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Active Ageing

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Introduction

Population ageing remains a long-term common challenge for many European countries, although its magnitude, speed and timing vary across European countries (Lanzieri 2011). The life expectancy gains,[1] combined with falling fertility levels, imply that the cohorts of elderly are growing in size relative to the cohorts of working population supporting them. The potential implications on the size and shape of public services and finances as well as on the future growth and on living standards are considerable, with varying extent of challenges faced by different EU member States (Economic Policy Committee 2009a; 2009b). A change is therefore called for in public policies and institutions as well as in individual behaviours towards extending working lives and also continuing to contribute to society through other unpaid non-market productive activities (for example through volunteering and family care work) during old age. This challenge has a particular urgency since the working age population in most EU countries may start shrinking as the large baby boom cohorts reach retirement age. The growth in working-age population in many EU countries already depends increasingly on migration.[2]

In order to understand better the emphasis on the active ageing phenomenon, a useful distinction need to be made between '**chronological ageing**' (i.e. a change in age that people of all ages experience, say, from cradle to grave) and '**social ageing**' (which is a social construct involving expectations as well as institutional constraints towards how older people act as they age). The active ageing movement links specifically with the social ageing phenomenon in which, with rising life expectancy on average, older people are expected to continue to participate longer in the formal labour market as well as in other productive activities. In the spirit of promoting longer active lives, the active ageing agenda calls for a higher retirement age and adjustments in the work environment adapted to the ageing workforce. For example, László Andor, Commissioner for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion has noted that '*the key to tackling the challenges of an increasing proportion of older people in our societies is "active aging": encouraging older people to remain active by working longer and retiring later, by engaging in volunteer work after retirement, and by leading healthy and autonomous lives*' (Commission of the European Communities, 2011, pp. 8). Box 1 provides a formal definition of active ageing, which comes from WHO's Ageing and Life Course Programme, included in the document to the 2nd World Assembly on Ageing, Madrid, April 2002 (World Health Organisation, 2002).

[1] Since 1960, the average life expectancy in EU countries has risen by eight years, and demographic projections forecast a further five-year increase over the next forty years (EUROPOP2010).
[2] For example, in Italy, the natural population change (the gap between live births and deaths) during 2010-2011 reduced population by 25,500, whereas the total population (including net migration) increased by almost 300,000 (Marcu 2011, pp. 2).

Box 1: What do we mean by active ageing?

Active ageing is a widely discussed concept but a relatively recent concept. Its most widely quoted definition comes from World Health Organisation's Ageing and Life Course Programme which was included in the document contributed to the Second UN World Assembly on Ageing, held in Madrid, April 2002. The definition is stated as:

> '*Active ageing is the process of optimizing opportunities for health, participation and security in order to enhance quality of life as people age*' (World Health Organisation, 2002, pp. 12).

Here, it is useful to further elaborate the keywords used in this definition: 'active', and 'health'.

- Activity implies a 'continuing participation [of older people] in social, economic, cultural, spiritual and civic affairs, [and] not just the ability to be physically active or to participate in the labour force' (ibid, pp. 12).
- Following the same spirit of multidimensionality and by adopting a wider perspective, the term health 'refers to physical, mental and social well being' (ibid, pp. 12).

Thus, following the WHO definition, the public discourse on active ageing is geared towards greater opportunities for a labour market engagement and also active contributions towards unpaid work that is productive for individuals concerned as well as for the societies in which they live. Also, the health maintenance activities are included, and they point not just to the physical health but also to mental health and social connections as well.

In the present analysis activity is emphasised, but not whether the ultimate objective of enhancing the quality of life of those involved is also achieved, as in the WHO's definition. The issue of whether the implications of active ageing are realised on the size and shape of public services and finances (in improving the tax and social contribution revenues and thus making the public welfare system more financially sustainable) is also not covered. This societal perspective was not covered in the WHO's definition mentioned in Box 1.

The present research note is, therefore, geared towards providing empirical evidence on active ageing across EU member States, using the most suitable comparative dataset available on two aspects: the formal labour market engagement of older workers and the nature of non-paid productive activities. It analyses variations across countries (so as to explore the extent to which country differences could be associated with differences in public policies and institutions), and between subgroups of individuals (so as to analyse the differential experiences of ageing for those who differ in their needs and aspirations, on the basis of age, gender and employment status as well as marital status, living arrangements and educational attainment).

The rest of the note is organised in five sections. **Section 1** provides a review of selected literature on active ageing, especially from the recent past. **Section 2** gives an overview of allocation of time between paid work and various forms of unpaid work of men and women across the life course in 14 European countries. **Section 3** provides more details on patterns of unpaid work of older people. **Section 4** focuses on analysing the patterns of labour market involvement of older workers across all 27 EU countries. **Section 5** provides some policy conclusions.

Results for the time allocated to paid and unpaid work are drawn mainly from the HETUS (the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys). These results are supplemented by those derived from the SHARE (the Survey of Health and Retirement in Europe), for voluntary work. Data on trends and patterns of labour market engagement are derived from the EU-LFS (the European Union Labour Force Survey).

1. Literature review

The policies to promote active ageing have been presented as a potential panacea for the challenges of population ageing faced by the European societies. These policies are deemed particularly relevant in extending working lives as they will contribute in resolving the financial sustainability challenges of social welfare systems. These policies are also expected to contribute towards avoiding the conflict between generations that many argue will result from the demographic shift that our societies are experiencing (Hamblin 2010; and Zaidi, Gasior and Sidorenko 2010). Most relevant aspect is that the life expectancy gains should be accompanied by labour market active years added to life. Thus, the length of time people spend in retirement relative to time spent in paid employment will not rise dramatically - on average in the EU the duration of retirement has gone in excess of 50% of the working lives.

It is clear that an exit from the labour marker for retirement is not necessarily associated with reduced levels of productive activities for most people (see, for arguments, Walker and Naegele 1999). The life post-retirement is therefore seen increasingly by many as the third active stage in their life course, after education and work – therefore the term 'troisième âge' was conceived in France to apply to this period of relative good health and social participation (Guillemard and Rein 1993).

The origin of the term active ageing is most likely be the literature on "successful ageing" in the USA during the 1960s, defining it as "denying the onset of old age and by replacing those relationships, activities and roles of middle age that are lost with new ones in order to maintain activities and life satisfaction" (Walker 2002: 122). Walker (2002) goes on to argue that the same concept was reframed in the 1980s to "productive ageing", and it shifted emphasis from older ages only to the whole life course. Also, the evolution of productive ageing into active ageing happened in the 1990s with the WHO creating the link between activity and health, as well as acknowledging that retirement is a period characterised by productive activities (other than formal engagement with the labour market), such as volunteering and caring for children and other adult family members (Guillemard and Rein 1993; Künemund and Kolland 2007).

Population ageing became apparent as a European policy issue in the early 1990s when a European observatory was established to study the impact of public policies on ageing and older people (as mentioned in Walker 2010). For this period, the European Year of Older People in 1993 is a significant occasion when a policy discourse on active ageing was promoted at the European level (Walker 1993). The next major milestone was 1999, the UN Year of Older People. The reference to active ageing in EU/EC documents (Commission of the European Communities 1999) makes a notable mention of early retirement as a constrained decision for older workers: "*over the working lifetime, risk of marginalisation and eventual exclusion from the labour market grows. In the end, older workers often find that early retirement is the only choice left to them*" (Ibid, pp. 10). Thus, as proposed there, an emphasis was placed on enhancing the employability of older

workers and also on adapting employment protection regulations to suit an ageing workforce.

Since 1999, active ageing has featured often in many EU/EC documents. More often than not, the goal of active ageing has been seen as extending working lives and discouraging early retirement. For instance, this focus on enhancing labour market participation of older workers is reflected in two EU targets: the 2001 Stockholm target to ensure half of those in the age group 55-64 were in employment by 2010, and the 2002 Barcelona target to increase the average age of exit from the labour market (for retirement) by five years by the same year. While, to this day, none of the EU countries has managed to achieve the Barcelona target, Germany, Ireland, Cyprus, the Netherlands and Finland did raise the employment rate for the age group 55-64 to over the 50% threshold by 2010 (in Sweden, Denmark, Portugal and the UK the employment rate of this age group was already above 50% in 2001 when the target was set).

The 2002 Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing (MIPAA) and its European Implementation Strategy (RIS) gave further prominence to active ageing as a strategic policy response to population trends and to a vision of society for all ages (United Nations 2002).

More recently, active ageing is included in Europe 2020 – A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, which specifically highlights the importance of meeting "*the challenge of promoting a healthy and active ageing population to allow for social cohesion and higher productivity*" (Commission of the European Communities 2010:18). In line with Europe 2020, the European Employment Strategy promotes policies and measures targeted at older persons to support longer working lives.

EU documents also acknowledge wider forms of activities under the policy agenda of active ageing, such as lifelong learning, being active in unpaid productive activities after retirement (such as volunteering), and also engaging in health sustaining activities (Commission of the European Communities 2002). As part of the broader Europe 2020 strategy, the European Innovation Partnership for active and healthy ageing, for instance, focuses on prevention, health promotion and integrated care, as well as on active and autonomous living for older people. Its overarching goal is to raise average healthy life expectancy at birth in the European Union by 2 years by 2020 (Commission of the European Communities, 2011, pp. 12).

In September 2011, the European Union designated 2012 as the European Year for Active Ageing and Solidarity between Generations (Decision 940/2011/EU). The main goal of the European Year 2012 is to raise awareness of the value of active ageing, highlighting the useful contribution older people make to society and the economy, to identify and disseminate good practices, and to encourage policy makers and stakeholders at all levels to promote active ageing.

2. Time allocation between paid and unpaid activities

This section provides an overview of how older Europeans allocate their time between paid and unpaid activities, including a breakdown across different types of unpaid activities, such as personal care, housework, unpaid work (e.g. childcare) and active leisure (e.g. sports and outdoor activities and travel). The specific analytical question addressed in this section is: *How time use patterns vary across age groups and between*

women and men? The analyses will shed light on the varying extent of active ageing observed for men and women living across European countries.

Results analysed are drawn from the Harmonised European Time Use Survey (HETUS) Database, which is a representative sample of individuals who completed a diary during at least one weekday and one weekend day distributed over the whole year. They are reported in terms of 'average minutes spent on an activity in a single day'. The average estimated is for the group in question, and by using an average of time use patterns reported across the whole year. This implies that all persons are included, irrespective of whether they performed an activity or not, and that all days of the week, working and weekend days, as well as holiday periods are included. Although the average time is an abstract measure and does not describe concrete everyday life experience at the individual level, it is a useful indicator of time use at the aggregate level and allows comparisons between countries and population subgroups. Box A1 in Annex A provides details of the HETUS database, which is the main source of information about how Europeans allocate their time to various activities.

Results analysed in this section are for 14 EU countries: Belgium, Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden and the UK. Before summarising the key findings, it is important to note some limitations of these results:

- The HETUS, like all other household sample surveys, does not include individuals living in residential care institutions. Thus, it can be expected that the HETUS samples contain generally healthier people, and this bias arising from the selection is likely to be larger for older age groups.
- The HETUS are cross-sectional surveys so it is not possible to disentangle whether differences by age groups are due to factors associated with ageing or due to differences across birth cohorts.
- The data reported here refer to 'primary' activity at a given time, i.e. the main activity carried out by respondents at a time during the day. These surveys do record secondary activities carried out at the same time as primary activities (e.g. doing housework while watching the TV), but they are not considered in the analysis presented here. Omitting these means that time spent on activities which are frequently done simultaneously with other activities (such as childcare, watching television, reading and socialising) are underestimated.

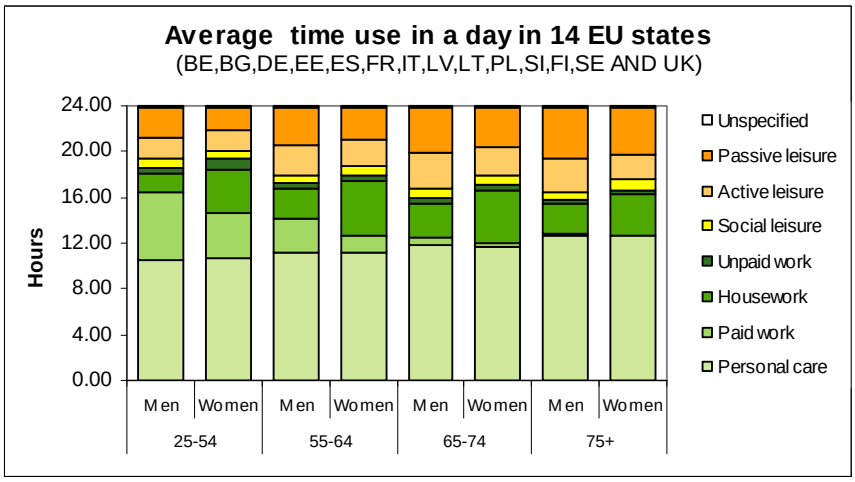
2.1 Time use patterns by gender and age

Figure 1 provides an overview of how people use their time and shows the variations in the pattern of time use by gender as well as by age, so as to identify older adults' behaviours in a life-cycle perspective. Results can be summarised as follows:

- In most countries, time spent on personal care (eating, sleeping, and other personal care) shown at the very bottom of the graphs, rises with age, especially when it reaches the age of 75 or more when it sharply increases.
- Time spent on paid work displays most variation with age and gender, as it declines in older ages, particularly after the age of 55. The exceptions are observed for men in some of the Eastern European countries, particularly in Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia and Estonia. There are also considerable gender differences, with women working less than men in all ages, and reducing paid work activities at a younger age than men in most countries.

- The time devoted to housework (mainly domestic work) also varies across the age groups, and shows a larger difference between women and men, especially in Italy, Spain and in some of the Eastern European countries where women allocate increasingly more time in housework as they grow older. The gender difference is smallest in the Nordic countries.
- Time spent on unpaid work includes time devoted towards childcare, organisational work and participatory activities and informal help. It appears in the graphs in a rather thin area, thus a surprisingly small time allocated towards this activity – the equivalent of few minutes per day is spent on average on this type of activity. Moreover, the variations by age do not indicate that older adults devote more time to unpaid work than younger ones.
- The areas at the top of the graphs show the time spent on social, active and passive leisure activities (see Box A2 for the distinctive nature of these leisure activities). While time spent on social leisure (such as visits and feasts) is relatively constant by age, and time on active leisure activities (handicrafts, gardening, sports, other hobbies, etc.) only slightly increases with age, there is a marked increase in the time spent on passive leisure (resting, TV and video, radio and music) in most EU countries.

Figure 1: Time use by age and gender (mean hours per day), average for 14 EU member States



Source: Calculations drawn from the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys (HETUS)
Notes:

- **Personal care:** Eating and Sleeping; (2) **Paid Work:** Activities related to main and second job, and education and training as well as their travel; (3) **Housework:** Domestic work and shopping; (4) **Unpaid work:** Childcare and other informal help; participatory activities, etc. (5) **Social leisure:** Visits and feasts, and other social life; (6) **Active leisure:** Walking and other outdoor activities, entertainment and culture, sports activities, reading and travel and other hobbies; (7) **Passive leisure:** Resting, TV and video, Radio and music. These seven main categories of activities are derived from 49 harmonised categories which are consistent across the surveys (Box A2 in Annex A gives the detailed list of categories of activities).
- Data used comes from diaries of daily activities of respondents, collected as part of time use surveys in 14 EU member States. The survey methods used have been harmonised based on the Guidelines on Harmonized European Time Use Surveys, published in 2008. Therefore, the results are considered to be comparable. There are certain exceptions to this, and they are pointed out in the text.

All in all, these results show that when paid work declines with age, a greater part of the day is normally spent on the unpaid activities of personal care and in passive leisure. For women, a larger amount of time is spent in domestic work, especially in age group 65-74 –

this finding is consistent with the economic theory that, because of their lower income and lower opportunity cost of time, retirees spend more time doing household productive activities, such as food preparation, laundry and ironing and other domestic work (see, e.g., Krantz-Kent and Stewart 2007).

2.2 Time use patterns of older Europeans

Tables 1 and 2 provide detailed country-specific results for the two older age groups (55-64 and 65-74), further subdivided by gender.

Within the age group 55-64, men in Sweden, Latvia, Lithuania and Spain spend the most time on paid work, over 4 hours per day, around twice as much as Belgian and Slovenian men. The same pattern can be observed for women in these countries with the exception of Spanish women who spend less than one-third of the time spent by men on paid work. Such gender differences in paid work activity are similarly large in Italy, Belgium and Slovenia. On the other hand, women in these countries spend more than 5 hours per day on housework activities, a finding that is consistent across the two age groups.

Table 1: Time use patterns of older Europeans (for the age group 55-64), on an average day, 24 hours

	BE	BG	DE	EE	ES	FR	IT	LV	LT	PL	SI	FI	SE	UK
Men														
Personal care	10.9	**12.1**	11.1	10.9	11.5	**12.1**	11.5	10.9	11.2	11.3	11.1	10.5	***10.2***	10.5
Paid work	***2.1***	2.7	2.3	3.5	4.1	2.3	3.2	4.2	4.2	2.5	***2.1***	2.7	**4.3**	**3.3**
Housework	2.6	3.0	2.8	**3.1**	**1.6**	2.5	2.0	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.5
Unpaid work	***0.3***	***0.3***	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	***0.3***	0.4	**0.7**	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Social leisure	0.9	0.7	0.9	***0.4***	0.8	0.6	**1.0**	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.6	1.0	0.9
Active leisure	2.9	2.2	**3.6**	2.3	2.8	2.6	2.9	2.3	***1.7***	2.3	3.0	3.2	2.8	2.8
Passive leisure	**3.9**	3.0	***2.7***	3.5	2.9	***2.7***	3.0	3.4	3.2	3.6	3.6	3.7	2.8	3.4
Unspecified	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	**0.6**	0.2	***0.0***	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2
Women														
Personal care	11.3	11.9	11.4	***10.6***	11.3	**12.1**	11.3	11.0	11.0	11.5	10.9	10.7	10.7	10.8
Paid work	***0.7***	1.1	1.1	2.1	1.2	1.3	1.0	2.7	**2.8**	1.1	***0.7***	1.8	2.7	1.5
Housework	4.6	5.2	4.2	4.7	5.6	4.4	**6.1**	4.0	4.7	4.8	5.5	3.8	***3.5***	4.3
Unpaid work	***0.3***	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	**1.0**	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6
Social leisure	1.0	0.7	1.1	***0.4***	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.0	0.9	**1.1**	1.0
Active leisure	2.2	2.0	**3.3**	2.5	2.0	1.9	***1.8***	2.5	1.9	2.1	2.6	3.1	3.1	2.6
Passive leisure	**3.5**	2.6	2.3	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.8	2.6	2.8	2.8	3.0	***2.3***	3.1
Unspecified	0.4	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	**0.6**	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.2	0.2	0.2

Source: Calculations drawn from the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys (HETUS)
Notes: See Figure 1.
Figures in **bold** and ***bold italics*** indicate highest and lowest values for each activity.

A marked difference between the old and new EU member States emerges when looking at the number of hours spent on paid work among those aged 65-74: Eastern European men and women devote more time to paid work than those in the old member States. The difference ranges from more than 2 hours between Latvian and French men to 18 minutes between Polish and Finnish women. Bulgaria is the only new member country where the pattern of time use regarding paid work shows more similarity to that of the old EU countries.

While older people in Germany and Sweden spend relatively much time (more than 3 hours per day) on active leisure, the amount of time allocated to passive leisure activities, such as watching TV or listening to the radio, is largest for Belgian, Estonian and Finnish men and women.

Bulgarian and French older men and women devote the most time (over 12 hours) to personal activities (sleeping, eating and other personal care).

Table 2: Time use patterns of older Europeans (for the age group 65-74), on an average day, 24 hours

	BE	BG	DE	EE	ES	FR	IT	LV	LT	PL	SI	FI	SE	UK
Men														
Personal care	11.4	**13.0**	11.7	11.3	12.6	12.7	12.3	11.4	12.0	11.9	11.3	***11.2***	***11.2***	***11.2***
Paid work	0.3	0.4	0.3	1.2	0.3	***0.2***	0.6	**2.5**	1.4	1.1	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.5
Housework	2.8	3.6	3.2	3.6	***2.0***	2.8	2.2	2.6	**3.7**	2.9	2.8	2.8	3.2	3.3
Unpaid work	0.4	***0.2***	**0.6**	0.4	0.4	**0.6**	0.4	0.3	***0.2***	**0.6**	0.5	**0.6**	0.4	0.5
Social leisure	0.9	0.9	1.0	***0.4***	0.9	0.6	**1.1**	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9
Active leisure	3.5	2.3	**4.0**	2.7	3.8	3.2	3.6	2.7	***2.0***	2.5	3.1	3.2	**4.0**	3.3
Passive leisure	4.3	3.6	***3.1***	4.4	4.0	3.2	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	**4.7**	3.6	4.2
Unspecified	0.5	***0.1***	0.2	***0.1***	***0.1***	**0.6**	***0.1***	0.3	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.5	0.3	0.2
Women														
Personal care	11.6	**12.7**	11.4	11.1	11.9	12.5	11.8	11.4	11.8	12.1	11.4	11.2	11.2	***11.1***
Paid work	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.5	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	**1.3**	1.0	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2
Housework	4.2	**5.1**	4.5	4.9	5.3	4.5	5.7	4.1	4.9	4.5	5.0	***3.8***	4.0	4.7
Unpaid work	0.4	***0.2***	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.4	**0.9**	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Social leisure	1.0	0.8	**1.1**	***0.5***	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9	**1.1**	**1.1**
Active leisure	2.3	2.0	3.5	2.8	2.2	2.2	***1.8***	2.7	2.1	2.0	2.3	3.3	**3.6**	2.6
Passive leisure	**4.0**	3.0	***2.9***	3.8	3.4	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.3	3.7
Unspecified	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	***0.0***	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	**0.6**	0.2	0.2
Total	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0	24.0

Source: Calculations drawn from the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys (HETUS)
Notes: See Figure 1.
Figures in **bold** and ***bold italics*** indicate highest and lowest values for each activity.

3. Patterns of unpaid work among older Europeans

3.1 Time use patterns by employment status

In this section, we analyse further the time allocation of European older persons into various forms of unpaid activities. The purpose is to explore not just the variations across countries, but also to see how personal attributes (such as age, gender, and varying degree of engagement in the labour market) matter. For instance, it will become clear from this analysis whether or not the differences by age and gender (as analysed above) disappear after we control for employment status during later stages of working life.

We start with an examination of whether there are any differences across full-time, part-time and non-employed older persons, in the time allocated to various forms of productive non-market activities such as housework (Domestic work and shopping) and unpaid work (Childcare and other informal help; participatory activities, etc). Tables 3 and 4 report

these results for the age group 45-64[3] on the time allocation of an average 24 hours day, using the same categorisation as used in Figure 1.

Table 3: Time use patterns of men aged 45-64 by employment status (mean hours per day)

	BE	BG	DE	EE	ES	FR	IT	LV	LT	PL	SI	FI	SE	UK
Full-time employed														
Personal care	10.3	11.0	10.3	10.2	10.8	**11.3**	10.8	10.3	10.4	10.1	10.1	***9.8***	***9.8***	9.9
Paid work	***5.7***	7.1	5.9	6.8	7.0	6.0	7.2	**7.8**	7.2	6.9	5.9	6.7	5.8	6.7
Housework	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.9	***1.1***	1.8	***1.1***	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.7	**2.2**	1.7
Unpaid work	***0.2***	***0.2***	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	**0.5**	0.3	0.3	**0.5**	0.3
Social leisure	0.8	0.5	**0.9**	***0.3***	0.7	0.6	0.6	***0.3***	***0.3***	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.7
Active leisure	2.0	***1.3***	**2.4**	1.7	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.5	***1.3***	1.5	2.2	2.1	**2.4**	1.9
Passive leisure	2.6	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.2	**2.1**	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.6	**2.9**	2.5	2.3	2.5
Unspecified	0.5	***0.1***	0.2	0.2	***0.1***	**0.6**	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2
Part-time employed														
Personal care	***10.3***	**12.2**	11.0	10.4	10.3	11.2	11.0	10.7	10.8	10.9	n.a.	10.4	10.4	***10.3***
Paid work	3.5	4.3	***2.4***	4.8	5.6	**7.7**	4.8	6.7	5.5	4.5	n.a.	4.7	3.9	3.3
Housework	2.4	2.3	2.7	**3.5**	2.3	***1.2***	1.6	1.9	2.9	2.1	n.a.	2.0	2.4	2.7
Unpaid work	0.4	***0.2***	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.6	n.a.	**0.7**	0.5	0.4
Social leisure	**1.3**	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.4	1.0	***0.3***	***0.3***	0.7	n.a.	0.6	1.1	1.1
Active leisure	2.5	1.8	**3.3**	1.9	2.2	1.3	2.7	1.2	***0.8***	1.7	n.a.	1.9	3.0	3.2
Passive leisure	3.2	2.4	2.8	2.3	1.9	***1.5***	2.4	2.9	**3.3**	**3.3**	n.a.	3.2	2.7	2.7
Unspecified	0.4	***0.1***	0.3	***0.1***	***0.1***	**0.5**	0.2	0.2	***0.1***	0.2	n.a.	**0.5**	0.2	0.4
Not-employed														
Personal care	11.2	12.5	11.3	11.1	12.1	**12.6**	12.0	11.4	12.0	11.6	11.2	11.0	***10.9***	11.0
Paid work	0.2	0.2	***0.1***	1.1	0.6	0.3	**1.2**	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.2	1.0	1.0
Housework	2.9	3.6	3.4	**3.7**	2.9	2.8	***2.3***	2.4	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.0
Unpaid work	0.4	***0.3***	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	**0.9**	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5
Social leisure	0.9	0.8	1.0	***0.5***	0.9	0.7	**1.2**	0.8	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.9	**1.2**	1.0
Active leisure	3.0	2.7	**4.4**	***2.6***	3.4	2.7	3.1	3.2	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.8	3.6	3.4
Passive leisure	**4.9**	3.6	***3.0***	4.2	3.5	3.5	3.3	4.4	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.5	3.9
Unspecified	0.6	0.3	0.3	***0.2***	***0.2***	**0.7**	0.3	***0.2***	***0.2***	***0.2***	***0.2***	0.3	0.3	0.3

Source: Calculations drawn from the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys (HETUS)
Notes: See Figure 1.
Figures in **bold** and ***bold italics*** indicate highest and lowest values for each activity.

[3] A different age group category is used here, mainly to ensure that the cell size for subgroup results is not too small.

Table 4: Time use patterns of women aged 45-64 by employment status (mean hours per day)

	BE	BG	DE	EE	ES	FR	IT	LV	LT	PL	SI	FI	SE	UK
Full-time employed														
Personal care	10.8	10.7	10.5	***10.0***	10.4	**11.4**	10.4	10.3	10.2	10.2	9.9	10.2	10.3	10.2
Paid work	***4.5***	6.4	5.1	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.8	**6.9**	6.7	5.8	5.4	5.5	4.9	5.6
Housework	3.4	3.4	3.0	3.4	3.7	3.2	**4.0**	***2.7***	3.2	3.4	3.8	2.8	2.8	3.1
Unpaid work	0.3	***0.2***	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	***0.2***	0.3	**0.5**	***0.2***	0.3	0.4	0.4
Social leisure	**1.0**	***0.4***	**1.0**	***0.4***	0.6	0.5	0.5	***0.4***	***0.4***	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8
Active leisure	1.6	***0.9***	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.8	2.3	**2.6**	1.7
Passive leisure	2.0	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.7	***1.4***	1.6	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	**2.2**
Unspecified	0.5	***0.1***	0.2	0.2	***0.1***	**0.6**	0.2	0.2	***0.1***	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.2	0.2	0.2
Part-time employed														
Personal care	11.0	10.4	10.9	10.1	10.7	**11.6**	10.5	11.0	10.5	10.9	**9.7**	10.1	10.6	10.4
Paid work	2.9	4.4	***2.4***	4.2	3.4	4.3	3.6	4.6	**5.1**	3.6	4.1	4.2	3.9	3.4
Housework	4.0	5.2	3.8	4.0	**5.6**	4.0	5.3	***3.3***	4.2	4.3	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.2
Unpaid work	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.7	**1.2**	0.3	0.8	***0.1***	0.4	0.5	0.6
Social leisure	0.9	***0.3***	**1.0**	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	***0.3***	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.6	**1.0**	**1.0**
Active leisure	2.0	1.2	**3.0**	1.9	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.4	***1.1***	1.4	2.7	2.4	2.3	1.9
Passive leisure	2.4	2.1	2.0	**2.7**	1.9	***1.4***	1.8	1.8	2.4	2.3	2.4	**2.7**	2.1	2.4
Unspecified	**0.6**	***0.1***	0.2	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.5	***0.1***	0.3	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Not-employed														
Personal care	11.5	11.9	11.4	***10.7***	11.5	**12.2**	11.4	11.5	11.5	11.5	10.9	11.0	11.1	11.1
Paid work	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.2	***0.1***	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3	**0.9**	***0.1***	0.6	0.7
Housework	4.6	5.8	4.6	5.5	5.8	4.9	**6.2**	4.6	5.6	5.0	5.8	4.2	***4.1***	4.6
Unpaid work	***0.4***	***0.4***	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	**1.2**	***0.4***	0.7	0.6	0.8
Social leisure	1.0	0.8	1.1	***0.5***	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	**1.2**	**1.2**
Active leisure	2.3	2.0	3.3	2.8	2.2	2.0	***1.9***	2.9	2.3	2.1	2.4	3.3	**3.4**	2.5
Passive leisure	**3.4**	***2.6***	***2.6***	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.6	**3.4**	2.9	3.0
Unspecified	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	***0.1***	**0.6**	0.2	0.3	0.2	***0.1***	***0.1***	0.2	0.3	0.2

Source: Calculations drawn from the Harmonised European Time Use Surveys (HETUS)
Notes: See Figure 1.
Figures in **bold** and ***bold italics*** indicate highest and lowest values for each activity.

For the age group 45-64, the results can be summarised as:

- Examining full-time and part-time employed separately, differences in the time spent on paid work between those working full-time and the part-time employed varied by about 2-3 hours per day for this age group (in most countries). This difference in hours spent in paid work between full-time and part-time workers is larger for men than for women in most countries (except in France and Spain).
- Time spent doing housework almost doubled (from around 2 hours per day to around 4 hours per day) when older people worked part-time instead of full-time (in Belgium, Bulgaria, Estonia, Germany, Italy, Lithuania, Spain, Sweden and the UK). Thus, it can be said that the increase in housework more or less compensated for less time spent in paid work. This effect is more pronounced for men than for

women, (with the exception of Finland, France and Sweden), but this is due to the fact that even among the full-time employed, women spend considerably more time doing housework than men. Thus, for housework, the variation across types of employment mainly captures gender differences.

- For unpaid work, there is relatively little variation in the amount of time by employment status. In the majority of countries, it is the non-employed who tend to spend more time on unpaid work with Polish men and women devoting the largest amount of time (0.9 and 1.2 hours respectively) to these activities. Although the differences between full-time and part-time employed, and between full-time employed and non-employed remain very small (8 and 15 minutes on average), some countries, such as Poland, Finland and the three Baltic States, display larger variations in the time spent on unpaid work across the three employment groups for both men and women.
- The notable differences are observed (in most cases) in the time spent on leisure activities: time spent on leisure activities is generally higher among non-working older Europeans than that observed for part-time workers.

3.2 Voluntary work by people aged 50+

The data collected by SHARE, covering people of aged 50+, throws further light on the involvement of older people in unpaid work, specifically on their participation in voluntary work. Data used is drawn from the survey question in which a respondent has been asked whether he/she has been actively engaged in voluntary or charity work in the month before the interview. These results for eight European countries are presented in Table 5 below.

Looking at the overall results, it is clear that the Netherlands is in a league of its own: more than 20% of those aged 50+ engage in volunteering activities. The other high volunteering participation countries are two Nordic countries: Sweden and Denmark, where in excess of 17% report volunteering. The Southern European countries are on the other extreme as they report typically low volunteering activities: 7% of the Italian and only 3% of the Greek respondents have been engaged in volunteer work. Germany, France and Austria show medium volunteering activity levels (around 10%).

Results subdivided across subgroups show following key patterns.

- Volunteering is performed more often by men than by women, particularly in France and Sweden.[4] Exceptions to this pattern are observed in the Netherlands, where the reverse is true (women are more often active in volunteering work than men) and in Greece, where there is no difference between men and women.
- The information on the age-specific variance in volunteering activity among the elderly is complete only for four countries: France, Denmark, Netherlands and Sweden. For these countries, volunteering increases as people enter in the post-retirement phase of life (from age group 50-64 to age group 65-74), but it declines for the oldest age group (aged 75+). This decline for the oldest group is most notable in the Netherlands: a drop from 26.4% to 8.7%. Despite frailty common to people aged 75+, in the two Nordic countries, still around 12-13% of people aged 75+ were engaged in voluntary work.

[4] Volunteer work, here, is defined as "unpaid work provided to parties to whom the worker owes no contractual, familial or friendship obligations" (Wilson and Musick 1997: 694).

- With the exception of Italy, in all other countries, there is a greater volunteering activity among those who live with a partner as compared to single persons. There is a difference of close to 4 percentage points (p.p.) in these two groups in Germany, Denmark, France and the Netherlands.
- Educational attainment appears to predict strongly the varying level of volunteering activities across groups. The volunteering activity is close to 5 p.p. higher for someone with a medium education in comparison to one with a low education. And, there is another 7-8 p.p. difference between the highest educational group and the medium education group. The gradient across the education groups, especially between the last two groups, is very steep in Denmark, France, Sweden and the Netherlands, so much so that close to one-in-four (on average) in the highest education group in these countries have undertaken a volunteering activity.
- In most countries, volunteering activity is higher among employed persons than among the retired, although the differences between the two groups are moderate in Germany, Greece and Sweden (close to 2 p.p. lower among retirees than among those who are engaged in paid work), but considerable in Austria and Italy (up to 5 p.p. lower). The reverse is true for France, where retirees are more often involved in the volunteering work. In the Netherlands and Denmark, an exceptionally high proportion (20.4% and 23.1%, respectively) report volunteering activity in the group 'other non-employed'.[5]
- There is much higher volunteering on offer by those who report their current health status as 'good or better' (about 6% in most cases). The variation across health status groups is most notable in the Netherlands and less pronounced in Germany and Sweden.

Table 5: Participation in voluntary work (including charity work) of those aged 50 and over (%), by gender and age, and by marital, education, employment and health status

	DE	DK	EL	FR	IT	NL	AT	SE
Total	9.9	17.6	***3.0***	13.7	7.4	**21.1**	9.1	17.1
By gender								
Men	10.9	18.8	***3.0***	16.1	8.5	19.5	10.1	**20.2**
Women	9.0	16.0	***2.9***	10.6	6.4	**21.9**	8.1	14.3
By age groups								
50-64	12.3	18.1	***3.9***	13.3	10.4	**22.6**	12.1	17.5
65-74	10.0	19.8	:	16.1	***4.3***	**26.4**	6.3	19.6
75+	:	12.3	:	***8.4***	:	8.7	:	**13.2**
Couple vs living alone								
2 adults	11.4	18.7	***3.1***	14.1	6.9	**22.0**	10.3	18.1
Single	7.0	14.7	:	10.2	8.2	**18.2**	***6.6***	15.0
By educational attainment								
Low education	4.8	12.1	***1.8***	9.6	5.1	**18.6**	5.4	14.3
Medium education	8.7	16.2	:	14.8	12.2	**20.3**	9.4	18.6
High education	16.9	23.7	***7.8***	23.0	:	**29.1**	13.7	22.9

[5] The category ´other non-employed´ includes unemployed, homemaker, and those permanently sick or disabled.

By employment status								
Employed	10.5	17.4	***4.6***	11.4	12.4	**19.3**	13.2	18.7
Retired	8.7	17.2	***2.9***	15.0	7.0	**20.3**	8.4	16.3
Other non-employed	12.6	20.4	:	12.3	***4.1***	**23.1**	7.1	:
By health status								
Good or better	12.2	19.3	***3.4***	16.3	10.6	**24.0**	11.5	18.4
Fair or worse	7.2	13.8	:	8.6	***4.3***	**15.0**	5.0	14.9

Source: Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE)
Notes: 'low education' (pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education), 'medium education' (secondary or post-secondary education), 'high education' (first and second stage of tertiary education)
Figures in **bold** and ***bold italics*** indicate highest and lowest values for each activity.

4. Labour market engagement in older age

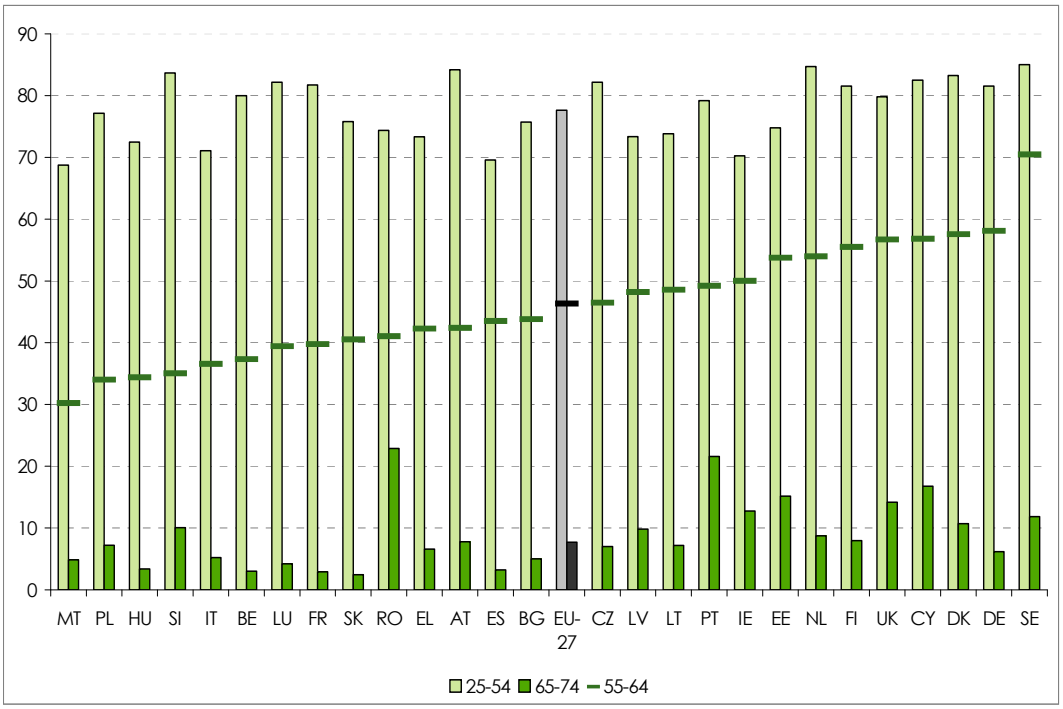
4.1 Employment propensity by age

The evidence on the labour market engagement of older workers is drawn from the European Labour Force Survey (LFS). Table B.1 (Annex B) reports on the proportion of those employed, unemployed and inactive, subdivided across age groups 25-54, 55-64 and 65-74. As expected, the proportion of those employed is high among younger age group and it falls considerably in the age groups 55-64 and 65-74. This evidence from the LFS confirms the picture drawn from the HETUS about the decline of the paid work activity beyond the age of 55 in most EU countries. The difference between the age groups 25-54 and 55-64 ranges from over 40 p.p. in Belgium, France, Luxembourg, Austria, Poland and Slovenia to around 15 p.p. in Sweden.

On average, only around 46% of those in the age group 55-64 were employed in 2010 and in some of Central and Eastern European countries this proportion is significantly lower (e.g. Poland 34%; Hungary 34.4%; Slovenia 35%); also in Malta 30.2% (Figure 2). Among the EU15 bloc of countries, Belgium, France, Italy and Luxembourg record lower employment rates for this age group (55-64). These employment rates were far below the 2001 Stockholm target in which EU member States aimed towards ensuring that half of those in the age group 55-64 will be in employment by 2010. Still, employment rates for those aged 55-64 did increase over the past decade in these countries, particularly for women (see below for more discussion on trends in labour market engagement of older workers in EU member States).

In contrast, the employment rate in the age group 55-64 is considerably higher in Sweden (70.5%), and this could be linked to the Swedish public pension design. It has been thoroughly reshaped during the 1990s - the reformed notional defined contribution system has incorporated the need for a longer working life, and the labour market, as a whole, is also characterised by employers' good practices to encourage continued employment of older workers. By enabling postponement of retirement without upper age limits the system makes it possible to combine work and pension receipt by receiving 25, 50 or 75 % of the full pension (see 'Pensions at a Glance', OECD, 2011). This raises the question of hours worked by those in this age group and of progressive retirement – an issue addressed below by analysing number of hours worked by employed people in the age group 55-64.

Figure 2: Employment rate by age groups (%), 2010



Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

The employment propensity of those in the age group 65-74 is of special interest as it points to contexts in which a formal engagement with the labour market of older workers can be high. This, so-called 'fourth pillar' provides a necessary complement to income for many older people to avoid poverty in old age. The financial aspect is however not the only factor driving paid employment after age of retirement, as workers with higher income are over-represented among post-retirement workers (Giarini 2009). A formal engagement with the labour market after retirement also serves as a possible means to remain actively included in other social and civic engagements after retirement.

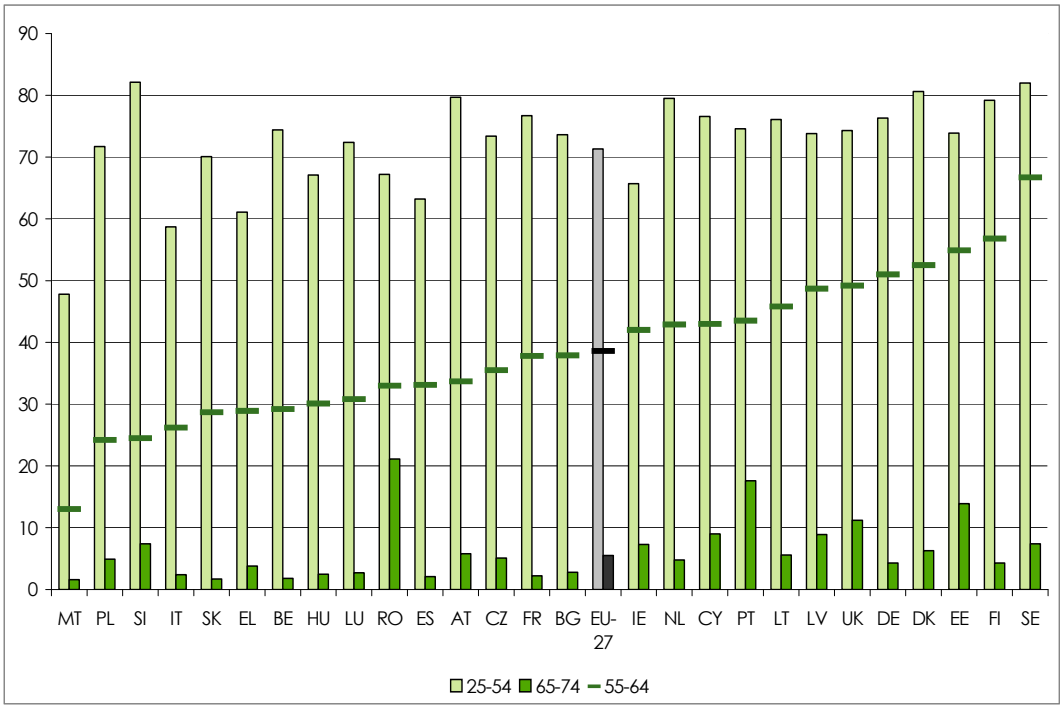
Results presented in Figure 2 also show that the propensity to be employed in the age group 65-74 is highest in Portugal and Romania: around 22% of workers in this age group are employed, although these workers are mostly employed in agriculture and in subsistence farming. Cyprus and Estonia are other countries with high propensity of employment for this age group – around 16%. This may be because of inadequate levels of pension income entitlements and social welfare payments and thus employment in late ages is means to additional income after retirement. Denmark and Sweden and (possibly) Ireland and the UK, which also report relatively high employment rate for workers aged 65-74, point to contexts in which bonus incentives in the public pension system to delay retirement are high.

4.2 Gender differences

Are these patterns different between men and women? This question is addressed in the next set of results, presented in Table B.2. Results for women across age groups are also presented in Figure 3.

As is well known, the employment rate for men is higher in all age groups, particularly in older age groups. As is shown in Figure 3, the employment rates for younger age groups of women (25-54) hover around 70% (on average), but the employment rate for older female workers (age group 55-64) is uncomfortably low in many countries – on average, only around 39% of all women were in employment in 2010. This percentage is remarkably low in Malta (13%), but also in Poland (24.2%), Slovenia (24.5%) and Italy (26.2%).

Figure 3: Proportion of women employed by age groups (%), 2010



Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

Focussing on gender differences, Latvia and Estonia are the only two countries where women are more likely to be employed than men in the age group 55-64. The Scandinavian countries, as well as the UK, exhibit not-too-divergent employment rates among men and women in the same age group.

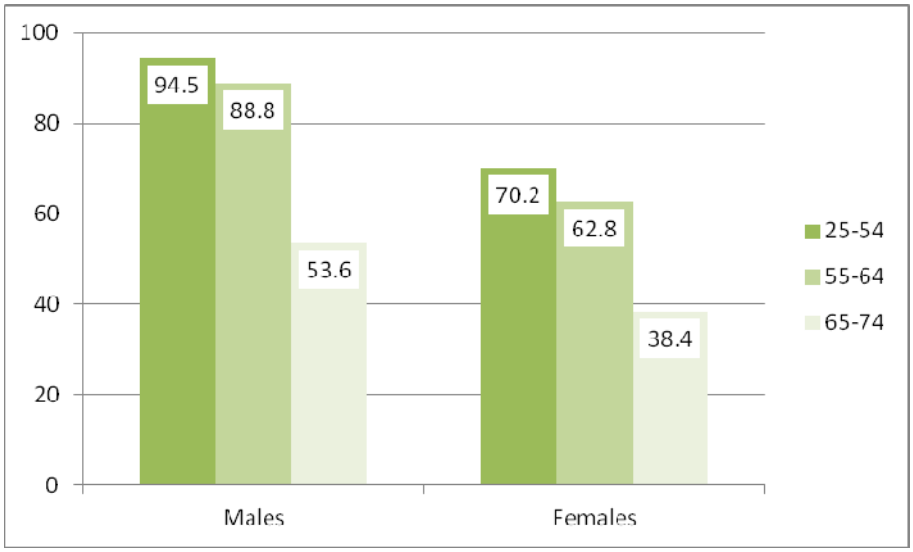
Where employment rate is higher in the age group 65-74, it is mainly the male phenomenon. An example is that in Italy and Malta the employment rate for men aged 65-74 is more than three-times as high as it is observed for women. This could entirely be a cohort phenomenon in which male-breadwinner model has been dominant – it can therefore be expected that in the future women in this age group will also have higher employment rates.

4.3 Differences in tendencies to be full-time employed

Restricting to those employed, and observing what proportion of people are employed as full-time, it is clear that in most countries the proportion full-time employed remains high even among the older age groups (for detailed results, see Table B.3 in Annex B).

As shown in Figure 4 below, on average, a strikingly high proportion (89%) of men self-define themselves to be working full-time employed in the age group 55-64, and this proportion for men is only 53.6% for the subsequent age group (65-74). As can be expected, the corresponding full-time employment propensities are lower for women, 63% and 38% respectively, although the differences between the two older age groups is considerably less for women (24 p.p.) than that for men (35 p.p.).

Figure 4: Proportion full-time among the employed, by age groups (%), EU27 average during 2010



Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

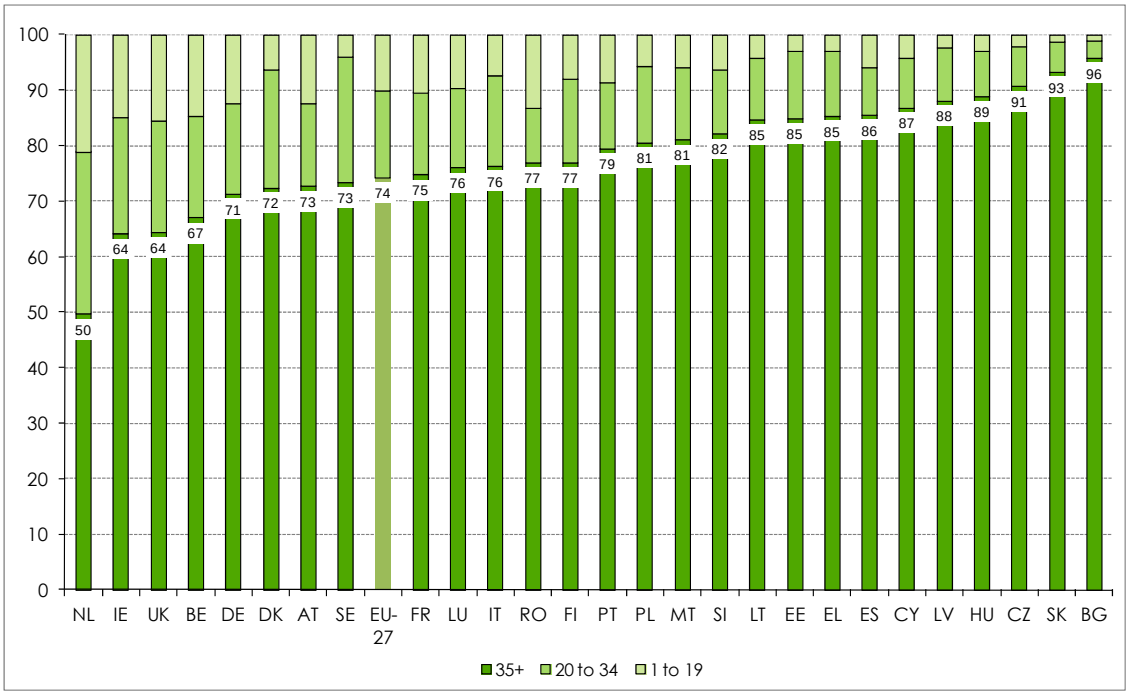
In the Netherlands, the work at later stages of women's career is almost exclusively part-time work, and similar tendencies can be found in Germany and Ireland. In contrast, in the majority of Central and Eastern European countries, there is a high tendency of full-time employment, for younger and older workers, with the exception in some countries but only for age group 65-74 (namely: Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland).

Since the self-defined indicator of full-time work may correspond to varying levels of hours worked in different countries, it is useful to supplement these results with the analysis of patterns of working hours. These results are included in Table B.4 for all age groups,[6] and exhibited in Figure 5 for the age group 55-64 only.

Consistent with the full-time/part-time distinction, there is a high tendency in the Central and Eastern European countries for people aged 55-64 to work in excess of 35 hours per week: more than 80% all those employed work 35 hours or more in a week. For the same age group, only 50% report 35+ hours per week in the Netherlands, and about two-third in the UK, Ireland and Belgium.

[6] Due to small cell size, it is not useful to further subdivide these results across men and women.

Figure 5: Patterns of working hours for employed people, aged 55-64, 2010



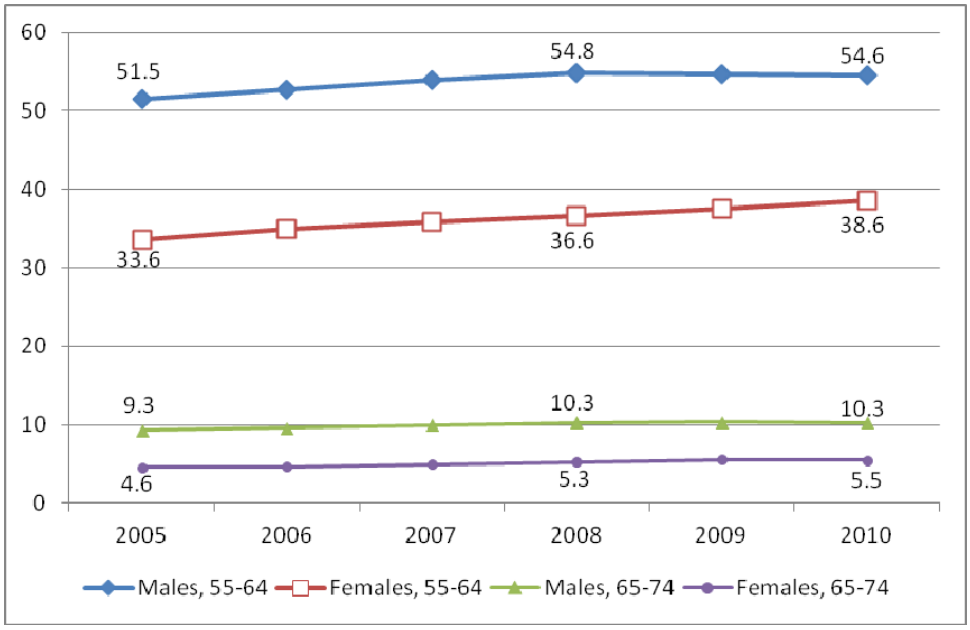
Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

These findings point to implications that the policy agenda that needs to be followed is one of "flexible later retirement". These results point to the fact that there is a need for additional incentives in the system to enable people to work part-time without losing their entitlement to pension benefits. Such policy incentives would encourage older workers to avoid the phenomenon of a "cliff-edge" fall from full-time work directly into retirement that many of them often face.

5. Trends in the labour market engagement of older workers

As shown in Figure 6, in EU27, the proportion of older workers employed increased significantly between 2005 and 2010. The most notable aspect is that the rising trend of employment among older workers has been either halted (for men) or slowed down (for women) due to the recession in 2008. For both men and women of age 55-64, employment recorded a 3 percentage point (p.p.) increase between 2005 and 2008. The rising trend for women in this age group continued beyond 2008 but it stagnated for men. The employment rate among the so-called silver workers, aged 65-74, is much lower, but there has also been a rising trend during the period 2005-2008 and a stagnation during 2008-2010.

Figure 6: Trends in the employment rate, workers aged 55-64 and 65-74, by gender, 2005-2010, EU27 average



Source: Labour Force Survey 2005-2010

5.1 Trends in employment of male workers aged 55-64

In most countries, the rising trend of employment among male workers of age 55-64 (during the period 2005-2008) was halted, slowed down or reversed due to the recession that started late in 2008 (see Table B.5, Annex B, for detailed results). For example, in Austria, the employment rate for men in this age group recorded a remarkable rise of 10 p.p. during 2005-2008 and no significant change was observed in the subsequent two years. In Bulgaria, older male workers of this age group experienced a similar rise as in Austria during the period 2005-2008, but then experienced a contraction of -5 p.p. during 2008-2010. In Germany, the growth in employment for this group during 2005-2008 has been an impressive +8 p.p., and it slowed down considerably during the following two years (to almost +4 p.p.). Latvia offers the most staggering reversal of the trend: from a change in p.p. that is almost similar to that of Germany during the period 2005-2008 (+8 p.p.), it moved to a contraction of -15.5 p.p., which took the employment rate among this group to even lower than that observed in 2005. Bulgaria and Lithuania also show similar reversal of fortunes for older male workers after 2008.

5.2 Trends in employment of female workers aged 55-64

The trend observed on average in EU27 for older female workers aged 55-64 is also observed in the majority of countries: there was a rising trend of employment during 2005-2008 and it slowed down afterwards due to the recession in 2008 (see Table B.5, Annex B). The impact of the recession is clearly less for older female workers than that observed for older male workers of this age group. There are also some exceptional results: In Slovenia and Poland, the female employment picked up even more after the recession, and in

Denmark there is reversal from a contraction in employment of female older workers during 2005-2008 to a growth in the employment rate for this age group during 2008-2010.

5.3 Three groups of countries: Laggards, Average performers and High Performers

Figure 7 reports on employment rate of all older workers (men and women together) in the age group 55-64. These trends are useful as they classify countries into three different groups, on the basis of their positions relative to the EU average in the base year 2005.

The first group of countries can be referred to **'laggards'** as they were typically the countries where the likelihood of older workers employed had been rather low. The majority of these countries show a distinctly rising trend, particularly in Austria, Slovakia and Bulgaria but also in Belgium, Luxembourg, Hungary and Poland. Note also that the differential effect of the recession, that started late in 2008, in Bulgaria and Slovenia.

The second group consists of **'Average performers'** as their position in the base year was similar to the EU27 average. Germany and the Netherlands had shown a markedly rising trend in the employment of older workers (although a fall is observed in the Netherlands during the latest year). The employment rate for this age group (55-64) in other countries (the Czech Republic, Greece, France and Spain) remained largely unchanged during the period 2005-2010 (largely due to a decline in the recession years).

The third group is the high performing group of countries with respect to the employment of older workers – viz. **High performers**. They exhibit mixed temporal experiences. The decline in Estonia and Latvia is most notable, and this is largely due to the recession. Sweden is in a league of its own, where close to 70% of older workers in the age group 55-64 are in employment, and there is hardly any adverse change after 2008.

The evidence, presented in Figure 8, on the employment of the so-called silver workers, age group 65-74, shows that countries that do well in keeping older workers of age 55-64 also have high employment among silver workers. There are some notable exceptions though: Slovenia does relatively better in terms of employment of silver workers, and there is comparatively less employment among silver workers in France and Spain.

Figure 7: Trends in employment rate of workers aged 55-64, 2005-2010

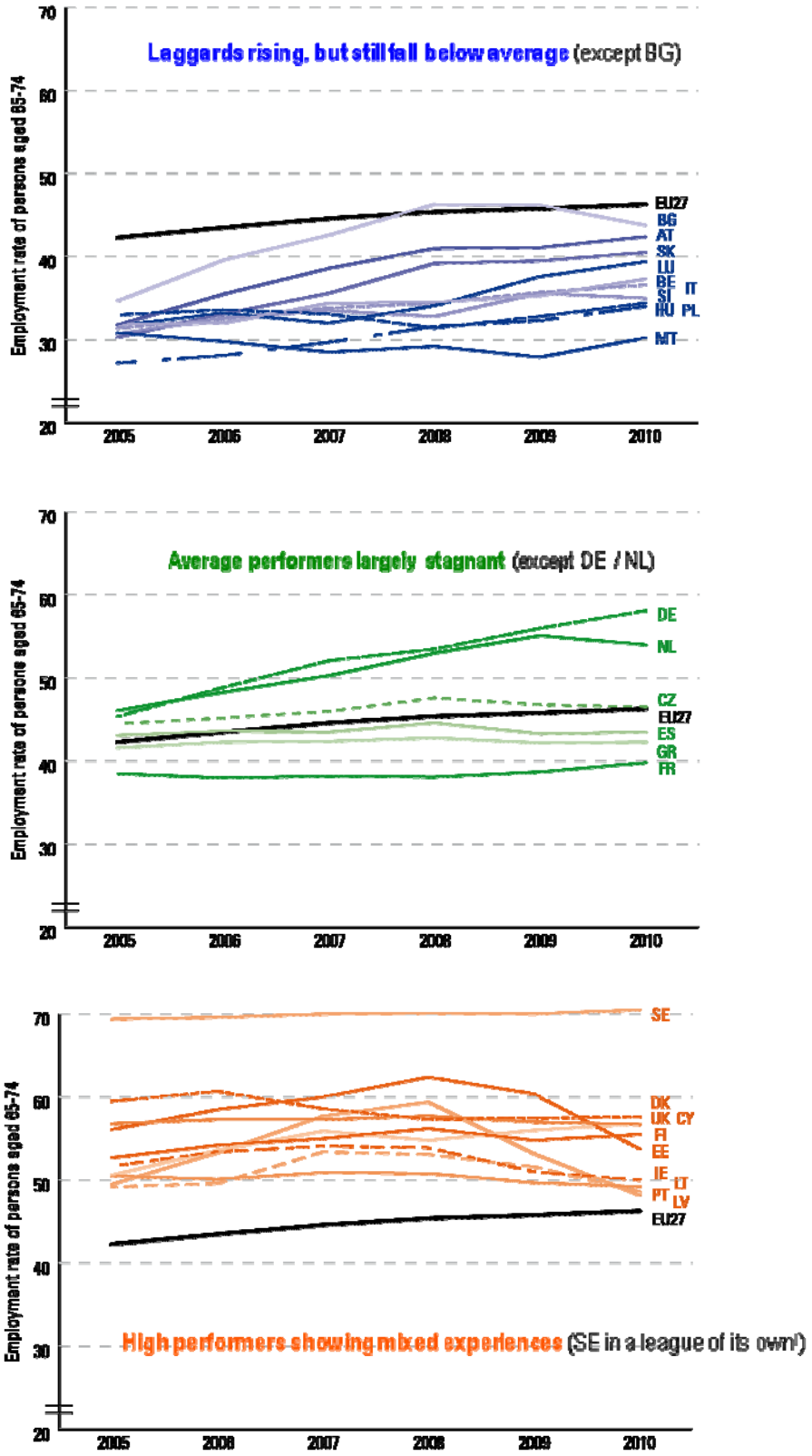
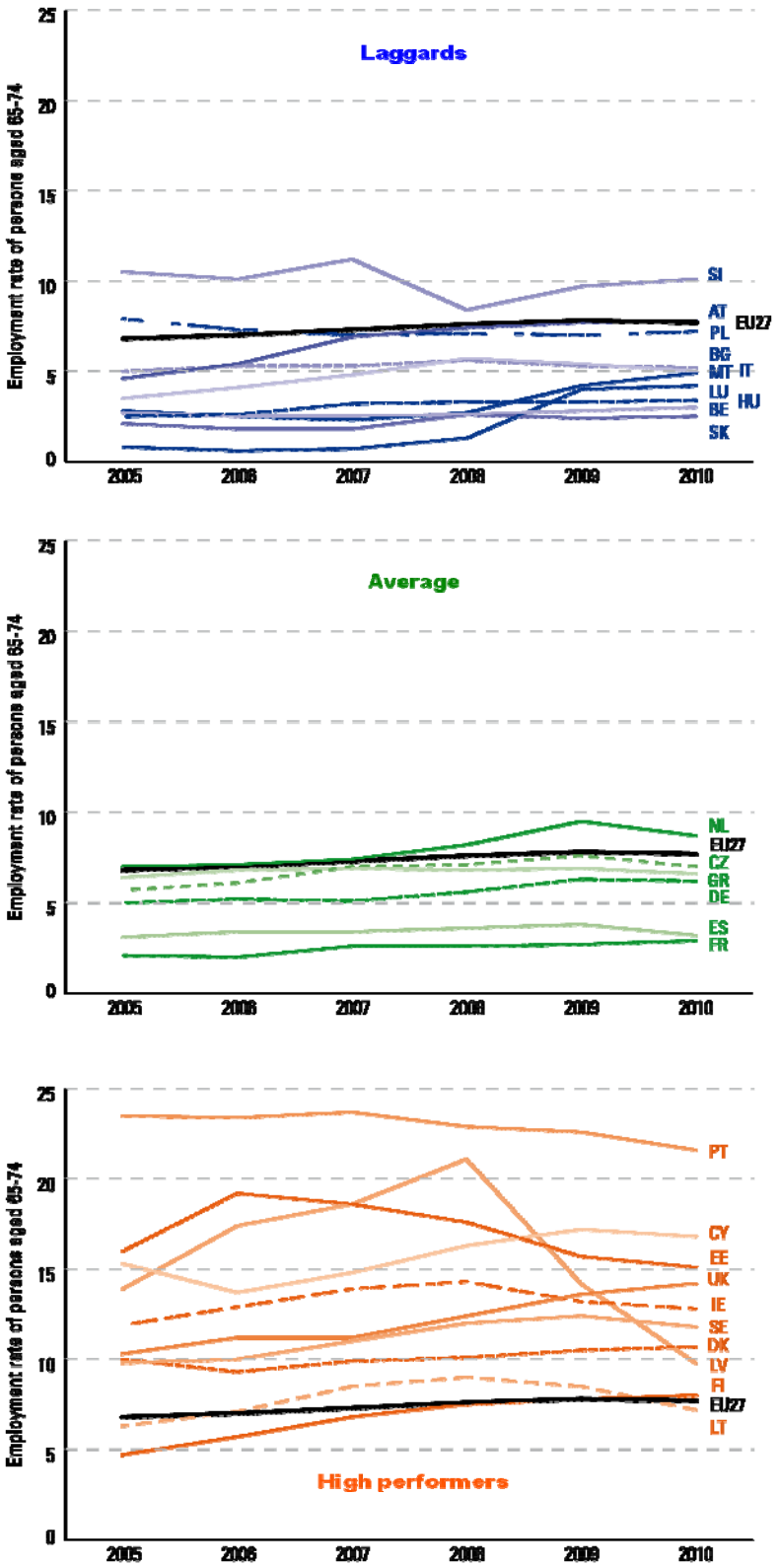


Figure 8: Figure 7: Trends in employment rate of workers aged 65-74 (the so-called 'Silver Workers'), 2005-2010



6. Policy conclusions

For the active ageing agenda in terms of extending working lives, the policy context in Sweden provides a good practice example, which is clearly linked to the design of the Swedish public pension system which was thoroughly reshaped during the 1990s. The reformed notional defined contribution system encourages people to work longer. Moreover, the labour market is characterised by employers encouraging older workers to continue in employment. The situation is similar in the UK and more recently in the Netherlands, where employment rates of older people are also relatively high.

The employment of those aged 65-74 is equally of interest as it provides a way of the people concerned adding to their income, and so reducing the chances of poverty in old age, while at the same time expanding the work force. Formal engagement with the labour market also serves as a means of remaining actively involved in other social and civic activities in older age, the evidence indicating that those employed are more often involved in voluntary activities than those who are not. At the same time, the statistics on the employment rate of this age group need to be interpreted with caution, since they show that employment is highest in Portugal, Romania and, to lesser extent, Cyprus and Estonia, in all of which many people aged 65 and over work in agriculture, often on a subsistence basis. In these countries, continued employment is in many cases a reflection of inadequate levels of pension income entitlement. Employment rates for those aged 65-74 are also relatively high in Denmark, Sweden, Ireland and the UK, and these cases are not necessarily a reflection of inadequate pensions – though for a number of people, especially in the latter two countries, they may be – but they are in part a result of incentives in the pension system to delay retirement.

In a number of countries, a significant proportion of older people employed after the age of 60 worked part-time, which represents a way of easing the transition from employment into retirement – and of avoiding a 'cliff-edge' fall from one to the other. This is much less the case in Central and Eastern European countries, however, where there is little or no evidence in most cases of such a gradual transition taking place. This clearly reflects the relatively low earnings from employment in these countries and the need to work full-time in order to achieve a reasonable standard of living, but it also reflects perhaps the inability of people at present to find part-time employment or to work part-time without losing their entitlement to pension.

In most EU countries, there has been a rising trend of employment among workers aged 55-64 from 2000 on up until the recession that started in 2008. Moreover, while this slowed down the trend or even brought it to an end, it is still the case, that unlike in previous economic downturns, employment among older workers has held up much better than among younger age groups. Among the policy measures underlying the upward trend, those implemented in the Netherlands are a notable example of good practice. These were designed to raise the labour market participation of older workers and reduce their dependence on early retirement, sickness and, most especially, disability benefits. Three policy measures, in particular, were important in raising employment rates markedly:

– the elimination of financial disincentives to delay retirement and make the pension system actuarially fairer;

– action to keep people with reduced working capacity in the labour market instead of allowing – or even encouraging – them to claim invalidity benefits; and

– stricter job search requirements, combined with more job search support, for the unemployed in this age group.

Active ageing, however, is not only about encouraging people to work longer and making it easier for them to do so. Evidence from time use surveys indicate that unpaid work is also an important means for older people to remain active and actively contribute to, and participate in society. The results from SHARE on voluntary work indicate that there is much unused potential among older people to be involved in non-market activities which can be no less important as a source of social value as market activities. Policy makers should take this more into account in the future when designing policies for older age groups alongside measures to increase their labour market participation. The European year 2012 for Active Ageing and Solidarity between Generations provides a good opportunity for policy makers and stakeholders to raise awareness of these issues and to promote and disseminate good example of policy related to active ageing.

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Annex A: European Harmonised Time-Use Survey (HETUS)

Box A1: Information regarding HETUS: sample size, fieldwork period and age groups covered

Country	Sample size (number of respondents)	Fieldwork period	Age of population covered
Belgium	12,824	January 2005 till January 2006 (the first week)	12-
Bulgaria	7,603	October 15, 2001 - October 15, 2002	7-
Estonia	5,728	April 1999 - March 2000	10-
Finland	5,332	March 1999 - March 2000	10-
France	15,441	February 1998 - February 1999, except 4-18 August and 21 December - 4 January	15-
Germany	12,655	April 2001 end of March 2002 (May 2002).	10-
Italy	55,760	April 2002 - March 2003	3-
Latvia	3,804	February - August 2003, October -November 2003	10-
Lithuania	4,768	January-December 2003	10-
Poland	20,264	1.06.2003-31.05.2004	15-
Slovenia	6,190	April 2000 - March 2001	10-
Spain	46,774	October 2002 -September 2003	10-
Sweden	3,998	October 2000 -September 2001	20-84
United Kingdom	10,366	June 2000 - September 2001	8-
Norway	3,211	February 2000 - February 2001	9-79

Box A2: Breakdown of paid and unpaid activities, available from the European Harmonised Time-Use Survey (HETUS)

Broad category	Sub-Categories	Activities
Personal care	**Personal care**	Eating
		Sleeping
		Other personal care
Productive activities	**Paid work**	Main and second job
		Activities related to employment
		School and university
		Travel to/from work
		Travel related to study
	Housework	Food preparation
		Dish washing
		Cleaning dwelling
		Other household upkeep
		Laundry
		Ironing
		Tending domestic animals
		Construction and repairs
		Shopping and services
		Other domestic work
		Travel related to shopping, other domestic travel
	Unpaid work	Childcare*
		Organisational work and participatory activities
		Informal help
Leisure	**Social leisure**	Visits and feasts
		Other social life
	Active leisure	Free time study
		Handicraft
		Gardening
		Caring for pets
		Walking the dog
		Entertainment and culture
		Walking and hiking
		Other sports, outdoor activities
		Computer and video games, other computing
		Other hobbies and games
		Reading books, other reading
		Travel related to leisure
	Passive leisure	Resting
		TV and video
		Radio and music
Unspecified	**Unspecified**	Unspecified leisure
		Unspecified travel
		Unspecified time use

* Childcare includes physical care, supervision of child, teaching, reading, talking with child and transporting a child.

Annex B: Additional tables

Table B.1: Employment status by age groups (%), 2010

	Employed			Unemployed			Inactive		
	25-54	55-64	65-74	25-54	55-64	65-74	25-54	55-64	65-74
Belgium	80.0	37.3	3.0	6.3	1.8	0.0	13.7	60.9	97.0
Bulgaria	75.7	43.8	5.0	7.7	4.4	0.4	16.6	51.8	94.6
Czech Republic	82.2	46.5	7.0	5.7	3.2	0.1	12.2	50.3	92.9
Denmark	83.2	57.6	10.7	5.8	3.6	0.1	11.0	38.9	89.2
Germany	81.6	58.1	6.2	5.8	4.9	0.0	12.6	37.0	93.8
Estonia	74.8	53.8	15.2	13.5	10.4	0.5	11.8	35.8	84.3
Ireland	70.3	50.0	12.8	10.1	4.7	0.3	19.6	45.2	87.0
Greece	73.3	42.3	6.6	10.0	2.8	0.1	16.7	54.9	93.3
Spain	69.6	43.5	3.2	15.9	7.0	0.3	14.5	49.5	96.5
France	81.8	39.8	2.9	7.0	2.8	0.1	11.3	57.4	97.0
Italy	71.1	36.6	5.2	5.8	1.4	0.1	23.1	62.1	94.7
Cyprus	82.5	56.8	16.8	4.7	2.8	0.1	12.8	40.4	83.2
Latvia	73.4	48.2	9.8	15.2	8.9	0.5	11.5	42.9	89.7
Lithuania	73.8	48.6	7.2	14.7	8.2	0.2	11.5	43.2	92.7
Luxembourg	82.2	39.4	4.2	3.4	0.8	0.0	14.4	59.8	95.8
Hungary	72.5	34.4	3.4	8.4	2.9	0.0	19.1	62.7	96.6
Malta	68.8	30.2	4.9	4.3	1.4	0.1	26.9	68.4	95.0
Netherlands	84.7	54.0	8.7	3.2	2.2	0.2	12.1	43.8	91.1
Austria	84.2	42.4	7.8	3.5	0.9	0.0	12.3	56.7	92.2
Poland	77.1	34.0	7.2	7.0	2.6	0.2	15.9	63.4	92.6
Portugal	79.2	49.2	21.6	9.5	4.8	0.2	11.3	46.0	78.2
Romania	74.4	41.1	22.9	5.1	1.4	0.0	20.5	57.5	77.1
Slovenia	83.7	35.0	10.1	6.3	1.4	0.0	10.0	63.5	90.0
Slovakia	75.8	40.5	2.5	11.2	4.6	0.1	13.1	54.9	97.5
Finland	81.6	55.5	8.0	6.0	3.9	0.1	12.5	40.6	91.9
Sweden	85.0	70.5	11.8	5.6	4.0	0.2	9.4	25.5	87.9
UK	79.8	56.7	14.2	5.2	2.8	0.4	15.0	40.5	85.4
EU-27	77.6	46.3	7.7	7.3	3.4	0.1	15.1	50.3	92.2

Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

Table B.2: Employment rate by age and gender (%), 2010

	25-54		55-64		65-74	
COUNTRY	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Belgium	85.5	74.4	45.6	29.2	4.3	1.8
Bulgaria	77.9	73.6	50.8	37.9	7.8	2.8
Czech Republic	90.5	73.4	58.4	35.5	9.5	5.1
Denmark	85.9	80.6	62.7	52.5	15.6	6.3
Germany	86.7	76.3	65.4	51.0	8.3	4.3
Estonia	75.7	73.9	52.2	54.9	17.3	13.9
Ireland	75.0	65.7	58.1	42.0	18.5	7.3
Greece	85.3	61.1	56.5	28.9	10.0	3.8
Spain	75.7	63.2	54.9	33.1	4.5	2.1
France	87.0	76.7	41.9	37.8	3.8	2.2
Italy	83.5	58.7	47.6	26.2	8.5	2.4
Cyprus	88.4	76.6	71.2	43.0	25.3	9.0
Latvia	72.9	73.8	47.6	48.7	11.4	8.9
Lithuania	71.4	76.1	52.3	45.8	10.0	5.6
Luxembourg	91.8	72.4	47.7	30.8	5.9	2.7
Hungary	77.9	67.1	39.6	30.1	4.8	2.5
Malta	88.8	47.8	47.9	13.0	8.9	1.6
Netherlands	89.9	79.5	65.1	42.9	13.0	4.8
Austria	88.7	79.7	51.6	33.7	10.1	5.8
Poland	82.6	71.7	45.3	24.2	10.6	4.9
Portugal	83.9	74.6	55.7	43.5	26.5	17.6
Romania	81.5	67.2	50.3	33.0	25.3	21.1
Slovenia	85.2	82.1	45.5	24.5	13.5	7.4
Slovakia	81.4	70.1	54.0	28.7	3.6	1.7
Finland	83.9	79.2	54.2	56.8	12.3	4.3
Sweden	88.0	82.0	74.2	66.7	16.4	7.4
UK	85.4	74.3	64.5	49.2	17.5	11.2
EU-27	**83.9**	**71.3**	**54.6**	**38.6**	**10.3**	**5.5**

Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

Table B.3: Proportion of full-time workers among the employed, by gender and age (%), 2010

	Males			Females		
	25-54	55-64	65-74	25-54	55-64	65-74
Belgium	93.5	82.8	41.5	58.7	47.1	31.1
Bulgaria	98.5	97.4	88.2	98.4	96.2	78.5
Czech Republic	98.7	95.1	56.5	92.0	86.3	34.5
Denmark	93.1	87.9	44.2	69.6	60.0	29.7
Germany	92.8	90.8	43.1	52.4	49.5	21.7
Estonia	96.0	87.4	62.9	88.9	84.9	48.9
Ireland	92.1	86.6	69.8	69.5	52.6	29.9
Greece	97.1	96.7	86.5	90.7	88.5	76.0
Spain	96.1	95.7	79.6	77.1	76.8	70.7
France	95.2	87.9	53.0	71.1	66.0	42.2
Italy	95.8	93.6	76.8	70.6	79.2	64.3
Cyprus	96.5	92.4	66.9	89.2	84.2	51.7
Latvia	93.3	90.9	75.2	89.6	88.0	73.1
Lithuania	94.9	89.7	75.6	91.8	87.8	67.1
Luxembourg	97.5	92.7	45.8	63.5	60.4	35.0
Hungary	97.1	92.7	61.6	93.6	86.7	40.4
Malta	97.0	92.0	33.1	76.7	58.3	8.0
Netherlands	85.5	70.5	23.3	26.0	17.7	2.8
Austria	93.7	87.5	36.9	54.6	51.3	21.6
Poland	96.9	89.1	52.0	91.7	73.2	36.8
Portugal	96.5	88.8	52.5	90.4	74.3	40.5
Romania	92.1	85.4	64.7	92.3	78.7	61.7
Slovenia	96.4	86.8	49.8	91.3	73.7	39.5
Slovakia	97.8	96.4	63.0	95.6	90.8	45.5
Finland	95.2	86.3	39.0	86.6	75.6	25.6
Sweden	92.0	84.3	31.1	64.7	58.6	16.9
UK	93.6	83.7	45.6	60.9	50.4	23.9
EU-27	94.5	88.8	53.6	70.2	62.8	38.4

Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

Table B.4: Distribution of working hours for employed people (%), by age, 2010

Age groups	25 - 54			55 - 64			65 - 74		
Hours worked	1 to 19	20 to 34	35+	1 to 19	20 to 34	35+	1 to 19	20 to 34	35+
Belgium	7.6	17.5	74.9	14.8	18.2	67.0	50.2	11.7	38.1
Bulgaria	0.6	1.7	97.7	1.1	3.2	95.8	4.6	11.5	83.9
Czech Republic	0.8	4.3	94.9	2.1	7.2	90.6	20.6	34.7	44.7
Denmark	4.6	16.7	78.8	6.4	21.3	72.3	41.3	23.8	35.0
Germany	10.8	16.4	72.8	12.4	16.3	71.3	46.9	19.0	34.1
Estonia	1.4	6.5	92.2	3.1	12.0	84.9	15.2	31.8	53.0
Ireland	8.6	17.6	73.8	14.9	21.0	64.1	28.1	18.8	53.2
Greece	2.4	10.7	87.0	3.0	11.7	85.3	8.7	18.0	73.3
Spain	4.1	11.7	84.2	6.0	8.5	85.5	13.7	14.2	72.1
France	4.7	13.7	81.6	10.5	14.8	74.7	34.8	18.2	46.9
Italy	4.7	15.6	79.7	7.5	16.2	76.3	13.8	21.8	64.4
Cyprus	2.3	6.4	91.4	4.3	8.9	86.8	16.2	31.7	52.0
Latvia	1.8	8.5	89.7	2.4	9.5	88.1	6.4	20.6	73.1
Lithuania	2.3	7.2	90.5	4.3	11.0	84.7	11.1	20.9	68.0
Luxembourg	4.6	15.7	79.7	9.8	14.2	76.0	44.2	17.8	38.0
Hungary	1.1	4.5	94.5	3.0	8.1	88.9	21.0	30.9	48.1
Malta	2.3	12.3	85.4	5.9	13.1	81.1	35.9	36.4	27.8
Netherlands	12.2	30.1	57.7	21.1	29.3	49.6	58.0	24.5	17.6
Austria	6.5	18.1	75.4	12.5	14.9	72.6	44.4	24.2	31.3
Poland	2.2	7.3	90.5	5.7	13.8	80.5	22.9	37.1	40.1
Portugal	2.4	5.3	92.3	8.7	11.9	79.4	27.2	31.8	41.0
Romania	6.2	3.9	89.9	13.3	9.8	76.9	26.2	20.6	53.2
Slovenia	0.9	5.3	93.8	6.4	11.5	82.1	23.6	25.9	50.4
Slovakia	0.7	3.1	96.2	1.3	5.5	93.2	15.0	34.1	50.9
Finland	2.8	10.4	86.8	8.0	15.1	76.9	43.2	25.5	31.3
Sweden	2.7	16.8	80.6	4.0	22.6	73.4	43.5	29.2	27.3
UK	9.4	16.2	74.4	15.7	20.0	64.4	41.9	23.9	34.2
EU-27	**6.0**	**13.4**	**80.6**	**10.2**	**15.5**	**74.2**	**33.2**	**23.3**	**43.5**

Source: Labour Force Survey 2010

Table B.5: Trends in employment rate for older workers aged 55-64 (%), 2005-2010

	Males	Females

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Belgium	41.7	40.9	42.9	42.8	42.9	45.6	22.1	23.2	26.0	26.3	27.7	29.2
Bulgaria	45.5	49.5	51.8	55.9	54.8	50.8	25.5	31.1	34.5	37.9	39.0	37.9
Czech Republic	59.3	59.5	59.6	61.9	59.6	58.4	30.9	32.1	33.5	34.4	35.0	35.5
Denmark	65.6	67.1	64.9	64.6	64.1	62.7	53.5	54.3	52.4	50.1	50.9	52.5
Germany	53.5	56.8	59.6	61.7	63.8	65.4	37.5	41.1	44.6	45.7	48.4	51.0
Estonia	59.3	57.5	59.4	65.2	59.4	52.2	53.7	59.2	60.5	60.3	61.2	54.9
Ireland	65.7	66.5	68.1	66.0	60.9	58.1	37.4	40.0	39.8	41.6	41.0	42.0
Greece	58.8	59.2	59.1	59.1	57.7	56.5	25.8	26.6	26.9	27.5	27.7	28.9
Spain	59.7	60.5	59.6	59.9	56.5	54.9	27.4	28.2	28.9	30.4	31.3	33.1
France	41.5	40.7	40.7	40.4	41.4	41.9	35.7	35.5	35.9	35.8	36.3	37.8
Italy	42.7	43.7	45.1	45.5	46.7	47.6	20.8	21.9	23.0	24.0	25.4	26.2
Cyprus	70.8	71.6	72.5	70.9	71.7	71.2	31.5	36.6	40.3	39.4	40.8	43.0
Latvia	55.2	59.5	64.6	63.1	53.1	47.6	45.3	48.7	52.4	56.7	53.3	48.7
Lithuania	59.1	55.7	60.8	60.2	56.0	52.3	41.7	45.1	47.9	47.8	48.3	45.8
Luxembourg	38.3	38.7	35.6	38.7	45.6	47.7	24.9	27.8	28.6	29.3	29.1	30.8
Hungary	40.6	41.4	41.7	38.5	39.9	39.6	26.7	27.1	26.2	25.7	27.0	30.1
Malta	50.8	49.4	45.9	46.5	45.0	47.9	12.4	10.8	11.6	12.4	11.0	13.0
Netherlands	56.9	58.7	60.9	63.8	65.8	65.1	35.2	37.6	39.5	42.0	44.3	42.9
Austria	41.3	45.3	49.8	51.8	51.0	51.6	22.9	26.3	28.0	30.8	31.7	33.7
Poland	35.9	38.4	41.4	44.1	44.3	45.3	19.7	19.0	19.4	20.7	21.9	24.2
Portugal	58.1	58.2	58.6	58.5	57.5	55.7	43.7	42.8	44.0	43.9	42.7	43.5
Romania	46.7	50.0	50.3	53.0	52.3	50.3	33.1	34.5	33.6	34.4	34.1	33.0
Slovenia	43.1	44.5	45.3	44.7	46.4	45.5	18.5	21.0	22.2	21.1	24.8	24.5
Slovakia	47.8	49.8	52.5	56.7	54.9	54.0	15.6	18.9	21.2	24.2	26.1	28.7
Finland	52.6	55.0	55.5	56.7	54.0	54.2	52.8	53.4	54.5	55.7	55.5	56.8
Sweden	72.0	72.3	72.9	73.4	73.2	74.2	66.7	66.9	67.0	66.7	66.7	66.7
UK	65.7	66.0	66.1	67.2	65.7	64.5	48.2	48.9	48.9	48.6	48.5	49.2
EU-27	51.5	52.8	53.9	54.8	54.7	54.6	33.6	34.9	35.9	36.6	37.5	38.6

Source: Labour Force Survey 2005-2010

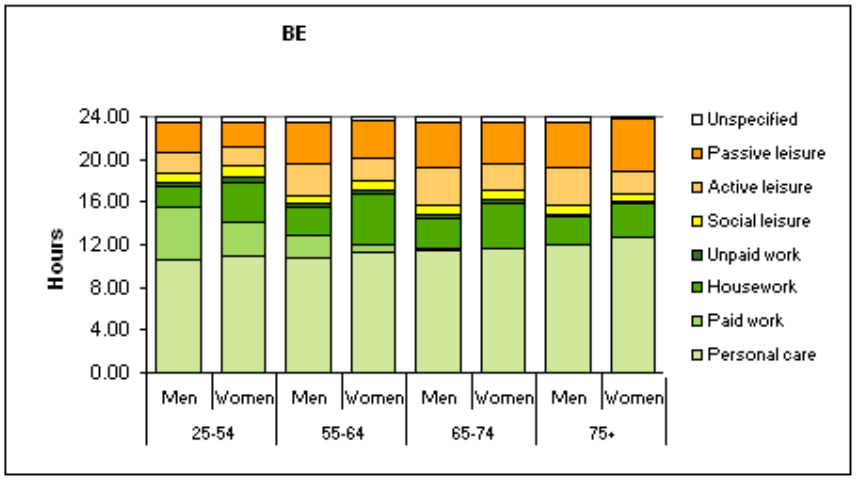
Table B.6: Trends in employment rate for 'silver workers', aged 65-74 (%), by gender, 2005-2010

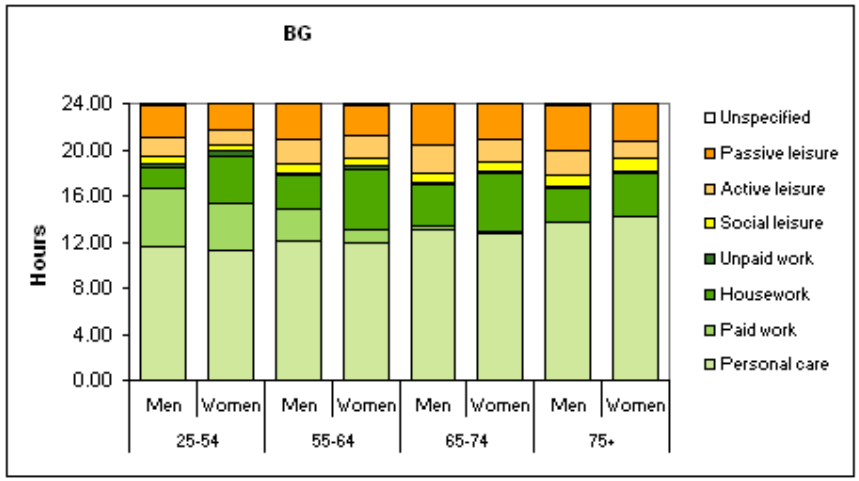
	Males						Females					
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Belgium	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.1	4.6	4.3	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.8
Bulgaria	5.4	6.5	7.7	8.8	8.5	7.8	2.1	2.2	2.5	3.4	3.0	2.8
Czech Republic	8.4	9.1	10.3	10.1	10.5	9.5	3.8	4.0	4.6	4.7	5.4	5.1
Denmark	15.2	14.1	14.9	15.4	15.4	15.6	5.3	4.8	5.4	5.1	5.8	6.3
Germany	6.8	6.9	6.7	7.4	8.3	8.3	3.5	3.6	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.3
Estonia	19.7	24.9	21.8	21.9	19.9	17.3	13.8	15.8	16.7	15.1	13.1	13.9
Ireland	19.3	19.1	21.4	21.3	19.6	18.5	5.1	7.2	6.7	7.7	7.1	7.3
Greece	10.4	11.0	10.9	11.0	10.6	10.0	3.1	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.8
Spain	4.6	5.6	5.2	5.2	5.2	4.5	1.9	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.7	2.1
France	2.7	2.6	3.7	3.3	3.5	3.8	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2
Italy	8.7	9.1	9.1	9.4	8.7	8.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.4
Cyprus	24.7	21.9	24.5	27.4	25.4	25.3	7.1	6.6	6.1	6.0	9.6	9.0
Latvia	20.9	23.7	24.5	29.5	18.9	11.4	9.7	13.6	15.2	16.2	11.5	8.9
Lithuania	9.2	9.9	13.2	13.9	11.9	10.0	4.6	5.3	5.7	6.1	6.5	5.6
Luxembourg	1.3	0.6	1.1	1.1	6.9	5.9	0.5	0.7	0.2	1.4	1.6	2.7
Hungary	4.2	4.2	4.7	4.9	5.0	4.8	1.4	1.6	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.5
Malta	5.7	5.1	4.6	5.1	7.6	8.9	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.5	1.6
Netherlands	10.8	11.1	10.8	11.8	14.3	13.0	3.5	3.4	4.3	4.8	4.9	4.8
Austria	6.9	7.4	9.0	9.9	10.2	10.1	2.8	3.7	5.0	5.2	5.6	5.8
Poland	11.5	10.7	10.1	10.4	10.4	10.6	5.4	5.0	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.9
Portugal	30.1	30.4	29.4	28.2	27.2	26.5	18.3	17.8	19.0	18.6	18.9	17.6
Romania	25.6	25.7	30.7	28.9	26.7	25.3	21.4	21.0	23.2	23.4	21.3	21.1
Slovenia	14.2	13.5	13.8	10.3	12.5	13.5	7.7	7.6	9.2	6.9	7.4	7.4
Slovakia	3.3	2.7	2.0	4.1	3.6	3.6	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.7
Finland	6.8	7.8	9.3	11.3	10.8	12.3	3.1	4.0	4.7	4.3	5.2	4.3
Sweden	14.4	13.7	14.9	16.2	16.1	16.4	5.6	6.6	7.3	8.0	8.8	7.4
UK	13.5	14.9	15.1	16.2	16.7	17.5	7.4	8.0	7.7	9.0	10.8	11.2
EU-27	9.3	9.6	10	10.3	10.4	10.3	4.6	4.7	5	5.3	5.6	5.5

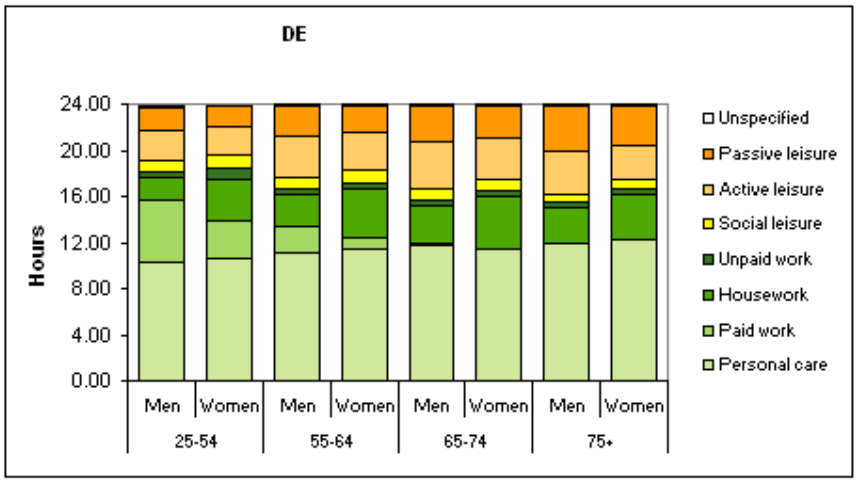
Source: Labour Force Survey 2005-2010

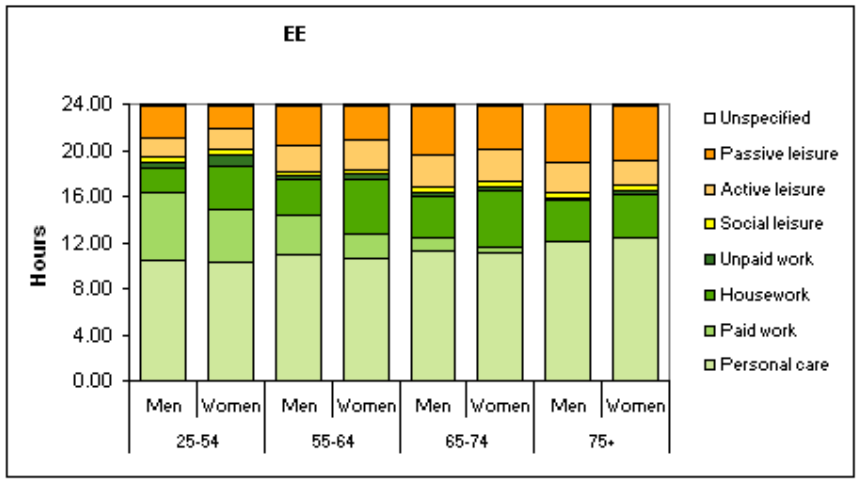
Annex C: Additional Graphs

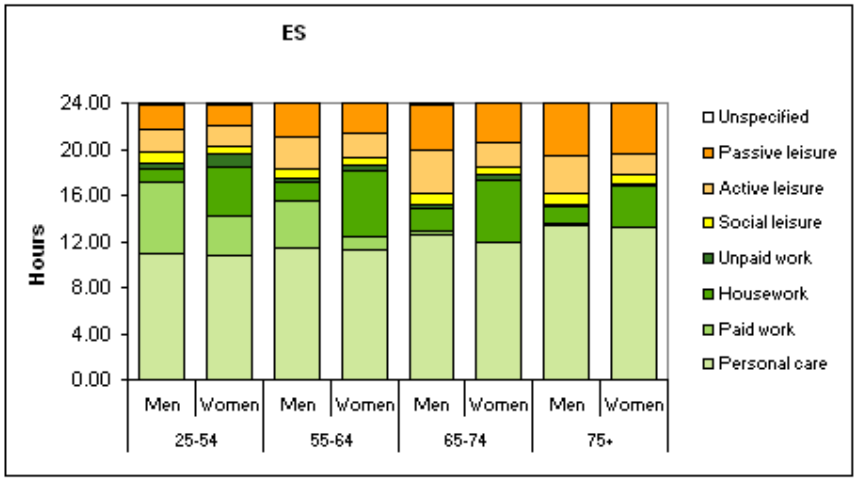
Figure C1: Time use by age and gender (mean hours per day)







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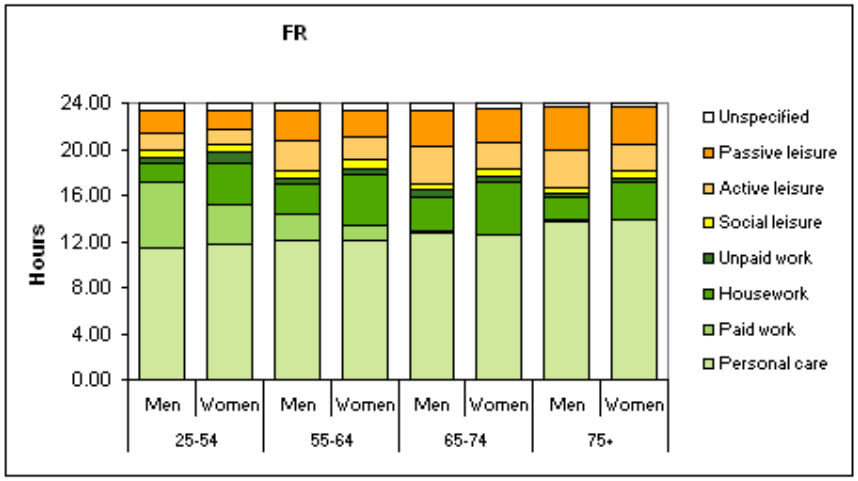
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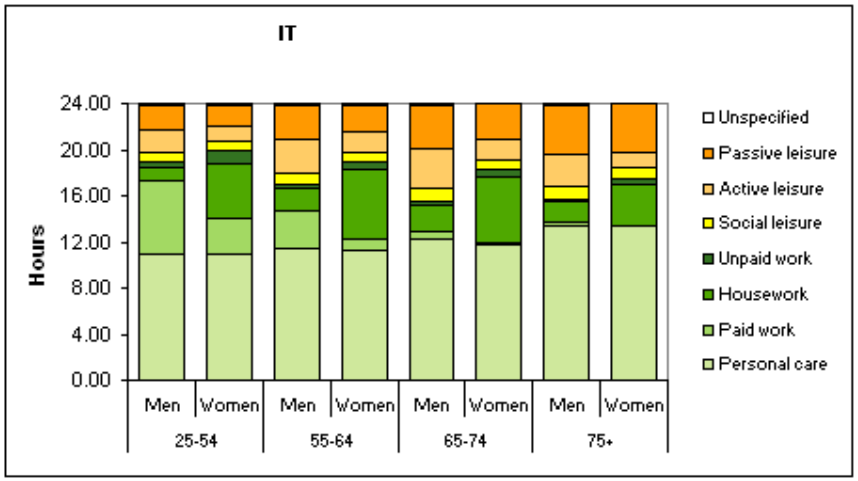
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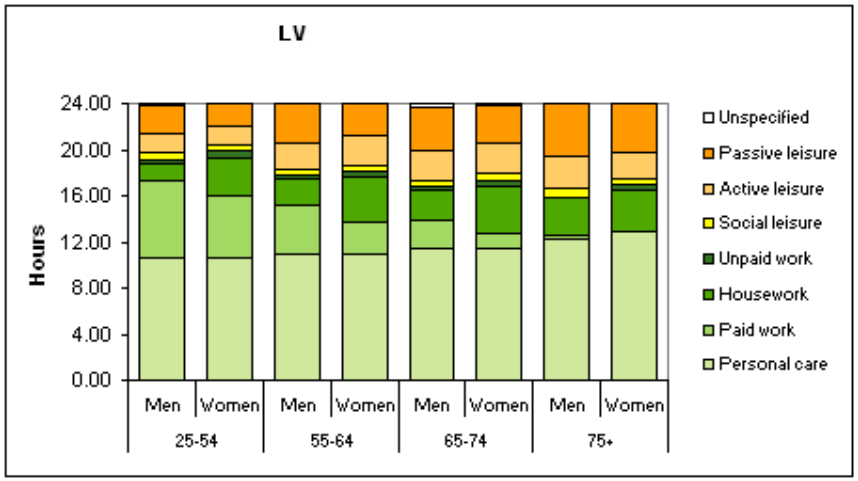
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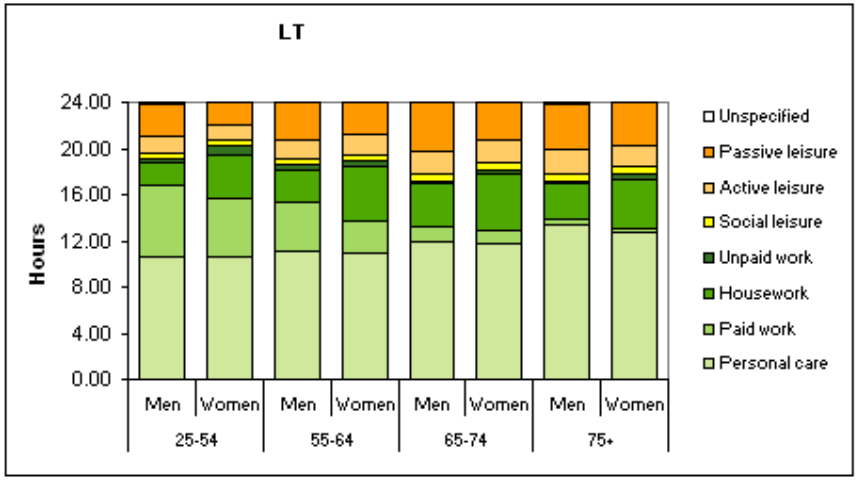
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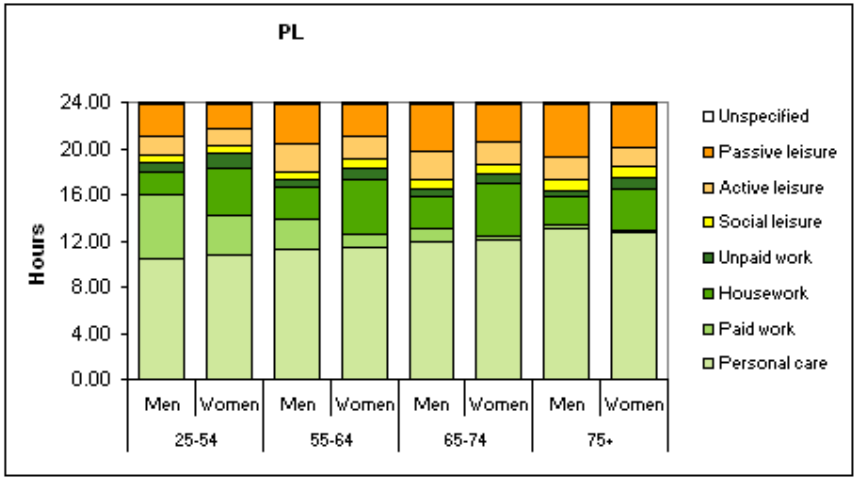
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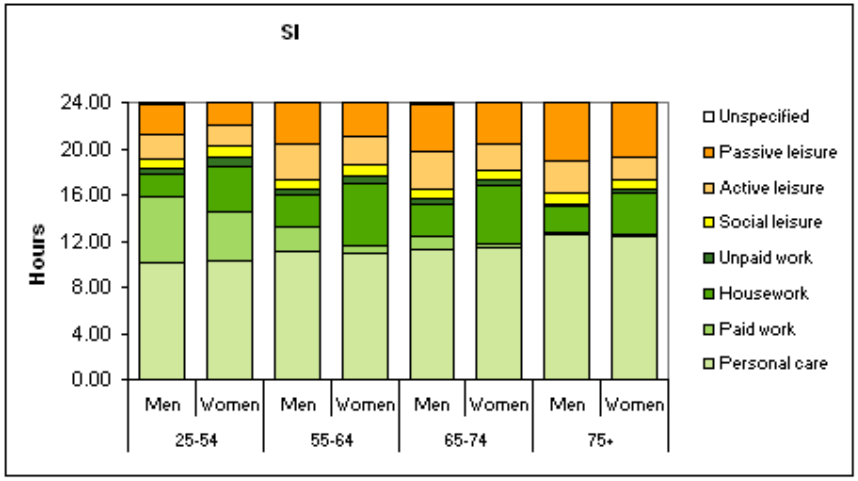
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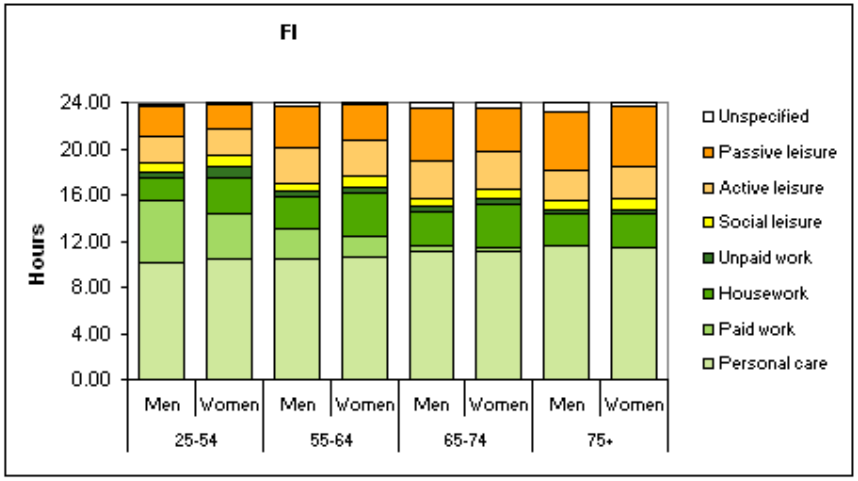
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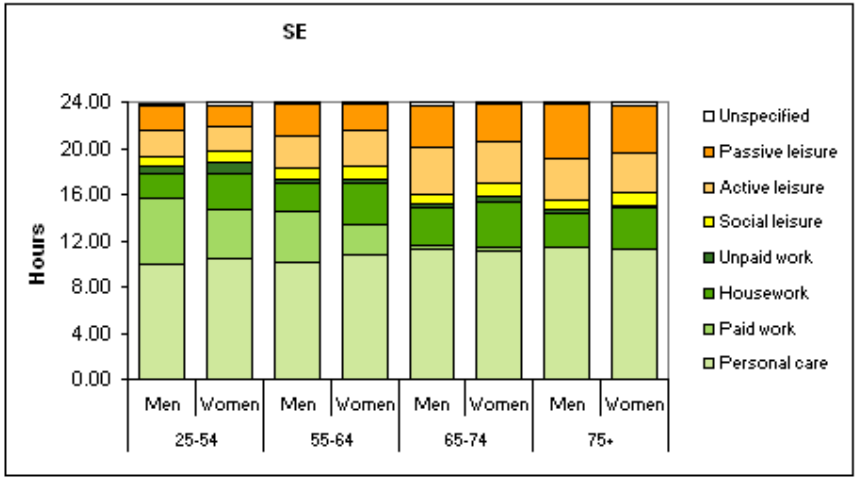

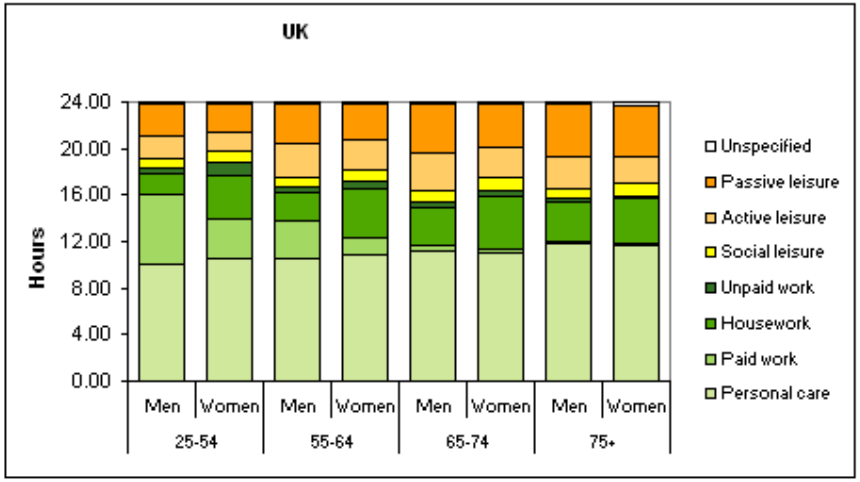

Source: See Figure 1

Note: See Figure 1