003).

#### **Norway**

25% of Norwegian citizens aged between 20 and 79 years old were living as cohabitants in 2008. Cohabitation is most common among those in their 20s and 30s. In the age group 25-29, 44% of women are cohabitants (SSB 2009d). The practice has increased rapidly since it became officially legal in 1972. Proportions of cohabitants vary according to different social/cultural indicators, geography being an important one. For instance, only 6.1% of couples in Kvitsøy municipality lived as cohabitants in 2001, in contrast with 32% in Gamvik municipality (SSB 2002a). Several statistical surveys (such as the household surveys) do not

distinguish between married couples and cohabiting couples, and in many official contexts cohabitants are treated as equal to married couples.

## **Portugal**

The category “cohabiting” was translated from the Portuguese Census which refers to it as “marriage without registration”, i.e., *de facto* unions, which were first legally recognized in Portugal in 2000 for heterosexual couples, and in 2001 for same-sex couples. The category “marriage” is called “marriage with registration” in the Census. According to the 2001 Census, there were 5 519 570 individuals married or living together in Portugal. Of these, 5 148 049 were legally married and 371 521 were living in a *de facto* union, i.e. 6.7% of all couples (3.9% in 1991) (EC, 2007c). According to the 2001 Census, 3.7% of people living in Portugal are married without registration. There are regional differences concerning cohabitation. There is no data available on the number of same-sex cohabiting couples (and same-sex civil marriage in Portugal was only approved by the Portuguese Parliament in 2010).

## **United Kingdom**

Time series data on cohabitation, which is only available for women aged 18 to 49, suggests that the proportion of non-married women who were cohabiting increased from 11% in 1979 to 29% in 2002, and the proportion of single (never married) women who were cohabiting increased from 8% in 1979 to 31% in 2002 (ONS, 2004b).

In 2006, cohabiting couples had an average of 1.6 dependent children, whereas married couples had an average of 1.8 dependent children (ONS, 2007). In 2008, more women<sup>5</sup> (15%) were cohabiting than men<sup>6</sup> (14%). Men aged between 25 and 29 were more likely to cohabit than men in other age groups, whereas amongst women, those aged between 20 and 29 were more likely to cohabit than women in other age groups (ONS, 2010c). In 2007 in England and Wales, 10% of the population over 16 years of age were cohabiting; of these, 72% of women and 74% of men had never been married, 3% of men and 2% of women were separated, 1% of men and 2% of women were widowed, and 24% of men and 21% of women were divorced (2009i).

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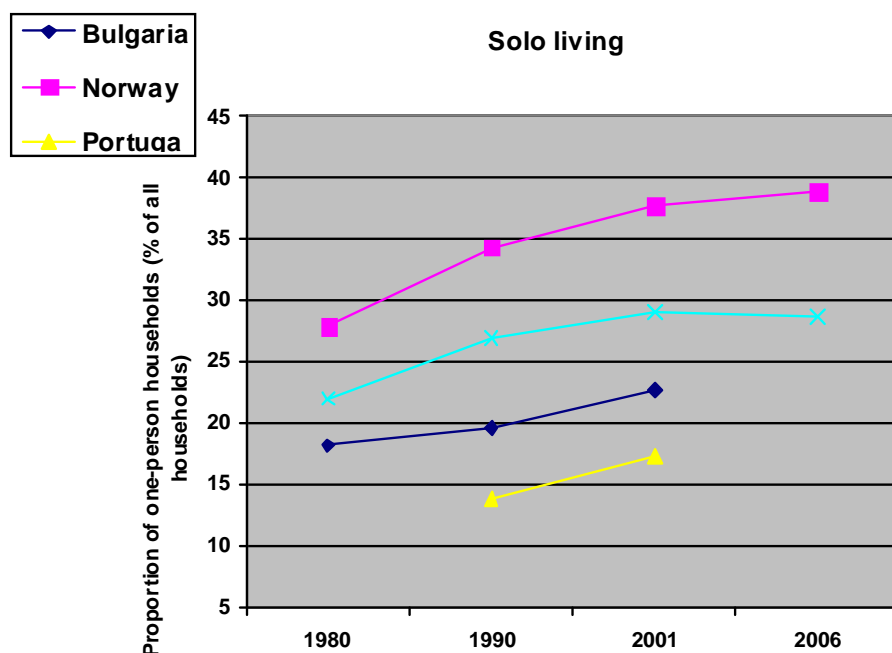
<sup>5</sup> Aged between 16 to 59.

<sup>6</sup> Aged between 16 and 59.

## 1.5. Solo Living

	Solo living			
	1980	1990	2001	2006
<b>Bulgaria</b>	18.2	19.7	22.7	..
<b>Norway</b>	27.9	34.3	37.7*	38.9
<b>Portugal</b>	..	13.8	17.3	..
<b>UK</b>	22.0	27.0	29.0	28.7

Solo living – one person households as percentage of all households (%)  
 Source of data: United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (2008b); \* Data on Norway from 2000



*There has been a significant increase in the proportion of households that are composed of one person living alone across all four countries.*

Norway had the highest levels of solo living, both in 1980 and in 2006, seeing a rise from 27.6% of households to 38.9%, followed by the UK, with a rise from 22% in 1980 to 28.7%. There is a lack of time series data for both Bulgaria and Portugal, but in both 1990 and 2001 Portugal had the lowest levels of the four countries.

### Bulgaria

There has been a slow but steady increase in solo living in Bulgaria: at the beginning of the 1980s less than one fifth of the households consisted of one person and their proportion has increased to 22.7% in 2007 (see table above).

## **Norway**

While the rates of non-coupled individuals in the population has varied throughout history (with a low point in the decades after WWII), solo-living is largely a phenomenon that has been economically possible since WWII. There has been a steady rise in solo-living in Norway in recent decades. In 1980, 27.9% of the population was living alone, and in 2009 this had increased to 39.8% (SSB 2009a). In a 2008 survey 32% answered that they did not have a partner (2009d).

## **Portugal**

The category of *solo living households* is called “families of 1 person” in the Portuguese census. In 1991, 13.8% of households in 1991 were families of one person, compared to 17.3% in 2001. In 2001, 5% of these households were aged 15-24 years old; 44% were 25-64 years old; and 51% were people of 65 years old and over (Census 2001). In terms of gender, 65% of all people living alone were women in 2001, and 39.5% of households of one person were elderly women. According to the Census, there was a 44% increase in the proportion of people living alone between 1991 and 2001. In 2001 “people living alone” represented 5.5% of the total resident population (3.7% of women and 1.8% of men).

## **United Kingdom**

Solo living is a common living arrangement in Britain, with one person households making up one-third of all households. Solo living is also on the rise, with the percentage of one person households almost doubled from 17% in 1971, to 31% in 2002 (ONS, 2003b). Solo living is more common amongst older people, in particular older women, who are twice as likely to live alone as older men. Men between the ages of 25-44 are twice as likely to live alone as young women (CRFR 2005).

### **1.6. Household Composition**

*Across all four countries, there has been a rise in one parent families, and a decline in the average size of household.*

Comparative time series data is not available, but in 2001, the UK had the highest proportion of one parent families (9% of households), followed by Portugal and Norway (8.3%) and Bulgaria (6.5%) (UNECE, 2008b). The vast majority of one parent families are headed by a

woman: 82.8% in Bulgaria in 2001; 83.5% in Norway in 2004; 86.4% in Portugal in 2001; 88.7% in the UK in 2006 (UNECE, 2008b).

## **Bulgaria**

There has been a steady rise in the number of one-parent households – from 4.8% of all households in 1980 to 6.5% in 2001 (UNECE, 2008b). The rise in single parenthood has been accompanied by a decrease in the proportion of households consisting of a married couple with children – they were 36% of all households in 1980 and only 29% in 2001. The proportion of people living in a married couple household has remained relatively constant since the mid 1960s. In 1965, 56.6% of the population were in this living arrangement and 53.8% in 2001 (National Statistical Institute (NSI), 2001b).

## **Norway**

There has been a steady rise in the number of one-parent households – from 6.4% of all households in 1980 to 8.4% in 2006 (UNECE, 2008b). There has been an accompanying decline in the proportion of households that are married couples with children, from 38.6% in 1980 to 21.5% in 2006 (UNECE, 2008b). The general trend in Norway is that the households are becoming smaller. In 2008 the average household size was 2.2 persons. In 1970 the average household consisted of 2.9 persons, and in 1950 3.3 persons (SSB 2009h). In 2001, 4.6 % of the population lived in households of more than one-family (shared housing), with or without children (SSB 2002b). In 2009, around 75% of Norwegian children between 0-17 years live with both parents (58.2% married parents and 17.4% cohabiting parents). Most single parents are mothers, 14.6%, while 2.8% of the children in this age-group live with their father as a single parent. A total of 8.1% children in this age group also live with one parent and one step-parent (most of them with mother and stepfather) (SSB, 2009e).

In 2001, 49.9% of the population was living in married couple households (SSB 2002a). The marriage rate has varied over the centuries. A high was reached after the war in 1815 (9 per 1000 inhabitants), but then started to decline until it reached a low point in the late 1920s (6 per 1000). Immediately after WWII it reached an all time high (10 per 1000), and has then declined again since (SSB, 1965). Immigration (now particularly Polish couples and family reunification from non-EU countries) plays a major role in keeping the proportion of married couples high (SSB, 2009i).

Interestingly the official statistics in Norway are as concerned with the proportion of couples, as with the proportion of *married* couples.

## **Portugal**

In 2001, most households were composed of two or three people (28.4% and 25.2% respectively). 19.7% of households were comprised of four people. Households including five and more people decreased from 15.4% in 1991 to 9.5% in 2001 (Census 2001). The share of households with six or more people decreased from 29% in 1960 to 9% in 2001 (European Commission, 2007b). The average size of household has declined steadily from 3.7 in 1970, to 3.3 in 1981, 3.1 in 1991 and 2.8 in 2001.<sup>7</sup> The average size of household in Lisbon in 2001 was 2.4 people (Census 2001). The proportion of lone parent households has increased 2.3% between 1991 and 2001, comprising 9.2% of households in 1991 and 11.5% in 2001. The proportion of households that are couples with children, in comparison with the total proportion of coupled households, has declined 3% between 1991 and 2001 (67.8% and 64.8% respectively). Amongst couples with children, 2.7% of households comprised reconfigured families. There is no equivalent data available from previous Censuses.

## **United Kingdom**

There has been an increase in both one person households and lone parent families in the UK over recent decades. The average size of household has declined from 2.9 people in 1971 to 2.4 people per household in 2001. The proportion of households in Great Britain comprising couple families with children had fallen by 16 percentage points between 1971 and 2008 to 27%, and was lower than the proportion of couple families with no children (29%) The proportion of large family households has also declined: between 1971 and 2008 the proportion of households consisting of a couple family and three or more dependent children fell from 9% to 3%. In 1971 people living in couple families with dependent children were more than one-half (52%) of all people living in private households compared with around one-third (36%) in 2008. The proportion of lone parent households increased almost threefold to 11% between 1971 and 2008 (ONS 2009g: 15-16).

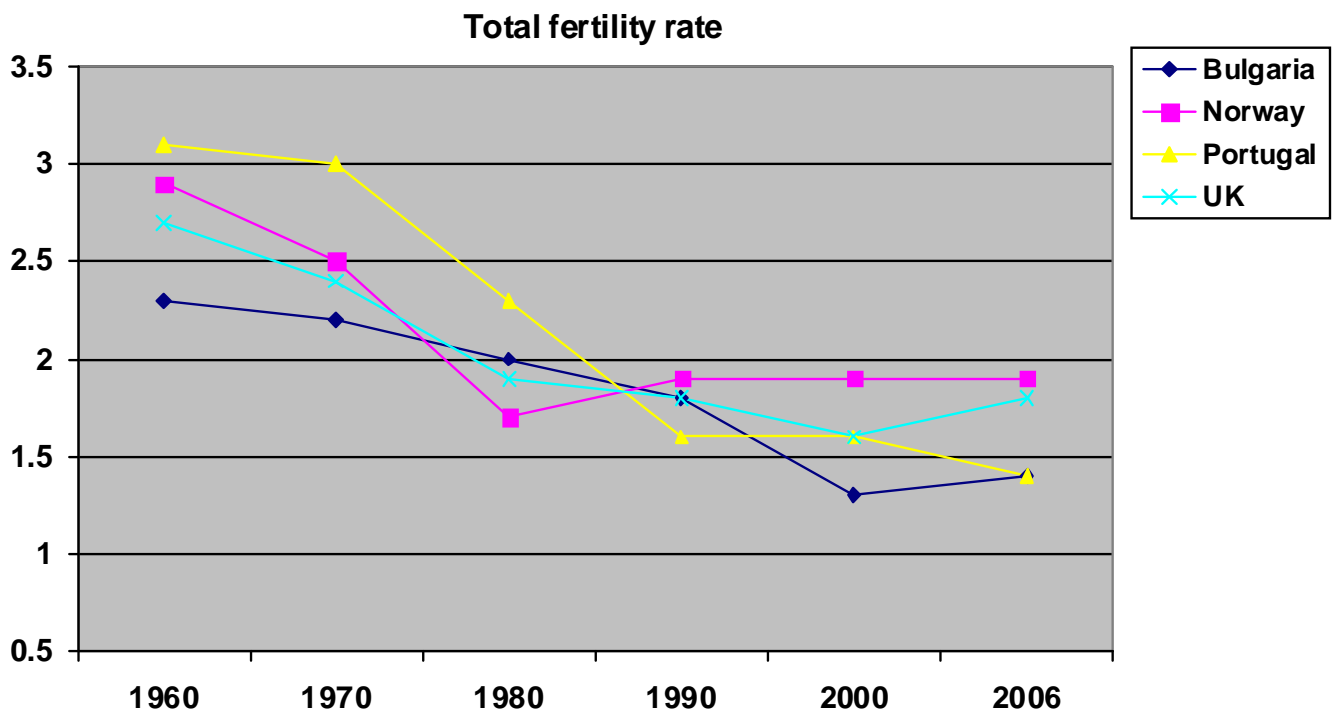
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<sup>7</sup> Source: INE [Official Statistics], [http://censos.ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=CENSOS&xpgid=ine\\_censos\\_indicadores](http://censos.ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=CENSOS&xpgid=ine_censos_indicadores) [accessed 22/04/2010].

## 1.7. Fertility Rates

	Total fertility rate					
	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2006
<b>Bulgaria</b>	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.3	1.4
<b>Norway</b>	2.9	2.5	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9
<b>Portugal</b>	3.1	3.0	2.3	1.6	1.6	1.4
<b>United Kingdom</b>	2.7	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.8

Total Fertility Rate – average number of children per woman  
 Sources of data: Council of Europe (2003) for all countries (1960-2000) and UNECE (2008b) for 2006



*Across the four countries, women have been having fewer and fewer children over the past forty years. The greatest fall in fertility rates has been in Portugal, which had the highest fertility rate (3.1 children per woman) in 1960 and the joint lowest (1.4) in 2006. Norway had the second highest fertility rate in 1960 and in 2006 had the highest. The UK and Bulgaria have seen similar declines in fertility – of 0.9 children per woman – between 1960 and 2006, although the UK’s fertility rate remains higher than that in Bulgaria, which, in 2006, was the same as Portugal. Bulgaria’s fertility rate dipped the lowest of the four countries, at the height of the post-communist economic crisis. These fertility rates might be connected to the fact*

that Norway has the highest level of expenditure on family and child benefits – 2.8% of GDP in 2005, compared with the UK's 1.7%, Portugal's 1.2% and Bulgaria's 1.1% (source: Eurostat, EC, 81/2008:6).<sup>8</sup>

### **Bulgaria**

As Philipov (2001) argues, fertility behaviour during the communist era was one of 'an early start and early end to childbearing, prevalence of the two-child family model, and low extra-marital fertility' (Philipov, 2001 cited in Koytcheva, 2006: 1). At present the two-child model is becoming less popular as more women stop reproducing after just one child (Philipov, 2001). The number of births per woman (total fertility rate) has been declining since the 1960s. The total fertility rate was still above the replacement level of 2.0 in 1980, but at the start of the post-communist transformation it was already lower - 1.9 in 1989. However, the rate of decline accelerated in the 1990s. The total fertility rate declined from 1.9 in 1989 to 1.31 in 2005 (UNICEF, 2007b), reaching its lowest level of 1.1 births per woman in 1997 (NSI, 2006).<sup>9</sup> The total fertility rate for second births fell from 0.68 in 1990 to 0.34 in 1997 (Koytcheva, 2006), and the time interval between having a first and a second child is also widening (Koytcheva, 2006: 4).

### **Norway**

In 1926 the fertility rate in Norway fell to fewer than 3 children per 1000 women. Since then the level has varied between 2.94 (1961-1965) and 1.68 (1981-1985). In 2008 the fertility rate was an average of 1.95 children (SSB 2009).

### **Portugal**

In 2001, there were 112,825 births in Portugal, 7246 fewer than in 2000 (variation of -6%). The birth rate (number of births/1000 thousand habitants) was 10.9 (7.6% less when compared to the previous year). The highest birth rate was in the Azores (13.2), followed by Madeira (12.9) and North and Lisbon regions, with 11.4. The lowest was in Alentejo (8.4).

“In 2005, Portugal shows fertility rates lower than in 2004, except for women aged over 35 years. [...] The data for 2005 shows a slight increase of the total fertility rate to 1.41 children per 1000 women (1.40 children per 1000 women in 2004)” (EC, 2007c).

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<sup>8</sup> Data for Portugal refers to 2004.

<sup>9</sup> Einhorn refers to what she calls a 'birth strike' (Einhorn, 1993: 67; 2006: 106) in other Central and Eastern European countries after the end of communism.



## United Kingdom

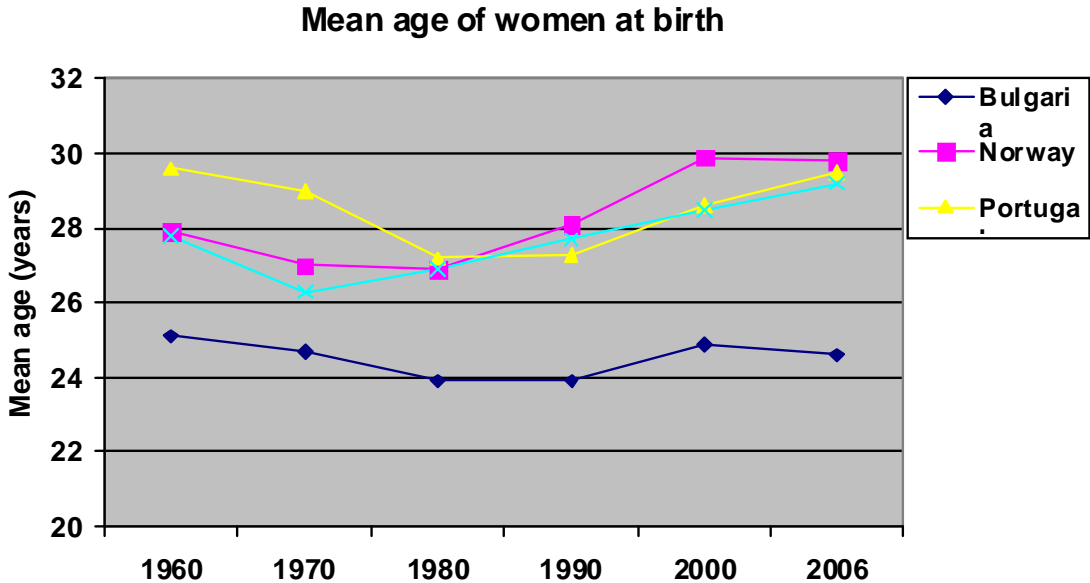
The Total Fertility Rate in the UK was 1.96 children per woman in 2008. This figure was the highest level since 1973. Between the 1960s and the beginning of 2000 the total fertility rate in the UK decreased steadily and hit a record low of 1.63 in 2001. Since then it has increased each year. In 2008 Northern Ireland had the highest fertility rate (2.11 children per woman), whereas in Scotland the fertility rate remained lower than the UK average (at 1.80 children per woman). The fertility rates in both England (1.97) and Wales (1.96) were close to the UK average (ONS 2009h).

### 1.8. Age of Mothers

Mean age of mothers at birth						
1980s	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2006
Bulgaria	25.1	24.7	23.9	23.9	24.9	24.6
Norway	27.9	27.0	26.9	28.1	29.9	29.8
Portugal	29.6	29.0	27.2	27.3	28.6	29.5
UK	27.8	26.3	26.9	27.7	28.5	29.2

The mean age of women at birth is the weighted average of the different childbearing ages, using as weights the age-specific fertility rates of all births

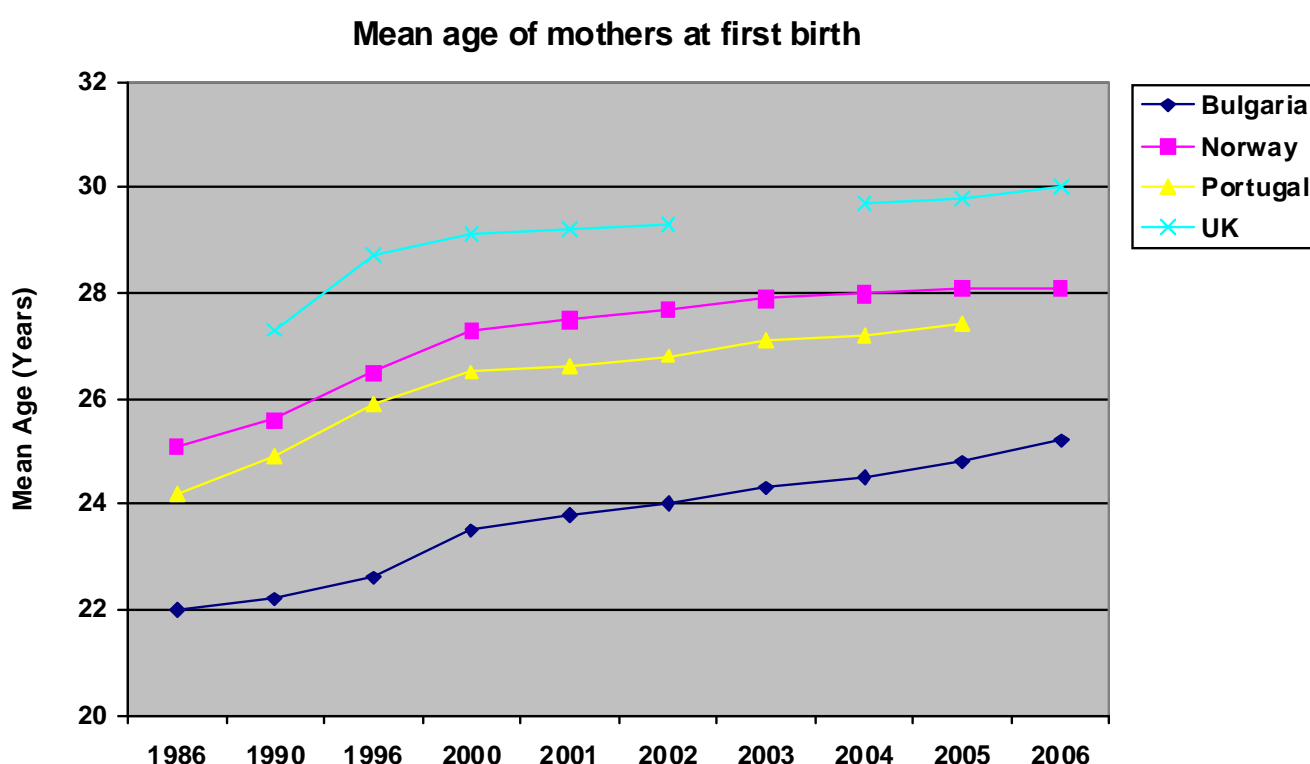
Sources of data: data on all countries between 1960-2000 from Council of Europe (COE) (2004); data on all countries from 2006 from EUROSTAT statistical database



Mean age of mothers at first birth						
1980s	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2005
<b>Bulgaria</b>	22.1	22.1	21.9	22.2	23.5	24.8
<b>Norway</b>	..	..	..	25.6	26.9	28.1
<b>Portugal</b>	..	..	24.0	24.9	26.5	27.4
<b>UK</b>	..	..	24.7	25.5	26.5	29.8

The mean age of women at birth of first child is the weighted average of the different childbearing ages, using as weights the age-specific fertility rates of first-order births

Sources of data: data on all countries between 1960-2000 from Council of Europe (COE) (2004); data on all countries from 2005 from the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (2006)



*Across all four countries, the age at which women have children is increasing, both their first child, and their average age at the birth of their children* (although in Portugal because of the decline in the overall fertility rate, it is the age at the birth of first child that has increased most significantly, from 24 in 1980 to 27.4 in 2005). Women in Bulgaria are substantially younger than women in the other three countries, both when becoming first time mothers (24.8 in 2005), and in terms of mean age at birth (24.6 in 2006), and this has been consistently the case over the decades under discussion. The other three countries are clustered closely together in terms of mean age at birth (Norway: 29.8; Portugal: 29.5; UK:

29.2 in 2006). In terms of mean age of mothers at first birth, there is more difference: the UK has the highest age at first birth – 29.8 in 2005, against 27.4 in Portugal and 28.1 in Norway.

### **Bulgaria**

The average age of childbearing for women has been traditionally low in Bulgaria but there has been a steady increase since the mid 1990s. The mean age at first birth was relatively stable during the communist period and until the mid 1990s – from 22.1 years in 1960 and reaching 22.2 in 1994. The last 15 years, however, saw an increase in the age of mothers at first birth, which reached 24.8 years in 2005 (see table above) and 25.3 in 2007 (National Statistical Institute (NSI), 2007b). The mean age of women at birth was slowly decreasing during socialism and the first years after 1989 – it was 25.1 years in 1960 and dropped to 23.7 in 1992. After this period of decline in the mean age of mothers at birth, there has been a rapid rise and the mean age reached 24.6 years in 2006 (see table above). In addition to this the proportion of births per mother under the age of 25 has decreased from 65% in 1989 to only 43% of children being born to women aged 24 or younger in 2005 (UNICEF, 2007a). This means that young women are tending to get married later in life, if ever, and are tending to have fewer children at this later stage, and those are not necessarily within wedlock. As a result younger women spend longer periods of their lives being single (not married) and being childfree.

### **Norway**

Women's average age for having their first child has varied throughout Norwegian history. The lowest average age for first child that is registered after WWII was 23.4 years in 1971-1975. After this, the age has steadily increased until the current level of 28.1 years in 2008 (SSB 2009g). Until 1986, only age for *married* women having their first child was recorded. This means the age before 1986 should possibly be a bit younger (since unmarried mothers were usually younger), but there were relatively few births out of wedlock during this period.

### **Portugal**

The general trend is that younger women are having fewer children, with later first births. For example, amongst women aged 30-34, the fertility rate in 2005 was 85.3% (83.6% in 2004). A similar tendency was registered in relation to women in the age groups 35-39 (from 36.1% in 2004 to 37.6% in 2005) and 40-44 (from 7.3% in 2004 to 7.4% in 2005) (EC, 2007c).

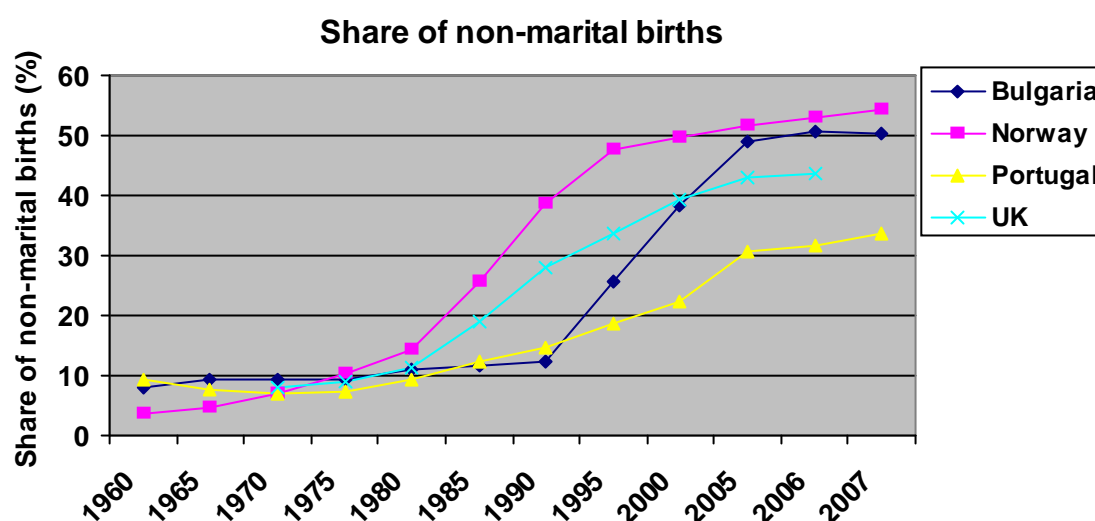
## United Kingdom

The age of mothers at birth and at first birth has been increasing in the UK since the mid 1970s. On average, women who had/have children outside of marriage are younger than those who have children inside marriage (ONS 2010a).

### 1.9. Non-Marital Births

	Non-marital births					
	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2007
<b>Bulgaria</b>	8.0	9.3	10.9	12.4	38.4	50.2
<b>Norway</b>	3.7	6.9	14.5	38.6	49.6	54.5
<b>Portugal</b>	9.5	6.9	9.2	14.7	22.2	33.6
<b>UK</b>	..	8.0	11.5	27.9	39.5	43.6*

Births, where the mother's marital status at the time of birth is other than married, as % of all births  
 \* Data on UK from 2006  
 Sources of data: : data on all countries between 1960-2000 from Council of Europe (COE) (2004); data on all countries from 2007 from EUROSTAT statistical database (EC, 2007a)



*There has been a very large increase in births outside marriage in all four countries, since the 1980s, with the steepest increases from the 1980s in Norway and the UK and from the 1990s in Bulgaria and Portugal.* Norway has changed from having the lowest levels of births outside marriage in 1960 (3.7%) to the highest levels by 2007 (54.5% of all births). Portugal had the highest level of births outside marriage in 1960, but from 1970, when it had the joint lowest (6.9%), with Norway, has consistently had the lowest levels of births outside marriage. Bulgaria had the highest level of births outside marriage in 1970 (9.3%), and in 2007 had the second highest, at 50.2%.

## **Bulgaria**

The share of non-marital births (as a proportion of all live births) was relatively low in 1989 – 11.4% (UNICEF, 2007b; Koytcheva, 2006). Less than twenty years later more children were born outside of than within marriage – 50.8% of all births in 2006 and 50.2% in 2007 (NSI, 2007a: 2), which is more than four times higher than at the beginning of the transformation. The proportion of births outside marriage in Bulgaria has been among the highest in Europe, and in 2006 the country had the second highest proportion of extramarital births of all post-communist countries, after Estonia (EC, 2007a).

## **Norway**

In 2008, 44% of the newborn were born to married couples, 44% to cohabitants and 12% to single mothers (SSB 2009j). Between 2006 and 2008, 164 children were adopted by a step-parent living in registered partnership with the child's biological mother (SSB, 2009k).

## **Portugal**

Most children are born within a context of marriage (76.2%) (INE, 2001a). However, the percentage of births outside wedlock has been increasing steadily, amounting to 33.6% in 2007. A more detailed analysis is available from the Census 2001, which registered that 23.8% of births were outside marriage. Of these 23.8%, 17.8% were born to cohabiting parents and 6% to non-cohabiting parents (INE, 2001a). Most births outside marriage could be found in Algarve (41.6%) and Lisbon (34.1%) regions, whereas the North and Azores have lower rates (14.4% and 14.1% respectively) (INE, 2001a).

## **United Kingdom**

Over the past decades the proportion of births occurring outside of marriage has dramatically risen in the UK. In 1960 only 6% of live births occurred outside marriage; in 1977 the percentage was up to 10%, and by 1997, it had reached 37%. In 2001, 40% of children were born outside of marriage in the UK (2004a; 1998). In 2008, in England and Wales, 45% of all live births were outside marriage (ONS 2009i).

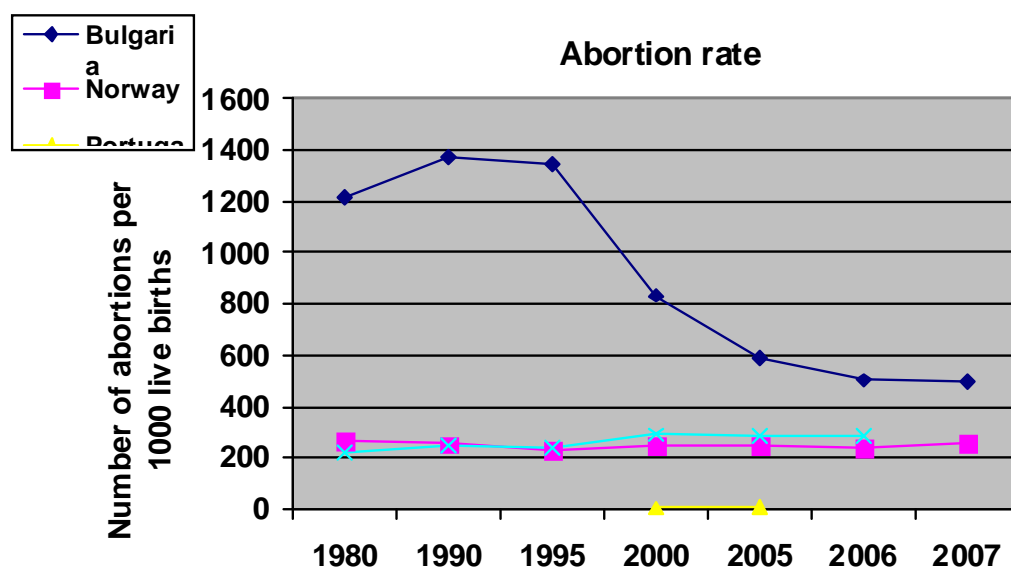
## 1.10. Abortion Rates

	Abortion rate (legal abortions)			
	1980	1990	2000	2005
<b>Bulgaria</b>	1217.4	1375.2	833	588
<b>Norway</b>	265.1	255.2	247.1	246.5
<b>Portugal</b>	..	..	4.8	7.3
<b>UK</b>	223.9	246.8	290.6	286.4

The abortion rate is the number of abortions per 1000 live births. Legal abortions refer to legally induced early foetal abortions and do not cover spontaneous abortions (i.e. miscarriages).

Data on UK do not cover Northern Ireland.

Source: UNECE (2008b)



*Abortion rates vary significantly across the four countries, with Bulgaria having the highest levels since 1980, and the UK and Norway having broadly similar, but substantially lower, rates, and Portugal having almost no (legal) abortion at all.*

### Bulgaria

Abortion on demand (“free will”) has been available in Bulgaria since 1956<sup>10</sup> and has been widely used as a way of controlling reproduction. In 1980 there were over 1217 abortions per 1000 live births and the popularity of abortion can be explained in the following way:

The operation was easily accessible and relatively cheap, and due to the widespread lack of contraceptives, abortion became one of the main means of preventing undesired births. Modern contraceptives were not introduced in Bulgaria, and although pills and IUDs were imported from other socialist countries

<sup>10</sup> Some restrictions were introduced in 1968 and in 1973 in attempt to boost birth rates (Roseneil et al., 2008) and were later revoked (1990) after the collapse of the socialist regime.

and were freely and cheaply sold at pharmacies, supply was erratic (Brunnbauer and Taylor, 2004: 303).

Even though the abortion rate has been decreasing significantly it was still relatively high in 2005– 588 abortions per 1000 live births.

### **Norway**

Abortion on demand (until 12th week) has been available in Norway since 1979. A peak of 29.5% abortions per live births was reached in 1989, but mostly the abortion rate has been stable, at around 25% of live births since 1980 (SSB 2006a). Women between 20-24 years have the highest number of abortions (SSB 2006b).

### **Portugal**

Abortion is probably the oldest and more recurrent struggle for the Portuguese women's movement. Until 1984 abortion was outlawed in any circumstances. In 1984, Parliament passed a law establishing the acceptable exceptions to the abortion law, which criminalised abortion with up to three years prison sentence. The exceptions then considered in the Penal Code were four, namely "a) [when abortion] is the only means to remove danger of death or irrefutable damage for the body, physical or psychic health of the pregnant woman; b) [when abortion] is adequate to avoid danger of death or serious and lasting damage for the body, physical or psychic health of the pregnant woman, as long as it is done within the first 12 weeks; c) there are serious reasons to predict that the newborn will incurably suffer from a serious disease or malformation, as long as it done within the first 16 weeks; d) there is serious reason to believe pregnancy has resulted from rape assault, as long as it is done within the first 12 weeks" (Law N. 6/84, 11 May). The deadlines for abortion in the above mentioned cases were expanded in 1997 to 16 weeks in case of rape and 24 weeks in case of malformation. Abortion upon a woman's request, up to 10 weeks of pregnancy, has only been available in Portugal since 2007, when the majority voted favourably in a referendum.

Due to the fact that abortion was largely illegal until 2007, figures are often inconsistent and any statistical information is necessarily incomplete. Therefore, our knowledge about the reality of abortion in Portugal must stem from different sources. According to the Ministry of Justice, between 1998 and 2004 there were 223 registered crimes of abortion, translated into

34 investigation cases and 18 people being sentenced.<sup>11</sup> In 1996, the Health General Board (DGS) conducted an inquiry in 31 hospitals, concluding that there had been 684 women with abortion-related problems between 1984 and 1991. However, according to the World Health Organisation these figures are indeed much higher – an estimated 150,000 illegal abortions each year in 1984, 23000 in 1997 and 20000 in 2004, of which over 5000 generated health problems.<sup>12</sup>

## **United Kingdom**

Abortion was legalized in Great Britain with the 1967 Abortion Act. Abortion rates vary significantly according to the age of the women, with the highest rates amongst women between 16 and 35. In 2001 the abortion rate for women under 16 was 3.7 per 1000 women, and 6.4 per 1,000 women for women aged 35 and over. The abortion rate for women aged 20 to 24 was much higher in 2001 than in 1969, increasing from 7.0 abortions per 1,000 women to 30.6 per 1,000 women. Abortion rates among women aged 16 to 19 also rose significantly over this period, increasing from 6.1 abortions per 1,000 women to 26.1 abortions per 1,000 women (ONS 2003a).

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<sup>11</sup> These numbers were published in the newspaper *Público*, 25/01/2007.

<sup>12</sup> *World Health Organization- Division of Reproductive Health* (technical support) (1998 and 2005), quoted in Santos *et al*, 2008.



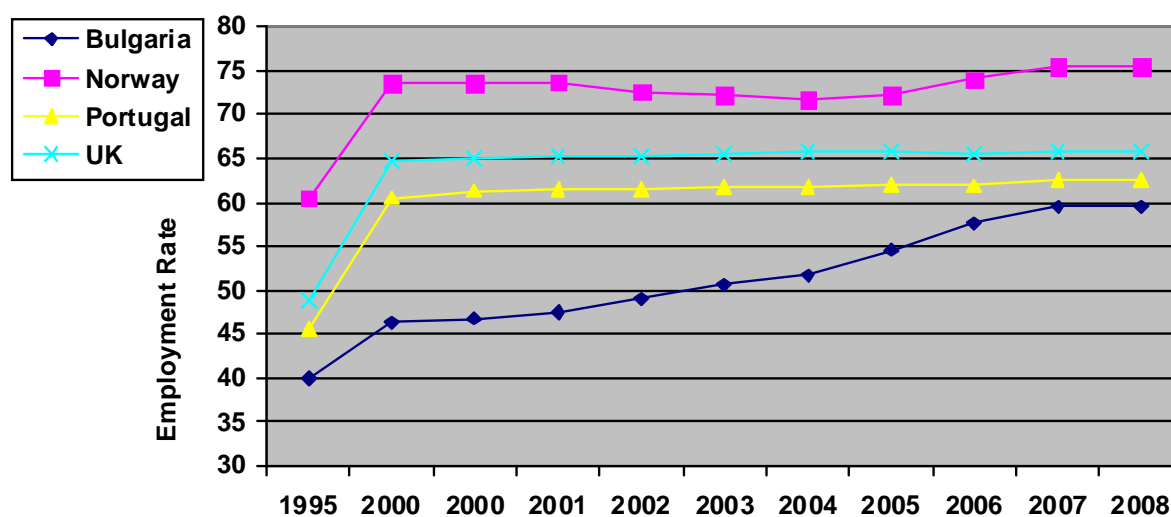
## 2. Women's Employment

	Employment rate		
<b>Bulgaria</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2008</b>
Female	40.0	46.3	59.5
Male	48.1	54.7	68.5
<b>Norway</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2008</b>
Female	60.5	73.6	75.4
Male	69.6	81.3	80.5
<b>Portugal</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2008</b>
Female	45.6	60.5	62.5
Male	63.5	76.5	74.0
<b>UK</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2008</b>
Female	48.8	64.7	65.8
Male	64.0	75.1	76.7

The *employment rate* is the share of employed persons in the population aged 15+ of the corresponding sex

Sources: data on Bulgaria for 1995 from Women's Alliance for Development (WAD) (2003: 107); data on Norway, Portugal and the UK for 1995 from UNECE (2007), data on all countries for 2000-2008 from EUROSTAT Labour Force Survey (European Commission (EC), 2009c).

### Female employment rate



*Women's employment rate has increased significantly in all four countries between 1995 and 2008. The rate of female employment during this period has been highest in Norway, followed by the UK, then Portugal and Bulgaria.*

## **Bulgaria**

Women's employment rate has been increasing since the mid 1990s and is at present close to the Lisbon targets of 60%, which are to be reached by 2010. It is also higher than the average employment rate for women in the European Union (EU), which was 55.7% in 2007 (EC, 2006: 12). The average gap in employment rates between women and men has been stable – round 8-9% (1995-2008), which is again lower than the average gap of the EU of 17.1% in 2000 and 14.2% in 2007 (EC, 2009b: 5).

## **Norway**

In 2009, 70.7% of women (age 15-74) and 77.1% of the men (age 15-74) in Norway were in paid work (SSB2010a). The number of women in paid work has increased steadily since the early 1970s when only 45% of women were in paid work. By 1987 this had increased to 64.7% (SSB 2005).

## **Portugal**

Compared to other Southern European countries, the female employment rate in Portugal has historically been high (Walby, 2001). The feminisation rate of self-employed workers who employ others is 26.2%, thus signalling a gender imbalance in terms of professional status. A similar imbalance is found amongst executives (feminisation rate: 31.6%) and Armed Forces (feminisation rate: 8.1%). However, in the intellectual and scientific professions, the feminisation rate is 61.2% (CIG, 2008). In 2008, 32% of the leaders of businesses in Portugal were women (European Commission, 2008). According to Eurostat 2003, Portugal had a female employment rate of 60.6%, higher than the average of 56% of 15 EU countries (Portugal, 2008). In 1991, the percentage of working mothers was 51.1%. In 2001, the percentage of working mothers was 71% and of working fathers 93.3% (INE, 2001a).

## **United Kingdom**

Women's employment has increased steadily in the UK in recent decades. In 2002 45% of all those in employment in the UK were women aged 16 and over, compared to around 41% in 1984. The UK also has the third highest female employment rate amongst EU countries, and no region over the UK territory has a female employment rate below the EU average (DWP 2002).

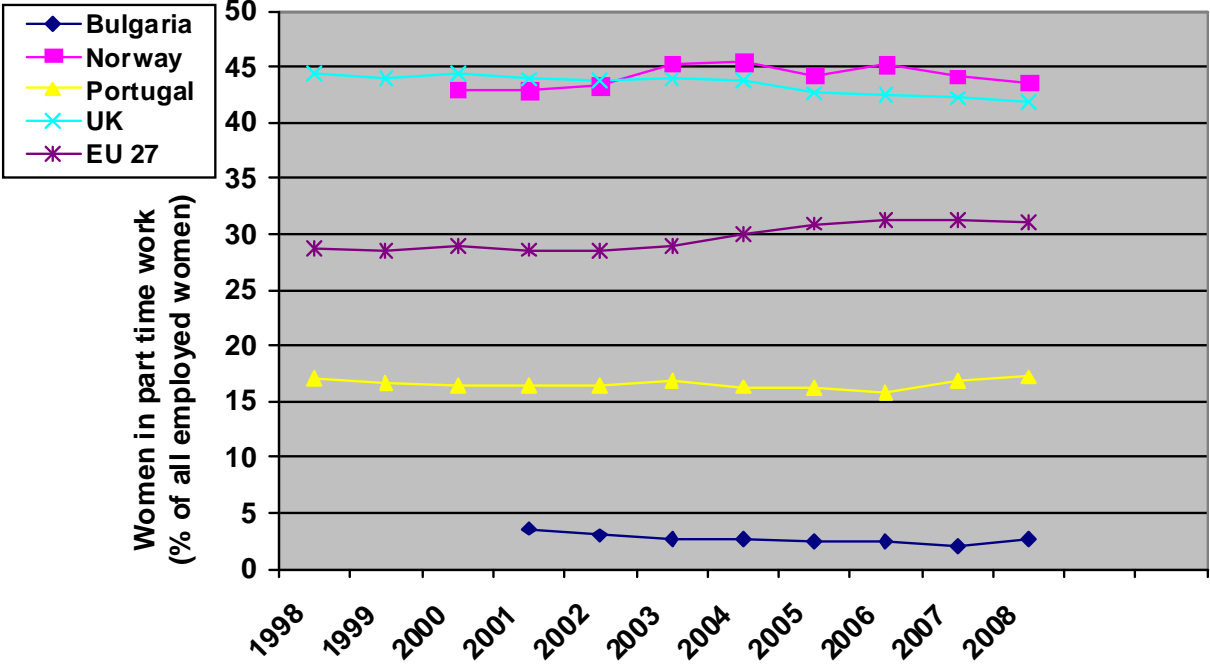
However, more men than women of working age were in employment in 2008 in the UK. Moreover, since 1999 the employment rate has not changed from 79% for men and 70% for women. Lastly, whilst in 2008, only one in six men was working part time, almost half of women’s jobs were part time (ONS 2010b).

Part-time work			
	1998	2003	2008
<b>Bulgaria</b>			
Female	..	2.6	2.7
Male	..	1.9	2.0
<b>Norway</b>			
Female	..	45.3	43.6
Male	..	14.0	14.4
<b>Portugal</b>			
Female	17.1	16.9	17.2
Male	6.1	7.3	7.4
<b>UK</b>			
Female	44.4	43.9	41.8
Male	8.5	10.1	11.3

Part-time – as % of total employment

Source: EUROSTAT Labour Force Survey (European Commission (EC), 2009c)

### Women working part time



*Both Norway and the UK have high levels of part-time work amongst women (43.6% and 41.8% in 2008 respectively), compared with men (14.4% and 11.3% respectively), with Portugal in the middle, with 17.2% in 2008, compared with 7.4% for men, and Bulgaria with very low levels of part time work for both women and men (2.7% and 2.0% in 2008 respectively). These levels changed little over the past decade.*

### **Bulgaria**

There is a tradition of full-time employment in Bulgaria, and only 3.6% of all employed women in 2001 were part-time workers. The percentage has been decreasing since then and it reached 2.1% in 2007 (EC, 2007e). The proportion of men working in part-time jobs was correspondingly 2.1% and 1.3% of all male employees. In comparison, the EU-27 average of part-time employment was 18.2% for both genders, 7.7% for men, and 31.2% for women in 2007 (EC, 2009a: 220-221).

### **Norway**

Whilst 70.7% of women in Norway were in paid work in 2009, 58.4% of the women in paid work were in part time work. 9.2% of the women working part time have tried to find more work (SSB, 2009l).

### **Portugal**

Overall, women still hold more temporary contracts (feminisation rate: 53%) and part time jobs (feminisation rate: 66.3%) than their male counterparts (CIG, 2008).

### **United Kingdom**

The number of women working part-time is high in the UK, and it has remained stable since the 1980s (DWP, 2002). Whilst the majority of women work full time, they are more likely than men to be working in temporary jobs or part time. Women who work part time and women with children are more likely to work in jobs that are either lower paid or lower skilled (DWP, 2002: 612).

### 3. Attitudes towards Same-Sex Sexuality and Discrimination

*'Discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation is seen as the second most widespread form of discrimination in the EU, behind that on the basis of ethnic origin. Over half think that the former is widespread (51% widespread; 13% very widespread, 38% fairly widespread), as opposed to 41% who think that it is rare (30% fairly rare, 11% very rare). 3% think discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation is non-existent in their country'* (EC, 2007d: 52).

#### Discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation described as very widespread by:

EU 27	50%
Bulgaria	25 %
Portugal	67%
UK	48%

#### Have you personally felt discriminated against or harassed on the basis of sexual orientation in the past 12 months?

	Yes
EU 27	1%
Bulgaria	0%
Portugal	2%
UK	1%

**Please tell me using the scale from 1 to 10 how you would personally feel about having a homosexual (gay man or lesbian woman) as a neighbour. On this scale, '1' means that you would be "very uncomfortable" and '10' means that you would be "totally comfortable" with this situation.**

	Average score out of 10
EU 27	7.9
Bulgaria	5.3
Portugal	6.6
UK	8.7

**Please tell me using this scale from 1 to 10 how you would personally feel about homosexual (gay man or lesbian woman) in the highest elected political position**

	Average score out of 10
EU 27	7.0
Bulgaria	3.7
Portugal	6.0
UK	7.7

**In general, would you say that enough effort is made in your country to fight all forms of discrimination?**

		EU 27	Bulgaria	Portugal	UK
<b>Total</b>	No	48%	47%	38%	45%
	Yes	47%	39%	56%	53%
	I Do not know	5%	14%	6%	2%

**'No' replies – by gender, age and education**

<i>Gender</i>	Male	45%	47%	37%	41%
	Female	50%	47%	41%	50%
<i>Age</i>	15-24	53%	51%	37%	47%
	25-39	50%	50%	40%	46%
	40-54	48%	46%	40%	46%
	55+	43%	44%	37%	44%
<i>Education (end of)</i>	15	44%	39%	38%	47%
	16-19	49%	48%	42%	49%
	20+	48%	51%	33%	36%

**Would you be in favour of or opposed to specific measures being adopted to provide equal opportunities for everyone in the field of employment? Measures such as, for example special training schemes or adapted selection and recruitment processes, for people depending on their sexual orientation?**

	In favour	Opposed
EU 27	65%	27%
Bulgaria	55%	24%
Portugal	70%	22%
UK	76%	19%

<b>Do you have friends or acquaintances who are homosexual?</b>	
	<b>Yes</b>
EU 27	34%
Bulgaria	7%
Portugal	20%
UK	55%

*A varied picture exists across our three EU member countries (Bulgaria, Portugal and the UK) in terms of attitudes towards same-sex sexuality and perceptions of discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.* People in Portugal have a high level of awareness of sexual orientation discrimination, and are twice as likely to say that they have experienced such discrimination or harassment over the past year than those from the UK. Bulgarians have a lower awareness of sexual orientation discrimination and do not report personal experience of such discrimination. People from the UK have the most liberal attitudes to homosexuals, both as neighbours and as politicians, and are most likely to have friends who are gay, with Bulgarians the least tolerant and the least likely to have friends who are gay. Interestingly, a majority of Bulgarians – and a higher proportion of those interviewed than in the UK and Portugal - also think that not enough is being done to combat all forms of discrimination in their country, with men and women holding this opinion in equal numbers (unlike in the UK and Portugal, where women are more inclined than men to think this). The younger age groups are more inclined to think that not enough is being done about discrimination in Bulgaria and the UK, although in Portugal it is those aged between 25 and 54 who are more critical of their country’s approach to tackling discrimination. A majority in all three countries was in favour of positive measures to provide equal opportunities around sexual orientation in employment, with the strongest support in the UK, followed by Portugal and then Bulgaria.

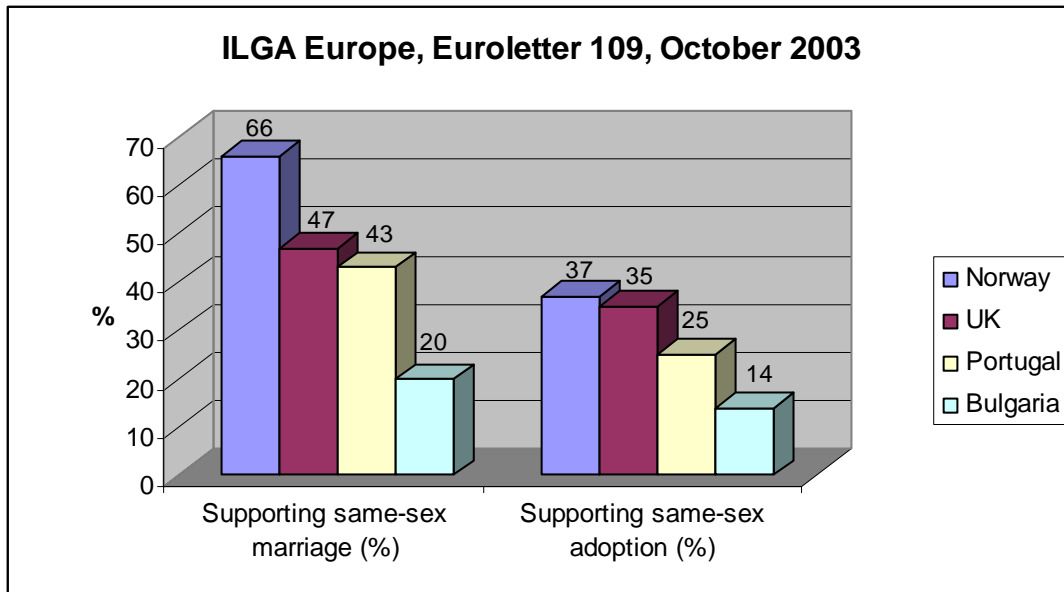


Table based on data available at:

[http://www.ilga-europe.org/europe/publications/euro\\_letter/2003/in\\_english/euroletter\\_109\\_october\\_2003](http://www.ilga-europe.org/europe/publications/euro_letter/2003/in_english/euroletter_109_october_2003)

*Opinions diverge significantly between our four countries on the issues of same-sex marriage and same-sex adoption. Norway has the strongest support for both same-sex marriage and adoption, followed by the UK, then Portugal and, a long way behind, Bulgaria. A majority support same-sex marriage only in Norway.*

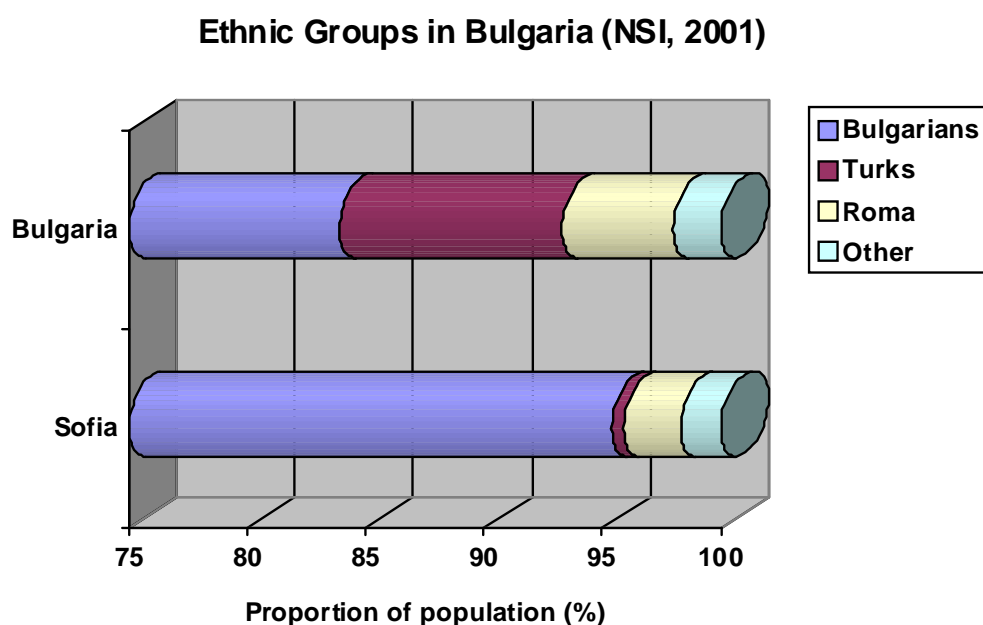


## 4. Ethnic Minority Populations

### 4.1. Bulgaria

The largest ethnic groups in Bulgaria are long-established populations, and recent immigration into the country is relatively insignificant. For example, in 2001 only 43,630 people had the status of indefinite leave to remain and 24,000 had temporary residence permits (Zheliaskova et al., 2005: 15). A large proportion of these migrants are from Russia, and much smaller numbers from Syria, Irak, Iran, Afganistan, China (Zheliaskova et al., 2005: 15). Between 1994 and 2001 there were 7,029 asylum seeker applications, which were made by nationals of 66 different countries (Zheliaskova et al., 2005: 15). In terms of migration Bulgaria can be classified as a “sending” rather than “receiving” country (Institute for Family Policies, 2009; Krasteva, 2005). The amount of immigration is statistically insignificant in relation to the emigration process and as a result, Bulgaria has been losing population.

The graph below shows the structure of the population by ethnic group at the time of the last census in 2001 (data from NSI, 2001a), and demonstrates that three largest ethnic groups are ethnic Bulgarians, ethnic Turks and Roma.



These ethnic groups are distributed across the territory of the country with some regions of particularly high concentration of minoritized groups (see table below). In comparison to the overall ethnic composition of the country, the capital Sofia is considerably less ethnically diverse. The tables below show the distribution of the Bulgarian population by ethnic group, focusing on the three largest groups that are the subject of our research.

	<b>Total population</b>	<b>Ethnic Bulgarians</b>	<b>Ethnic Turks</b>	<b>Roma</b>
Bulgaria	7 928 901	6 655 210	746 664	370 908
Sofia (city)	1 170 842	1 124 240	6 036	17 885
Sofia (suburbs)	273 240	253 536	654	16 748
	<b>Total (%)</b>	<b>Ethnic Bulgarians (%)</b>	<b>Ethnic Turks (%)</b>	<b>Roma (%)</b>
Bulgaria	100	83.9	9.4	4.7
Sofia (city and suburbs)	100	95.4	0.5	2.4

Source: National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria (NSI) (2001a)

## 4.2. Norway

Historically Norway has been a nation of emigration rather than one of immigration. Between 1825 and 1925 approximately 800 000 people emigrated from Norway to the USA. Most left Norway between 1865 and 1910. With a population of 1.7 million in 1865 and 2.4 in 1910, most Norwegian families were affected by emigration. Emigration remained high until WWI, and did not come to a halt until the economic crisis of the 1930s (Engesæther & Sture 2003, Nerbøvik 1999:22.26).

In 1865, 1.2% of the population was born abroad. Since the end of the 1960s, Norway has experienced substantial new immigration, but immigrants still represented only about 1% of the population in the 1970s and the early 1980s. In the 1960s, immigrants arrived in increasing numbers from Southern Europe, Asia, Africa and South America, with most settling in and around Oslo. In 2009, there were 423 000 immigrants and 86 000 Norwegian-born persons with immigrant parents living in Norway. Together these two groups now represent 10.6% of Norway's population. Currently the largest immigrant groups in Norway are from Poland, Sweden, Germany and Iraq. If we also count the Norwegians-born to immigrant parents, Pakistanis are the second largest immigrant group in Norway (after Poland) (SSB 2009i).

In 1975, Norway implemented an official ban on immigration that remains in effect today. The ban does not apply to specified refugee groups and asylum seekers. There are small annual entry quotas for these groups. A certain amount of leeway is also granted for family reunification purposes. Norway is regularly criticised by the UN refugee chief for being too strict and not conforming to UN recommendations.

Several groups are considered “national minorities” in Norway. These are: Kvens (people of Finnish descent in Northern Norway), Jews, Forest Finns, Roma/Gypsies and Romani people/Travellers. All these groups are small in number, but there are no population-statistics on national minorities in Norway.

The traditional Sámi settlement area extends into four countries: Finland, Norway, Russia and Sweden. The Sámi people inhabited these areas long before the establishment of state boundaries, and they are therefore recognized as an indigenous people in Norway. No exact numbers are available regarding the size of the Sámi population in Norway, but estimates

place it somewhere between 40,000 (SSB 2010b) and 100,000 (www.norway.org).

Approximately 15-25,000 Sámi people live in Sweden, while there are over 6,000 in Finland and 2,000 in Russia. Approximately 14,000 (SSB 2010b) people have registered in the Sámi electoral roll in Norway, which comprises a list of all Sámi people over the age of 18 who have registered to vote and take part in elections to the Sámediggi (Sámi Parliament). The Sámi population and some of the national minorities, particularly Kven, Rom and Romani, have been exposed to massive attempts at assimilation, discrimination and partly extinction.

SSBs *census data* are particularly useful for WP6 interests in intimate citizenship. The last census data are from 2001. One can suspect that changes have occurred within the population of Pakistani descent, especially. The next census will take place in 2011. Whilst the 2001 census undertaken through a combination of registered data and interviews, the 2011 census will be done only based on registered data (telephone conversation with SSB, 21.07.2009). There are no statistics on intimate citizenship and the Sámi-population.

#### **4.2.1. Immigrants with a Pakistani background**

Until recently, Pakistanis (counting both first generation and second generation (with two Pakistani born parents) was the largest immigrant group in Norway. Poles have now exceeded this group. The five largest immigrant groups in Norway in 2009 were Poles, Pakistanis, Swedes, Iraqis and Somalis (SSB 2009o).

In 2007 the Pakistani population in Norway (first generation immigrants or descendants born in Norway with two parents born in Pakistan) consisted of a total of 27 700 people (15 500 from the first generation, and 12 200 descendants). If we also include children with 1-4 grandparents in Pakistan in the “Pakistani population”, the number is 30 354 (Henriksen 2007:37). The numbers of women and men are approximately the same. In 2007, 77% of the Norwegian-Pakistani population were Norwegian citizens (Henriksen 2007:40).

Among the marriages performed by first generation Pakistani women in Norway between 1996 and 2005, 97% married a man of Pakistani origin (1.7% to a man without immigration status, 1.5% to an immigrant living in Norway not descending from Pakistan). 23% married a man of Pakistani origin living in Norway, and 74% married a Pakistani man living abroad (usually Pakistan) (Henriksen 2007: 42). Preliminary numbers suggests that the marriage pattern of the second generation could be pretty similar to those of the first generation.

However, the second generation is still so young that it is hard to say how these statistics will look in some years (Henriksen 2007: 42).

In 2006, 85% of the Pakistani population lived in Oslo and Akershus (Henriksen 2007: 37).

In 2005 the statistics showed that while 60% of first generation Pakistani men were in paid work, only 28% of the women had paid work. In no other immigrant group could you find equally strong gender-differences (Henriksen 2008: 37).

Daughters of first generation immigrants seem to do particularly well in the education system. While 36% of the overall female population now enter higher education, 37% of women born in Norway to Pakistani born parents did the same (Daugstad 2008: 64). While 24% of the overall male population enter higher education, 27% of Pakistani boys enter higher education (Daugstad 2008: 64).

In 2001, among women of Pakistani origin between 30 and 44 years, 4.8% had not finished primary and secondary school (as opposed to 0,2% of the majority women in Norway), while 23.6% had only finished the (then) nine years of (compulsory) primary and secondary school (as opposed to 23,5% of the majority women in Norway) . 9.2% had higher education (as opposed to 21.8% of the majority women in Norway (SSB 2003).

#### **4.2.2. Population of Sámi descent**

There are no statistics regarding marriage and divorce amongst the Sámi population.

There is no precise definition of who the Sámi are, and Norway, Sweden, Finland and Russia all have varying criteria. The criteria that need to be met in order to vote in the elections in the Sámi Parliament in Norway are:

- The person must have Sámi as their first language, or at least one of their parents, grandparents or great-grandparents must have or have had Sámi as their first language .The person regards himself to be Sámi.

1150 children go to Sámi kindergartens. 990 children have the Sámi language as their first language in school, and 1650 children have Sami as their second language in school. Several web-sites claim that approximately 5000 Samis live in Oslo. In a discussion on the website of the Sami Social Science Database, it is argued that there are no statistics to legitimate this

estimation. Based on an estimated general Sami population and on migration patterns from the North to the South of Norway, it is suggested that there might be around 20 000 Samis in Oslo (Sámi Instithutta 2008). However, in 2005 only 1 380 persons in the south of Norway had registered as voters to the Sámediggi (Sámi Parliament).

In a 2007 study of 12,000 people (aged 36-79 years old) by the Centre for Sámi Health Research (Senter for Samisk Helseforskning), over 50% of respondents reported that they had experienced discrimination (NRK 2007).

### 4.3. Portugal

Until recent years, Portugal has been a country of emigration, exporting, rather than importing, workers. In 2002 there were over 4.8 million Portuguese living abroad, most of whom lived in Brazil, France, South Africa, US, Venezuela, Germany, Canada, Luxemburg and Switzerland.<sup>13</sup>

	1960-1969	1992-1999	2003
<b>Total number of emigrants</b>	646962	240453	27008
<b>% of women</b>	41.6%	27.2%	23.7%
<b>% of men</b>	58.4%	72.8%	76.3%

Source: CIG, 2007

This scenario has changed and today it is widely recognised that Portugal is a country of immigration. In 2006 there were 409,185 non-Portuguese citizens living in Portugal, of whom 44.6% were women.<sup>14</sup>

	2000	2001	2002	Variation
<b>Non-EU citizens</b>	150.748 (RP)	290.019 (RP+SP)	340.187 (RA+SA)	126%
<b>EU citizens</b>	56.859	61.795	65.393	16%
<b>TOTAL</b>	207.607	351.814	405.580	95%

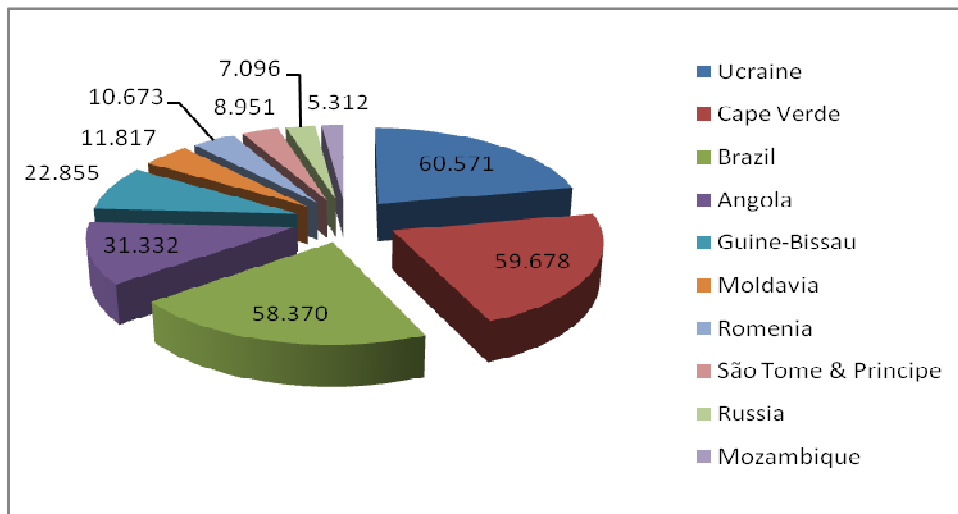
RP = Residential Permit, SP = Staying Permit

Source: <http://www.oi.acidi.gov.pt/docs/rm/estatisticas%20imigracao%20portugal.pdf>  
[accessed 05.06.2009]

<sup>13</sup> Source: Comissão para a Cidadania e Igualdade de Género. 2007. *Igualdade de Género em Portugal*. P. 22.

<sup>14</sup> Source: Comissão para a Cidadania e Igualdade de Género. 2007. *Igualdade de Género em Portugal*. P. 24.

### Non-EU Immigrants in Portugal (2002) (RP + SP):



Graph based on data available at:

<http://www.oi.acidi.gov.pt/docs/rm/estatisticas%20imigracao%20portugal.pdf> [accessed 05.06.2009]

The resident non-Portuguese population is increasing in Portugal. According to the Borders and Immigration Department of the Ministry of the Internal Administration, in 2005 2.6% of the total population were non-Portuguese citizens, most of who came from Africa (45.6% in 2005 against 46.4% in the previous year). The number of immigrants from Cape Verde has slightly declined from 21.0% in 2004 to 20.5% in 2005. There is a steady increase in the proportion of Europeans residents in Portugal (31.6% in 2004 and 32.1% in 2005). Most of the European migrants are from the United Kingdom (6.9%), Spain (5.9%) and Germany (4.9%). The number of Brazilian residents has increased from 10.9% in 2004 to 11.4% in 2005 (EC, 2007c).

In Lisbon, the proportion of Cape-Verdean migrants with a staying permit (which can be renewed up to 5 years) increased from 68.17% in 2001 to 77.59% in 2003. IN 2008 there were 31916 Cape-Verdean citizens residing in Lisbon, out of whom 17079 were women (SEF, 2008).

The Portuguese Constitution states that: “Computerised storage shall not be used for information concerning a person’s ideological or political convictions, party or trade union affiliations, religious beliefs, private life or ethnic origin, except where there is express consent from the data subject, authorisation provided under the law with guarantees of non-discrimination or, in the case of data, for statistical purposes, which does not identify



individuals” (article 35, number 3). Also the Act on the Protection of Personal Data (Law 67/98), which transposed the Council Directive 95/46/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of Europe, established an impediment to collecting ethnically based data (article 7, number 1), unless specific authorisation is granted, which is particularly hard to obtain (Dias et al, 2009). Therefore, there is no official statistical data about the Roma population. According to some NGO-based reports, it is estimated that there are between 35,000 and 50,000 Roma people in Portugal (Dias et al, 2009).

#### 4.4. Great Britain

	<b>Total population</b>	<b>White</b>	<b>Asian or Asian British</b>	<b>Black or Black British</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	<b>Other</b>
GB	58789194	54153898	2331423	1148838	247403	230615
Based on Census 2001						

In 2001 the size of the ethnic minority population in the UK amounted to 4.6 million, 7.9% of the total population. The largest groups were Indians (1.8%), Pakistanis (1.3%), Black Caribbeans (1%), Black Africans (0.8%), Bangladeshis (0.5%) and Chinese (0.4%) (ONS 2002).

The minority ethnic population in Great Britain (excluding Northern Ireland) grew by 53% between the 1991 and 2001 census, and almost half of it lives in the London region. People originally from India, Ireland, Bangladesh, Jamaica, Nigeria, and Pakistan are amongst the largest ethnic minority groups in London (DMAG, 2005b; ONS, 2002).

The Pakistani ethnic group is the second largest in the UK behind ethnic Indians and make up 1.3% of the UK population. 20% of Pakistanis in Britain live in London, almost 15% in Bradford, followed by Pendle (13.4%), Slough (12.1%), Birmingham (10.7%) and Luton (9.2%). Nearly half of all ethnic Pakistanis who reside in the UK were born in Pakistan, the other half in the UK. However it is expected that more and more ethnic Pakistanis in the future will be born in Britain<sup>15</sup>, given the growing fertility rates amongst this group. This last aspect also accounts for the fact that the Pakistani population has a younger profile age range than the national average population in the UK, with a high percentage of individuals aged between 0 and 34. There are slightly more Pakistani males than females (48% females), although this difference increases substantially for those in the 60 to 64 age group where there are more than 60% males, a feature that is explained by the male-dominated migrations of the 1960s and 1970s. Also interesting to note is that between 1991 and 2001, the Pakistani population in the UK increased by 57%, again mostly due to high fertility rates (DMAG, 2005a).

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<sup>15</sup> To be noted that there is also a small percentage of ethnic Pakistanis who were born in other countries, including India or East African countries.

As of 2001, Turkish Cypriots, mainland Turks and Kurdish Turks in the UK were estimated to be around 120,000, 80,000, and 50,000 respectively. With a total of approximately 250,000, the Turkish speaking community in the UK is considered to be one of the country's smaller minority communities (Thomson, 2006). Interestingly however, the majority (approx. 75%) of the Turkish speaking population in the UK has settled in London, where it constitutes one of the *largest* minority groups. According to data gathered in the 1991 UK Census (thus relatively outdated, but confirmed by more recent studies, see Yalcin 2003), the Turkish speaking population is composed of a slightly larger number of men compared to women. A significant proportion of men and women in the TSP are married, but the numbers of single people are still considerably high.

## **ANNEX 1:**

### **BULGARIA: Government Policy and the Second Demographic Transition Approach<sup>16</sup>**

The demographic development of the country has been the focus of heated government, public and academic debate in Bulgaria recently. At the centre of this debate is statistical data showing that Bulgaria's population has declined from 8,948,649 people in 1985 to 7,718,750 in 2005, which is a reduction of approximately 1.23 million people over 20 years (National Statistical Institute (NSI), 2004), and is mostly due to emigration and a decline in the birth rate. A second trend is the ageing of the population: from an average age of 39.9 in 2000 to 41.4 years in 2006 (NSI, 2006). The proportion of people aged 65+ has been steadily increasing: from 9.7% of the population in 1970, to 12% in 1980, 15.2% in 1996, and to 17.3% in 2007 (NSI, 2006; EC, 2007a). The proportion of children aged between 0-14 years has been declining over the same period: from 22.7% of the population in 1970, to 22.1% in 1980, 17.7% in 1996, and to 13.4% in 2007 (NSI, 2006; EC, 2007a). These demographic changes have been evaluated as a 'serious demographic crisis' (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, 2006: 5), creating problems for future governments in relation to infrastructure and the social security system.

The key negative points, as discussed in the National Strategy for Demographic Development of Bulgaria 2006-2020 (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, 2006), are the decrease in the overall size of the population, the declining birth rate, high levels of mortality (general, untimely, and children's mortality), the ageing of the population, and migration (especially emigration and the depopulation of certain rural areas). Consequently, the government has adopted a demographic policy that aims at 'stimulating births by creating a favourable environment for raising and educating children' (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, 2006: 40, my translation). This involves financial stimuli for parents, assistance in the reconciliation of employment and parenting, improved education and healthcare for children, and also 'recognition of family as a base component of society and encouraging parents to raise children in a family environment' (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, 2006: 42, my translation). I would suggest that this population 'panic' represents a push towards the re-traditionalisation of family life, and puts greater pressure on young adults, especially women, to have children.

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<sup>16</sup> Text from Stoilova (2009: 91-94)

In their attempt to explain these changes, academics, researchers, and government experts in Bulgaria (see for example Spasovska, 2000; Sugareva, 2003; Dimitrova, 2005; Minkov, 2005; Kotzeva et al., 2005; Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, 2006) often refer to the classical Western European model of 'the second demographic transition' (van de Kaa, 1996; Lesthaeghe and Neels, 2002; Therborn, 2004). The theory suggests that there have been two demographic transitions, both characterised by transformations from high to lower mortality and fertility rates. This shift towards lower fertility, a longer life and older populations caused an initial population growth and then a decline (Lee, 2003: 167). These transformations, according to Lee (2003), are related to many other changes, for instance in family structure (people having fewer children), health (improved health and higher life expectancy), additional insurance and saving institutions in support of longer life in retirement, and even in international flows of people and capital (Lee, 2003: 185).

Different authors suggest different periods for the first and second demographic transitions. According to Lesthaeghe and Neels (2002), the first demographic transition relates to the period up until the early 1960s when the average age at first marriage and at childbirth began to decline. During this period the number of marriages was on the increase, the divorce rate was low, and extra marital birth and cohabitation were rare (Lesthaeghe and Neels, 2002). The concept of the second demographic transition was introduced by Lesthaeghe and van de Kaa in 1986 and describes a lengthy period with the fertility rate below the replacement level (Lesthaeghe and Neels, 2002). It also relates to a decline in marriage, a rise in divorce, a lower remarriage rate, rising age at first marriage and the 'postponement' of childbirth, premarital cohabitation and procreation outside wedlock, later home leaving, and more solo living (Lesthaeghe and Neels, 2002).

As Lesthaeghe and Neels suggest, 'more existential and expressive needs arise [and] the most fundamental hallmark of all is the accentuation of individual autonomy and self-actualisation' (Lesthaeghe and Neels, 2002: 334-335). These are expressed in a growing tolerance for ethnic and sexual minorities, a rise in individualism, but also in reduced social control and the rejection of authority, aspirations for greater gender equality and for female autonomy (Lesthaeghe and Neels, 2002). The main criticisms of the second demographic transition theory, as summarised by Sobotka (2008), are:

- first, that there are no clear grounds for distinguishing two demographic transitions;

- second, that the theory assumes start and end points for each transition but these have not been defined;
- third, that the theory assumes an eventual convergence among countries and diverse social groups, which does not seem to have happened;
- fourth, it is assumed that there is a synchronicity between behavioural and value changes, which is problematic;
- and fifth, that the theory is mostly based on demographic processes occurring in North-West Europe and therefore is likely to be less relevant for other countries, especially less developed ones.

It also has to be pointed out that Bulgarian scholars adopting the second demographic transition approach rarely explore how these socio-demographic transformations are linked to cultural shifts, changes in lifestyle and individual values (for example Sugareva, 2003; Zhekova, 2000). Such critics usually represent the changes in negative terms, as a breakdown of close relationships, care, and long-term commitment (see for example Spasovska, 1995; Keremidchieva, 1998; Chalakova, 2004).

## ANNEX 2:

### Social attitudes towards sexual orientation in Portugal

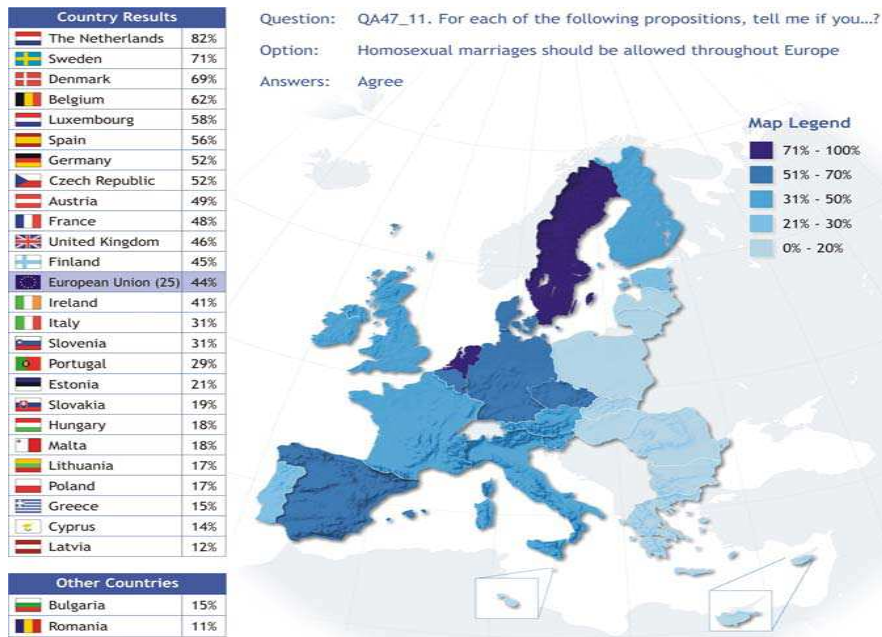
Social attitudes in relation to sexual orientation are changing in Portugal, which can largely be attributed to the multilayered and syncretic strategies of the LGBT movement since 1995 (Santos, 2008). From a time, in 1998, in which 48% of the respondents to a social survey declared that sexuality should only be allowed between a man and a woman (Pais, 1998: 411), in 2006 67% recognised that discrimination based on sexual orientation is very common (EU average 50%) and 45% believed that it had increased over the past five years (EU average 31%).<sup>17</sup> Between these dates, in 2003, a study placed Portugal below the European average of acceptance of homosexuality – in a scale between 1 (= homosexuality is always justifiable) and 10 (homosexuality is never justifiable), Portugal was placed at 3.19 (the EU average was 5.36) (Vala *et al*, 2003: 100). These data are also similar to the results obtained from survey conducted by the consultancy company Euro RSCG in 2005.<sup>18</sup> According to this, 51% of respondents accepted homosexuality as a legitimate sexual orientation (the EU average was 64%). Age seems to play an important differentiating role, as 75% of respondents between 18 and 24 years old accepted homosexuality, whereas only 25% of respondents over 65 years old did.

In the 2006 *Eurobarometer* study, when respondents were asked about same-sex marriage, Portugal presented a lower rate of acceptance than the EU average (29% against 42%):

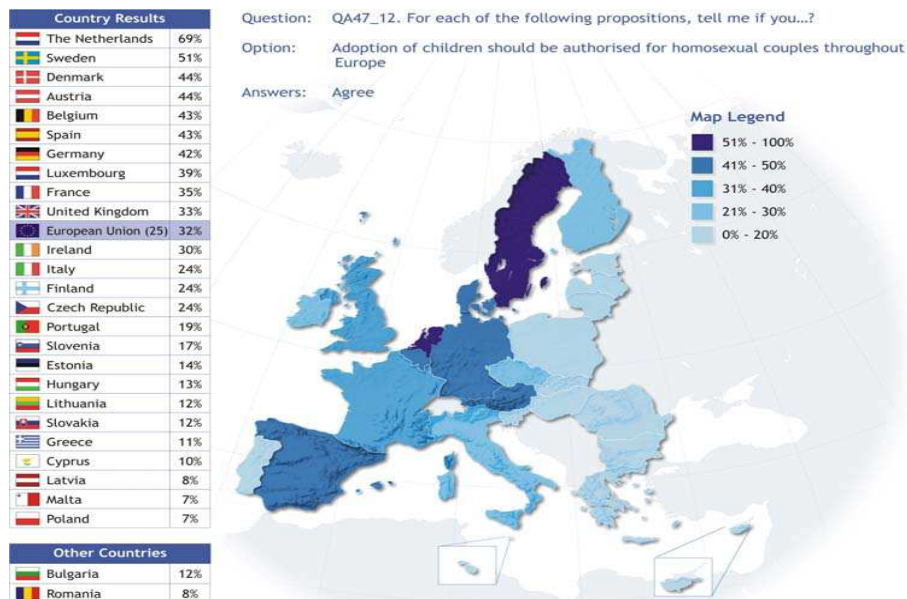
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<sup>17</sup> For a brief report see: [http://ec.europa.eu/public\\_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs\\_263\\_sum\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_263_sum_en.pdf). Full text, by country, available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/public\\_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs\\_263\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_263_en.pdf) [accessed 19/05/2008].

<sup>18</sup> In this survey, 15 questions were asked by phone, in April 2005, in 10 European countries – Czech Republic, Germany, Finland, France, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and UK. In each country there were about one thousand respondents. Source: *Público* on-line 05/06/2005.



In terms of same-sex adoption, the rate of agreement decreased, both the EU average and the Portuguese (31% and 19%, respectively).

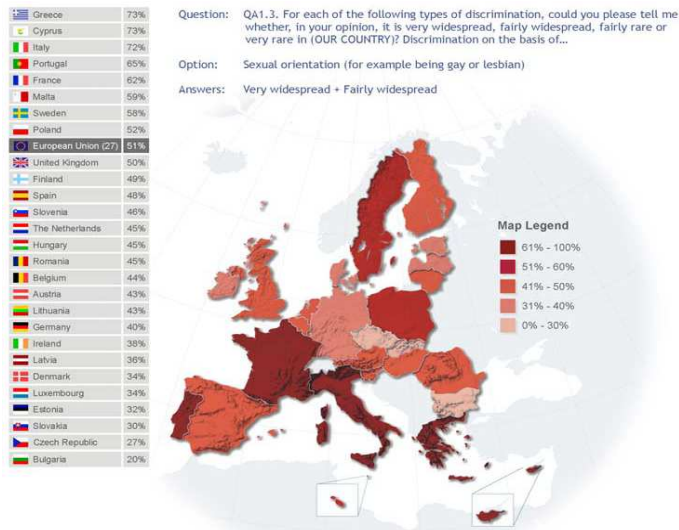


In response to the 2008 *Eurobarometer* question about how the respondent would personally feel about having a lesbian or gay neighbour, Portugal scored 6.6 and the EU average was 7.9 (1 equals very uncomfortable and 10 equals very comfortable). This report says:

Examining country results, we can see that discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation is seen as being particularly widespread in many of the Mediterranean



countries. For example, the three countries where it is seen as most widespread are Cyprus, Greece (both 73%) and Italy (72%). Portugal (65%) and France (59%) also have results above the EU average of 51%.<sup>19</sup>



<sup>19</sup> Source: [http://www.antidiscrimination-project-bulgaria.net/en/downloads/eurobarometer\\_report2008.pdf](http://www.antidiscrimination-project-bulgaria.net/en/downloads/eurobarometer_report2008.pdf) [accessed 21.05.2009].

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