

**GRANDPARENTS CARING FOR THEIR
GRANDCHILDREN: FINDINGS FROM THE 2004
SURVEY OF HEALTH, AGEING AND
RETIREMENT IN EUROPE**

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Grandparents Caring for Their Grandchildren: Findings from the 2004 Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe

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Abstract: Introducing findings from the 2004 Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE), this research complements the large number of recent U.S. studies on the role of grandparents in caring for their grandchildren. For 10 continental European countries, we investigate cross-national variations in grandparent provided child care as well as differences in characteristics of the providers and recipients of care. While we find a strong involvement of grandparents in their grandchildren's care across all countries, we also identify significant variations in the prevalence and intensity of care along the geographic lines of different child care and (maternal/female) employment regimes in Europe. Rooted in long-standing family cultures, the observed patterns suggest a complex interaction between welfare-state provided services and intergenerational family support in shaping the work-family nexus for younger parents. We conclude with a brief discussion of possible consequences of grandmothers' increasing labor force participation for child care arrangements.

Keywords: grandparents; grandchildren; child care; Europe; SHARE

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Introduction

Today, unprecedented low numbers of children are born in all contemporary western societies, but due to advances in longevity generations still enjoy ‘longer years of shared lives’ than ever before (e.g., Bengtson & Lowenstein 2003; Uhlenberg 1996). This has been suggested to result in an increasing relevance of multigenerational bonds (cf. Bengtson 2001), and recent studies have indeed shown that intergenerational solidarity continues to be strong across a wide variety of family systems (e.g., Attias-Donfut et al. 2005b; Hank 2007; Yi & Farrell 2006), despite previous concerns about a possible ‘decline’ of the family (e.g., Popenoe 1993).

A particular and important form of multigenerational family support is child care provided by grandparents¹, which has received considerable attention in many U.S. studies (e.g., Fuller-Thomson & Minkler 2001; Hayslip & Kaminski 2005; Pebley & Rudkin 1999; Vandell et al. 2003). The availability of grandparents and its implications regarding, for example, fertility decisions or mothers’ labor force participation has also been investigated in the European context (e.g., Gray 2005; Hank & Kreyenfeld 2003), which is characterized by very diverse regimes of fertility, female employment, and child care (e.g., Brewster & Rindfuss 2000). A comprehensive cross-national account of European grandparents’ engagement in child care, though, is yet missing (see, however, Attias-Donfut et al. 2005a; Dimova & Wolff 2006).

This study uses recent data from the 2004 Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE) to investigate differences in the *prevalence and intensity* of grandparent-provided child care as well as differences in characteristics of the *providers and recipients* of care across 10 continental European countries. In the next section, we concisely review findings of previous research, followed by a description of our data and method. After the presentation of empirical findings, we conclude with a brief discussion

¹ See Fruhauf et al. (2005) for a study of *grandchildren* caring for their *grandparents*.

of possible consequences of grandmothers' increasing labor force participation for child care arrangements.

What do we know about grandparent caregiving?

Grandparent provided child care is a core component of family support in the broader context of intergenerational exchanges, constituting an important emotional and economic resource for parents and children alike (e.g., Brandon 2000; Bass & Caro 1996; Silverstein et al. 2003: 80f.).² Although the proportion of children living with grandparents appears to have remained relatively stable over time, the absolute number of U.S. grandparents providing custodial care, i.e. acting as the *sole* caretakers of underage grandchildren, increased substantially during the 1990s (cf. Hayslip & Kaminski 2005; Mutchler & Baker 2004; Pebley & Rudkin 1999). This development has often been suggested to result from a significant increase in social problems, such as drug abuse or teenage pregnancy, affecting parents' ability to take the responsibility for their children.

A much more common arrangement, however, is that of grandparents providing child care *assistance* to non-coresident kin. When parental care is not available, because, for example, both parents participate in the labor market, relative care appears to be the most popular alternative and among family relatives grandparents are preferred the most (e.g., Brandon 2000; Wheelock & Jones 2002). Guzman (1999; 2004), for example, reports that almost 50% of grandparents in the U.S. provide some type of child care, a number that is very similar to the respective shares observed in Europe (cf. Attias-Donfut et al. 2005a, 2005b). In this larger group, various types or patterns of grandparent provided child care have been identified. Cherlin & Furstenberg (1986), for example, suggest a classification of grandparents and their relationships to grandchildren where they distinguish influential, supportive, passive, authority-oriented, and detached clusters (see also Mueller et al. 2002).

² These benefits may not always come without a price, though. Custodial grandparents in particular have been shown to experience significant caregiver burden and lower life satisfaction (e.g., Goodmann & Silverstein 2006; but see Hughes et al. 2007).

Vandell et al. (2003), who focus on the intensity of care rather than on the relationship content, discriminate between extended full-time (30 or more hours per week), extended part-time (less than 30 hours per week), sporadic, and no routine care received by grandchildren (see also Fuller-Thomson & Minkler 2001).

The extent to which grandparents get involved in child care has been suggested to be driven primarily by the *availability (and willingness) of grandparents* as well as by the *needs (and preferences) of parents and their children*, and – to a lesser degree – also by the quality of intergenerational ties (see Guzman 1999, for example). Thus, characteristics of grandparents, parents, and grandchildren will be relevant and should be considered jointly in empirical analyses, taking a three-generation perspective (Hagestad 2006).³

Socio-demographic characteristics and availability of grandparents. Grandmothers are more likely to be engaged in child care than grandfathers, particularly if intensive care is considered, but a considerable share of older men provide some kind of care for their grandchildren as well (cf. Attias-Donfut et al. 2005a; Guzman 2004). With regard to age, British evidence suggests that the provision of child care peaks among women in their 50s and 60s (Gray 2005). Silverstein & Marengo (2001) show that younger U.S. grandparents tend to live closer to and have greater contact (including baby-sitting) with grandchildren, whereas older grandparents rather provide financial assistance. With respect to labor force participation, Guzman (2004) reports that a higher percentage of employed grandparents provide child care than those who are not employed or retired. The intensity of child care provided by gainfully employed grandparents, however, might be lower than among retirees and an increasing labor force participation of older women might thus threaten the role of grandparents as regularly available carers (e.g., Attias-Donfut et al. 2005a; Gray 2005). The potentially confounding role of health differentials in the observed associations of child care with grandparents' age and employment is yet underinvestigated. Clear evidence, however, exists for a close positive relationship between geographic proximity,

³ Because our study's empirical focus is on child care assistance, we will not discuss the particular determinants of custodial care (see Pebley & Rudkin [1999] for an overview).

particularly coresidence, and grandparents' propensity to provide child care (e.g., Baydar & Brooks-Gunn 1998; Guzman 2004; Vandell et al. 2003).

Socio-demographic characteristics and needs of parents and (grand-)children. Maternal (full-time) employment as well as working non-standard hours has been shown to be positively associated with a greater involvement of grandparents in child care (e.g., Kuhltau & Mason 1996; Presser 1989; Vandell et al. 2003). Also, younger mothers are more likely to use grandparent care (e.g., Baydar & Brooks-Gunn 1998; Vandell et al. 2003). Divorce in the middle generation often brings about a decline in the quality of the grandparent-grandchild relationships and particularly grandparents on the paternal side are at risk of losing contact with grandchildren (cf. Hagestad 2006; Silverstein et al. 2003: 79f.). Ambiguous evidence exists regarding the significance of maternal education, single parenthood, and family income for using grandparent care (e.g., Guzman 1999; Kuhltau & Mason 1996; Presser 1989; Vandell et al. 2003). Finally, studies consistently show that younger, i.e. preschool-aged, grandchildren are most likely to be cared for by grandparents (e.g., Guzman 2004; Silverstein & Marengo 2001), whereas other potentially relevant demographic characteristics, such as the child's gender or number of siblings, appear to be unrelated to grandparent caregiving (e.g., Guzman 1999; Höpflinger & Hummel 2006).

Proposing “that grandparent role enactment is a social construction that varies across personal and historical time, as well as across cultural and regional contexts”, Silverstein et al. (2003: 75, 83) note that

“[t]he type and level of grandparent involvement have a basis in cultural norms that emphasize or downplay the role of grandparents and in the social and economic organizational aspects of the region that create or inhibit opportunities for grandparents to contribute to the family unit.”

Thus, examinations of grandparenting patterns in the *European setting* also need to consider the role of cultural, socio-demographic, and welfare state related contextual factors that vary across countries. These factors include family norms (e.g. regarding filial and parental responsibilities; cf. Reher 1998), opportunity structures for kin availability

(e.g. geographic proximity and frequency of contacts; cf. Hank 2007), including variations in older women's labor force participation (cf. Brugiavini et al. 2005: 237), and public policies supporting families. Because the availability of institutional child care has often been suggested to have a significant impact on mothers' employment (e.g., Stolzenberg & Waite 1984; Uunk et al. 2005) and, eventually, on the demand for child care provided by grandparents or other kin (e.g., Gray 2005; Van Dijk & Siegers 1996), we particularly expect to find significant differences in the intensity of grandparent provided care along the geographic lines of different child care and (maternal/female) employment regimes in Europe (e.g., Brewster & Rindfuss 2000; Gornick et al. 1998; Gustafsson & Stafford 1994).

Data and method

The data for this study are drawn from the first public release version of the 2004 Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE; see Börsch-Supan et al., 2005). Release 1 of the data contains information on some 22,000 individuals aged 50 or older from 15,000 households in Austria, Denmark, France, Greece, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and Spain. These 10 countries represent continental Europe's economic, social, institutional, and cultural diversity from Scandinavia to the Mediterranean. Probability samples were drawn in all participating countries, but the respective institutional conditions with respect to sampling are so different that a uniform sampling design for the entire project was infeasible. As a result, the sampling designs used vary from a simple random selection of households (in the Danish case, for example, from the country's central population register) to rather complicated multistage designs (as, for example, in Greece, where the telephone directory was used as a sampling frame). The weighted average household response rate is 62%, ranging from 38% in Switzerland to 74% in France (a thorough description of methodological issues is contained in Börsch-Supan & Jürges, 2005).

All grandparents were asked whether they looked after any grandchildren ‘without the presence of the parents’ during the 12 months before the interview, and, if they did, whose child that was and how often that was on average. If a person reported to have cared for grandchildren from more than one child, the analysis is restricted to that child, for whom the greatest frequency of caregiving was reported (or, if that did not suffice as an unambiguous selection criterion, we chose the youngest child with the greatest frequency of care). If a respondent reported to have more than one grandchild but did not look after any of them, the youngest grandchild and his or her parent was selected for inclusion in the multivariate analysis. We concentrate on grandparents with at least one grandchild under the age of 16 (cf. Gray 2005). Excluding respondents with missing or inconsistent information on children, grandchildren or social support, results in a sample of roughly 10,000 observations.

We estimate two separate logit models. In the first model, the binary dependent variable equals 1, if the respondent reported to have provided any child care, 0 otherwise. In the subsequent model, the sample is restricted to grandparents who reported to have looked after a grandchild at all and the binary dependent variable equals 1, if child care was provided ‘almost weekly or more often’, 0 otherwise (i.e. ‘less often than almost weekly’). This analytic strategy basically amounts to estimating a hurdle or two-step model, i.e. the coefficients of one covariate are not restricted to affect the various grandchild care outcomes in the same way. Moreover, to facilitate the interpretation of the coefficients for the ten *country indicators* in the regression, we use effect coding as a readily available alternative to the dummy coding approach. Effect coding uses contrast weights that result in tests of deviations of group means from the intercept coefficient, which inherits the value of the grand mean (see, for example, Wendorf [2004: 54f.]).

In all models, which we run separately for grandfathers and grandmothers, the right-hand side variables include information on the grandparent, on the mother or father of the grandchild (depending on who of them is the SHARE respondent’s child), and on the grandchild. *Grandparent characteristics* are age (three categories: 50-59, 60-69, and 70+

years), partnership status (indicating whether the respondent lives in a union), employment status (working vs. non-working), health (a binary indicator of ADL limitations), and geographic proximity to the grandchild's parent (three categories: living in the same house/-hold, less than 5 km apart⁴, or more than 5 km apart). *Parent characteristics* are sex, partnership status (a binary indicator of whether the parent lives in a union), and – for a subset of analyses – the mother's employment status (working vs. non-working). The latter information is only available, if the selected grandchild's mother is the respondent's daughter. The only *characteristic of the grandchild* that we can derive from the SHARE data is his or her age (5 categories: 0, 1-2, 3-5, 6-10, and 11-15 years).

In our descriptive analysis we also exploit information from one of the survey's self-completion questionnaires, where respondents were asked how much they agreed with the statement: “*Grandparents' duty is to help grandchildren's parents in looking after young grandchildren.*” We dichotomized the original answer categories, which resulted in a variable that equals 1, if the respondent (strongly) agreed, 0 otherwise. The self-completion questionnaire version that includes this information was not administered to the full SHARE sample (cf. Börsch-Supan & Jürges 2005), which results in a somewhat smaller number of observations for this part of our analysis. – See *Table 1* for pooled descriptive statistics.

[Table 1 about here]

⁴ Based on a review of empirical studies, Gray (2005: 563) suggests a ‘threshold’ of 15 to 20 minutes journey time to the grandparents’ home beyond which mothers perceive daily child care arrangements as unsatisfactory.

Empirical findings

*Descriptive findings*⁵

An examination of the overall level of grandparent provided child care reveals a generally high prevalence of such intergenerational support: across all countries in our study, 58% of grandmothers and 49% of grandfathers provided some kind of care for a grandchild aged 15 or younger over a 12 months period (see *Figure 1a*). Grandfathers' high participation in child care is consistent with previous evidence from the U.S. (cf. Guzman 2004) and varies cross-nationally to a similar extent as grandmother's involvement in care. Somewhat surprisingly, the lowest shares of grandparents caring for grandchildren are found in Spain, Italy, and Switzerland (just above 50% of grandmothers and only slightly more than 40% of grandfathers), whereas the highest prevalence of care is observed in Sweden, France, the Netherlands, and Denmark. Grandparents in the latter two countries are particularly active: not only do 65% or more of the grandmothers provide at least some child care, but also about 60% of grandfathers.

The order of countries changes almost completely, if we focus on the intensity of grandchild care and consider only those grandparents, who provide any child care at all (see *Figure 1b*). We distinguish between *regular care* (almost weekly or more often) and *occasional care* (less often than almost weekly). Sweden and Denmark, but also France, exhibit below average levels of regular child care by grandparents, whereas the respective share of Greek and Italian, but also Spanish grandparents is almost twice as high as in the Scandinavian countries (roughly 40% vs. 20%). With 32% of grandmothers and 25% of grandfathers looking almost weekly or more often after grandchildren, Austria, Germany, the Netherlands, and Switzerland take an average position. Among regular carers, the gender gap – in terms of a stronger involvement of grandmothers – is somewhat more pronounced than among grandparents providing any child care.

⁵ This section updates and extends a previous analysis by Attias-Donfut et al. (2005a), which was based on a non-public release of the 2004 SHARE data.

Our final descriptive analysis pertains to grandparents' agreement with the statement that it is their duty to help grandchildren's parents in looking after young grandchildren (see *Figure 1c*). Whereas a clear majority of grandparents expresses support for this statement, irrespective of whether they never provided child care during the preceding 12 months (73%), cared occasionally (71%), or regularly (82%), we observe substantial cross-national variation. Compliance is very high in the Mediterranean countries (and almost universal among frequent carers in Greece) as well as in Germany and France, whereas a child care 'norm' finds only very limited support in Denmark and the Netherlands: even among grandparents who cared for a grandchild on a weekly or even daily basis, barely 50% agree that this is a duty for the elder generation.

[Figure 1 about here]

Multivariate results

The outcomes of the control variables are fairly similar in both the model that we use to estimate the probability to provide any grandchild care (*Model 1*) and the model estimating the propensity to provide regular care (*Model 2*); see *Table 2*. With regard to *age*, grandfathers' probability to provide any child care peaks at age 60-69, and grandmothers' propensity to care for a grandchild (at all as well as regularly) is lowest among those aged 70 or older.⁶ While *partnership status* bears no significant correlation with grandmothers' probability to look after grandchildren, lone grandfathers are less likely to care than those living with a partner, which suggests that some of the grandfather involvement indicated by the descriptive analysis is mediated through grandmothers' engagement in childcare. Grandparents' *employment status* is unrelated to their propensity to provide grandchild care in general, but working grandparents are clearly less likely to care on a regular basis than their counterparts who are not gainfully employed. *Health* (i.e. ADL) limitations are

⁶ It is worth noting that in our sample 42% of grandfathers and 38% of grandmothers aged 70 years and older are providing grandchild care.

associated with lower probabilities of grandparents to care for a grandchild at all, and this negative association also holds for grandmothers' propensity to provide regular care. The likelihood of caring decreases unambiguously with increasing *geographic distance* between the older and the younger generations, particularly so if regular grandchild care is considered. *Maternal grandparents* are more likely to be involved in both any and regular child care. *Lone parents* have a greater chance to be supported by grandfathers and grandmothers if any child care is considered, whereas only grandmothers exhibit a statistically significant higher propensity to care for a grandchild living with a single parent. Eventually, turning to the *grandchild's age*, both models reveal a clear pattern indicating that grandparent provided child care is less likely among toddlers (compared to children aged 1 or 2), but generally decreases with age.

Even when this broad set of grandparent, parent, and grandchild characteristics is controlled for in the multivariate analysis, substantial differences in country coefficients are found, which continue to support the pattern already indicated in *Figure 1*, suggesting the existence of three distinct regional groups. Grandparents in Austria, Germany, and Switzerland exhibit an average propensity to provide both any and regular child care. Danish, Dutch, French and Swedish grandparents are most likely to care at all, but least likely to look after a grandchild regularly. And finally, grandparents in the Mediterranean countries are less likely than the average European grandparent to provide any child care, but those who do care are the ones being most likely to do so regularly (note that the coefficient for the Greek country dummy in *Model 1* has a negative sign but is not statistically significant).

[Table 2 about here]

For a subsample of our data, we included the employment status of the selected grandchild's mother. SHARE provides this information only, if the mother is the respondent's daughter. The outcomes of the control variables and country indicators in this subset of analyses are almost identical to the results for the full sample described above (cf.

Table A1 in the Appendix). As expected, the probability that grandparents provide any or regular child care is generally lower, if the grandchild's mother is not gainfully employed (distinguishing further between full-time and part-time employment does not yield different results). In a final set of analyses we ran separate regressions by country (region, respectively), which provided no indication for structural differences in the relationship between grandparent's propensity to engage in child care and the right-hand side variables, however (details not shown here).

Discussion

Our analysis of grandparent provided child care in 10 continental European countries adds further to the picture of continuously close intergenerational exchanges in contemporary societies that has been portrayed in a number of recent studies (e.g., Attias-Donfut et al. 2005b; Hank 2007; Yi & Farrell 2006). Across Europe, high levels of support are found with regard to both the prevalence and the intensity of child care provided by grandmothers and grandfathers. Across a variety of country contexts, the analysis also confirms the near-universal relevance of socio-demographic characteristics related to the availability and needs of the providers and recipients of informal child care (such as age or employment status). Still, we also find partial support for a north-south gradient in Europe, in terms of actual child care provided by grandparents as well as in terms of compliance to support norms. However, our results indicate that one must not oversimplify regional patterns of family support in Europe (see Glaser et al. [2004] for a related discussion). Caution is recommended, not only because the observed gradient exhibits outliers that would not fit into a mere dichotomy of 'weak' versus 'strong' family countries, but also because the direction of the gradient is ambiguous.

This is the most striking finding in our analysis: the probability to provide some kind of child care is highest among Danish, Dutch, French, and Swedish grandparents and lowest among their Mediterranean counterparts in Spain and Italy, whereas – conditioned on the provision of any grandchild care – Greek, Italian and Spanish grandparents exhibit

the highest and Dutch, French as well as elders from the Nordic countries exhibit the lowest propensity to care frequently (almost every week or more often). We suggest three complimentary explanations for this outcome, which cannot be attributed to cross-national differences in grandparents' labor force participation or geographic proximity (cf. Attias-Donfut et al. 2005a), potential confounders which we control for in the multivariate analysis.

Our findings are, *first*, consistent with results from a recent cross-national analysis of broader intergenerational exchanges of time and money conducted by Albertini et al. (2007). The authors conclude

“that co-residence is *the* Southern European way of transferring resources from parents to children and *vice versa*. This is the norm, and when it happens that an elderly parent remains alone he/she is less likely to give or receive help than an elderly parent in the Continental or Nordic countries. On the other hand, in the relatively few cases, in which resource exchange does take place between non-co-residing parents and children, it tends to be much more intense than in other counties, thus probably resembling what in the ‘normal’ families occurs within the household. In the Nordic countries, where intergenerational co-residence is rare, family support tends to revolve around separate households and to be less intense.”

Thus, given that the presence of grandchildren unequivocally reduces the propensity of parents and adult children to co-reside (cf. Hank 2007), the pattern of grandparent provided child care described in our study should not come as a surprise.

Secondly, variations in the interpretation of the meaning of “looking after grandchildren” among SHARE countries might play a role. In a study of adult children's support to older parents, Ogg & Renaut (2005) detect a north-south gradient that is very similar to the one we find for grandchild care: while the proportions of the younger generation providing *any* practical help to their parents were high in the Nordic countries and low in the Mediterranean, the shares of helpers who provided *regular* help had an inverse pattern, being low in the north and much higher in the south. The authors suggest

that the observed differences could “arise from the need for a certain social distance between donors and recipients before ‘help’ and ‘social support’ are recognized and reported. In close families, [...] activities that involve ‘low-key’ support may not be construed as being ‘help’ or ‘support’ (Ogg & Renaut 2005: 739).” Along the same lines, one might expect that Southern European grandparents will only report to have provided child care, if the intensity of care has passed a certain threshold, which is likely to be lower in Northern European countries.

Finally, and *thirdly*, our observations may also be connected to variations in child care and (female/maternal) employment regimes in Europe. While, for example, the provision of full-time care and coverage with slots for children under the age of three in the Nordic countries is at or even above 40%, much lower levels (< 10%) are prevalent in Southern Europe or (West) Germany (e.g., Andersson et al. 2004; Del Boca 2002; Hank & Kreyenfeld 2003). Similarly strong differences are found with regard to female labor force participation, which is well below 50% in the Mediterranean countries, whereas more than three quarters of women in the Scandinavian countries are gainfully employed (cf. Brewster & Rindfuss 2000; Uunk et al. 2005). This gap increases even further, if maternal employment is considered. Thus, a likely situation in Sweden or Denmark – and also in France (see Köppen 2006, for example) – is that publicly provided child care creates an opportunity structure that fosters maternal employment, but that many grandparents are needed to complement institutional care occasionally (e.g. if the grandchild’s mother needs to work extra time). In Greece, Italy, and Spain, on the other hand, the lack of public day care for children inhibits maternal employment and there is only limited demand for grandparents to step in, because mothers tend to be full-time carers. If, however, a Mediterranean mother decides to seek gainful employment, she has to rely on grandparents’ support on a regular basis (see also Wheelock & Jones [2002] on complementary child care and parents’ employment in Britain).

Rooted in long-standing family cultures (Reher 1998), these European patterns of grandparent provided child care suggest a complex interaction between services provided

by the welfare state and intergenerational family support in shaping the work-family nexus for younger parents. Our analysis also shows that welfare states do not crowd out families, but provides further evidence for mixed responsibilities (see Motel-Klingebiel et al. [2005] for a related discussion). The continuing role of grandmothers in maternal labor supply, however, raises concerns about the possible consequences of a greater and longer participation of grandmothers in the labor force (e.g., Dimova & Wolff 2006; Gray 2005). If grandmothers will be increasingly involved in gainful employment, the need to balance work and family commitments will become a multigenerational family matter rather than a challenge for younger parents alone – and, in parallel, families and welfare states will have to newly balance their *joint* responsibility to provide adequate care for future generations of children.

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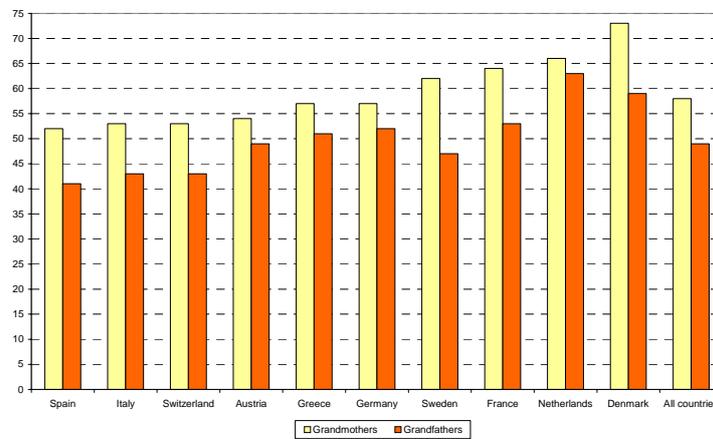
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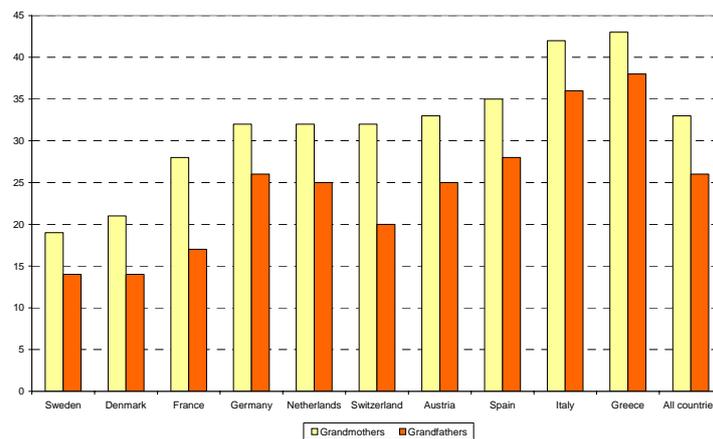
Figure & Tables

Figure 1: Grandparents caring for their grandchildren in 10 European countries

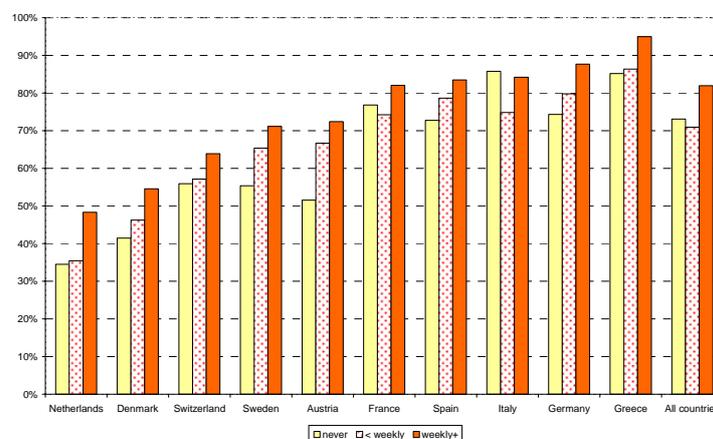
(a) Grandmothers and grandfathers who provided *any* child care over the past 12 months (in %; countries sorted in ascending order for grandmothers)



(b) Grandmothers and grandfathers who provided child care ‘almost weekly or more often’ over the past 12 months (in %; countries sorted in ascending order)



(c) Grandparents’ agreement to ‘child care norm’ by frequency of care (in %; countries sorted in ascending order for the category ‘weekly+’)



Source: SHARE 2004 (Release 1), weighted data, authors’ calculations.

Table 1: Pooled descriptive sample statistics (unweighted percentages)

	Grandfathers	Grandmothers	Grandparents
<i>Provision of grandchild care during last 12 months</i>			
Never	49	39	43
Less than almost weekly	27	29	28
Almost weekly or more often	24	32	28
<i>Socio-demographic characteristics of grandparent</i>			
50-59	23	31	27
60-69	44	42	43
70+	34	27	30
Living with partner	90	73	81
Working	23	19	21
1 or more ADL limitations	9	9	9
Living in the same house/-hold with child	7	9	8
Living up to 5 km apart from child	37	38	38
Living more than 5 km apart from child	55	53	55
<i>Socio-demographic characteristics of parent</i>			
Female	55	53	54
Living with partner	92	91	92
<i>Grandchild's characteristics</i>			
0 years	10	9	9
1-2 years	28	25	26
3-5 years	24	24	24
6-10 years	23	25	24
11-15 years	15	17	16
<i>Country of residence</i>			
Sweden	17	16	17
Denmark	8	8	8
Germany	13	12	12
The Netherlands	15	14	14
France	8	8	8
Switzerland	4	3	3
Austria	8	9	9
Italy	10	11	11
Spain	10	11	10
Greece	6	7	7
N (unweighted)	4,590	5,701	10,291
<i>Grandparent's agreement to childcare norm^a</i>			
(Strong) agreement	46	48	47
N (unweighted)	3,264	4,073	7,337

Source: SHARE 2004 (Release 1), authors' calculations. ^a Obtained from the survey's self-completion questionnaire.

Table 2: Results of logit models for the provision of ‘any grandchild care’ and ‘regular grandchild care’ using effect coding

	<i>Model 1:</i>		<i>Model 2:</i>	
	<i>Provision of any care</i>		<i>Provision of regular care</i>	
	Grandfathers	Grandmothers	Grandfathers	Grandmothers
<i>Grandparent characteristics</i>				
<i>Age</i>				
50-59 ^a	0	0	0	0
60-69	0.34***	0.05	-0.19	0.07
70+	-0.04	-0.82***	-0.19	-0.34*
<i>Partnership status</i>				
Living with partner ^a	0	0	0	0
Living without partner	-0.97***	-0.09	-0.64**	-0.03
<i>Employment status</i>				
Working ^a	0	0	0	0
Not working	0.02	0.08	0.82***	0.32**
<i>Health</i>				
No ADL limitations ^a	0	0	0	0
1+ ADL limitations	-0.32**	-0.50***	0.17	-0.41*
<i>Proximity</i>				
Living in same house/-hold ^a	0	0	0	0
Living up to 5 km apart	-0.36**	-0.58***	-1.00***	-0.95***
Living more than 5 km apart	-1.02***	-1.38***	-2.32***	-2.34***
<i>Parent characteristics</i>				
<i>Sex</i>				
Male ^a	0	0	0	0
Female	0.46***	0.59***	0.24*	0.46***
<i>Partnership status</i>				
Living with partner ^a	0	0	0	0
Living without partner	0.37**	0.30*	0.25	0.30*
<i>Grandchild characteristics</i>				
<i>Age</i>				
0 years	-0.31**	-0.64***	-0.26	-0.29*
1-2 years ^a	0	0	0	0
3-5 years	0.08	-0.22*	-0.33**	-0.28**
6-10 years	-0.31***	-0.62***	-0.42**	-0.54***
11-15 years	-1.37***	-1.69***	-0.63**	-0.78***
<i>Country</i>				
Sweden	0.16*	0.33***	-0.60***	-0.80***
Denmark	0.58***	0.69***	-0.76***	-0.92***
Germany	0.11	-0.09	0.06	-0.12
The Netherlands	0.59***	0.41***	-0.39***	-0.28**
France	0.29**	0.36***	-0.63***	-0.23+
Switzerland	-0.22	-0.26+	0.15	0.46*
Austria	-0.10	-0.20*	-0.09	0.17
Italy	-0.75***	-0.58***	1.05***	0.99***
Spain	-0.63***	-0.58***	0.43**	0.04
Greece	-0.03	-0.08	0.79***	0.69***
Constant	1.90***	2.05***	1.85*	1.61***
Pseudo R ²	0.10	0.16	0.19	0.19
N (unweighted)	4,408	5,505	2,345	3,469

Significance: + p<0.10; * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001. Source: SHARE 2004 (Release 1), authors' calculations. ^a Reference category.

Table A1: Results of logit models for the provision of 'any grandchild care' and 'regular grandchild care' (daughters only) using effect coding

	<i>Model 3:</i>		<i>Model 4:</i>	
	<i>Provision of any care</i>		<i>Provision of regular care</i>	
	Grandfathers	Grandmothers	Grandfathers	Grandmothers
<i>Grandparent characteristics</i>				
<i>Age</i>				
50-59 ^a	0	0	0	0
60-69	0.48***	-0.11	-0.11	0.08
70+	0.27+	-0.96***	-0.27	-0.40*
<i>Partnership status</i>				
Living with partner ^a	0	0	0	0
Living without partner	-0.79***	0.08	-0.46+	0.01
<i>Employment status</i>				
Working ^a	0	0	0	0
Not working	-0.01	0.25+	0.72***	0.37*
<i>Health</i>				
No ADL limitations ^a	0	0	0	0
1+ ADL limitations	-0.22	-0.40*	0.48+	-0.16
<i>Proximity</i>				
Living in same house/-hold ^a	0	0	0	0
Living up to 5 km apart	-0.50*	-0.51**	-0.77**	-1.25***
Living more than 5 km apart	-1.19***	-1.31***	-2.05***	-2.63***
<i>Mother's characteristics</i>				
<i>Employment status</i>				
Working	0	0	0	0
Not working ^a	-0.47***	-0.57***	-0.19	-0.61***
<i>Partnership status</i>				
Living with partner ^a	0	0	0	0
Living without partner	0.51**	0.42**	0.30	0.41*
<i>Grandchild characteristics</i>				
<i>Age</i>				
0 years	-0.29+	-0.59***	-0.39+	-0.32+
1-2 years ^a	0	0	0	0
3-5 years	-0.05	-0.22	-0.48**	-0.45**
6-10 years	-0.60***	-0.88***	-0.42*	-0.59***
11-15 years	-1.67***	-1.90***	-0.80**	-1.02***
<i>Country</i>				
Sweden	0.03	0.21+	-0.53***	-0.84***
Denmark	0.64***	0.62***	-0.93***	-1.01***
Germany	0.04	0.04	-0.17	-0.26+
The Netherlands	0.56***	0.47***	-0.44**	-0.28*
France	0.15	0.05	-0.54**	-0.38*
Switzerland	-0.19	-0.20	-0.13	0.40
Austria	0.10	-0.16	-0.09	0.37*
Italy	-0.72***	-0.48***	1.01***	1.04***
Spain	-0.60***	-0.45***	0.91***	0.33+
Greece	-0.01	-0.11	0.90***	0.62**
Constant	2.30***	2.62***	1.81***	2.51***
Pseudo R ²	0.11	0.16	0.18	0.20
N (unweighted)	2,394	2,926	1,387	2,027

Significance: + p<0.10; * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001. Source: SHARE 2004 (Release 1), authors' calculations. ^a Reference category.

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