

European Network Indicators of Social Quality
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”
The Dutch National Report

by
Prof. dr Chris R.J.D. de Neubourg
& Pia Steffens

University of Maastricht
Faculty of Economic Sciences

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European Foundation on Social Quality

Felix Meritis Building

Keizersgracht 324

1016 EZ Amsterdam

Ph: +31 20 626 2321

Fax: +31 20 624 9368

Email: EFSQ@felix.meritis.nl

Website: www.socialquality.org

Preface

This national report and the 13 others that accompany it are published as part of the final report of the European Network on Indicators of Social Quality (ENIQ). The network began in October 2001 and completed its work in January 2005 and was funded under the Fifth Framework Programme of Directorate-General Research. Also published simultaneously are reports by the European Anti-Poverty Network and the International Council of Social Welfare, European Region based on the work of ENIQ. All of these reports and the deliberations of the Network contributed to the final report which contains a comprehensive overview of all of ENIQ's activities both theoretical and practical.

ENIQ has been focussed mainly on the operationalisation of the four conditional factors of social quality: socio-economic security, social cohesion, social inclusion and social empowerment. This huge collective effort has produced a very original and theoretically grounded instrument for comparative research aimed at understanding the nature and experience of social quality in different countries and in assessing the impact of policy changes. These national reports also reveal the highly differentiated character of the European Union (EU) which cannot be captured by reduction to a small number of social models. At the same time there is clearly an intrinsic affinity in the emphasis on equity and solidarity between most of the countries involved. This intrinsic, philosophical affinity is intriguing for future research.

The work presented in the national reports and the Network's final report will contribute substantially to the major book that will be published by the end of this year. There will also be articles based on the national reports in the European Journal of Social Quality.

The preparation of these national reports was an extremely difficult task. Developing a new approach, a new instrument, and analysing important social and economic trends and their consequences entailed considerable efforts for both established scientists and their junior assistants. The whole network had to grapple with the theoretical aspects of social quality as well as the empirical dimensions. Therefore we want to express our deep gratitude, on behalf of the European Foundation for Social Quality, for the work done by all participants in ENIQ. We will endeavour to ensure that this effort is not wasted and that Europe benefits from their expertise. We also want to acknowledge the excellent contributions of the staff of the Foundation - Margo Keizer, Helma Verkleij, Robert Duiveman and Sarah Doornbos - to the successful completion of this project. They made substantial inputs to all stages of the Network. Finally our thanks to the European Commission for funding ENIQ.

Alan Walker, Chair of ENIQ

Laurent van der Maesen, Co-ordinator of ENIQ

Participants

Belgium:	Prof. dr Bea Cantillon, Veerle De Maesschalck; Centre for Social Policy, UFSIA
Finland:	Dr Mika Gissler, Mr Mika Vuori; STAKES
France:	Prof. dr Denis Bouget, Frederic Salladarre, Mourad Sandi; Maison des Sc. De l'Homme Ange Guepin, Universite de Nantes
Germany:	Prof.dr Ilona Ostner, Michael Ebert; Universität Göttingen, Institut für Sozialpolitik
Greece:	Prof. dr Maria Petmezidou, dr Periklis Polizoidis; Democritus University, School of Law / Department of Social Administration
Hungary:	Dr E. Bukodi, Szilvia Altorjai; Hungarian Central Statistical Office, Social Statistics Department
Ireland:	Prof. dr Séamus O'Cinneide, Jean Cushen, Fearghas O'Gabhan; University of Ireland, Centre for Applied Social Studies
Italy:	Prof. dr Chiara Saraceno, dr Susanna Terracina, Ester Cois; University of Turin, Department of Social Sciences
Netherlands:	Prof. dr Chris R.J.D. de Neubourg, Pia Steffens; Universiteit Maastricht, Faculteit Economische Wetenschappen
Portugal:	Prof. dr Alfredo Bruto da Costa, dr Heloïsa Perista, Pedro Perista; CESIS
Slovenia:	Dr. S. Mandic, Ruzica Boskic; University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Social Sciences, Institute for Social Sciences
Spain:	Prof. dr Juan Monreal, Salvadora Titos ; Universidad de Murcia, Dept. de Sociología y Política, Social, Facultad de Economía y Empresa
Sweden:	Prof. dr Göran Therborn, Sonia Therborn; SCASS
United Kingdom:	Prof. dr Alan C. Walker, dr David Phillips, dr Andrea Wigfield, Ms Suzanne Hacking ; University of Sheffield, Department of Sociological Studies
EAPN:	Mr Fintan Farrel; European Anti Poverty Network. Ms Barbara Demeijer; HIVA, Leuven, Belgium
ICSW:	Mrs Marjaliisa Kauppinen; STAKES, International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW). Mr Aki Siltaniemi; The Finnish Federation for Welfare and Health
EFSQ:	Prof. dr Alan C. Walker, dr Laurent J.G. van der Maesen, drs Margo Keizer, drs Helma Verkleij

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1 Introduction

Compared to the extensive advances of market integration within the European Union, the corresponding framework for the merger of social realities appears to be still in its infancy. While the social acquis does not touch on social transfers and makes a small overall contribution to social regulation it is "at best symbolic in industrial relations and social institutions"¹. With a complete unification of societies currently neither being desired or attainable, still the outright inconspicuousness of the European Social Dimension is frequently lamented. The European Network for Indicators of Social Quality (ENIQ) is one of the initiatives evolving from this demand for a socially richer Europe. It aims at developing a theoretical framework that captures the essence of quality in the daily life of (European) citizens. In particular by means of an international as well as interdisciplinary dialogue a coherent set of indicators is designed in order to evaluate the impact of social policies on a national level as well as the convergence of the social realities between Member States.

Referring to the Annex Social Quality for a detailed elaboration of the concept of Social Quality, here only a brief reflection on the theoretical set-up will be offered. The essential emphasis of the Social Quality approach is on the "dialectic of self-realization and the formation of collective identities"². This rules out any individual development that could be pursued absolved from the social context of the individual, be it family, workplace or any other social organization. Vice versa the development of collective identities cannot be separated from the individuals that form it. Within the ENIQ framework Social Quality is measured along four dimensions: Socio-economic Security, Social Empowerment, Social Cohesion and Social Inclusion. Each of these conditional factors is divided into domains, sub-domains –and eventually- indicators of Social Quality.

It is the purpose of this paper to present a first set of data for the theoretical elements that have been developed. Simultaneously with our European partners publishing their national outcomes, this report will inform the reader on the Social Quality as it is perceived by Dutch citizens. For this purpose, each of the above-named conditional factors is going to be referred to in an individual chapter.

Chapter 1 deals with Socio-economic Security in the Netherlands. In the Social Quality approach Socio-economic Security means to look after oneself and others, with the help of the most various formal and informal institutions operating in society. The subject matter of Socio-economic Security is defined as "the degree to which people have material and immaterial resources over time in the context of social relations". The focus on material and immaterial resources is the feature that distinguishes Socio-economic Security from other conditional factors of Social Quality.

¹ J. Pelkmans: *European Integration Methods and Economic Analysis*, 2nd edition, Prentice Hall, 2001, p.314

² L.J.G. van der Maesen, and A. Walker: *Social Quality: the theoretical state of affairs*; EFSQ Working Paper, Amsterdam, June 2002

Chapter 2 offers a Dutch perspective on Social Cohesion, which is defined as "the degree and quality of social relations between people based on shared norms and values in society". Social relations thus constitute the characterizing feature of this conditional factor.

Chapter 3 is dedicated to Social Inclusion, which is defined as "the degree to which people are integrated in (or have access to) different social relations that constitute everyday life". Correspondingly, Social Inclusion strongly relates to dynamic processes. Different levels of inclusion may co-exist in the lives of the individual, depending on the aspect of life we address. The emphasis on integrating people in multiple systems and sub-systems is the distinguishing feature of Social Inclusion.

Chapter 4 concludes the analysis of Social Quality in the Netherlands by addressing Social Empowerment. Empowerment is defined as "the degree to which the personal capabilities and ability of people to act is enhanced by social relations". Empowerment is regarded here as a process rather than a static output and is based on cooperation rather than individual capacity.

Chapter 5 supplements the preceding analyzes in describing recent policy initiatives that are relevant from the perspective of Social Quality. Emphasis is placed here on the fact that frequently, policy initiatives constitute a trade off between different conditional factors of Social Quality and benefits and costs have to be weighed carefully.

2 Socio-economic Security

2.1 Introduction

The concept of Socio-economic Security implies some essential differences with the term "social security". In the Social Quality approach "the social" does not refer to "what is common". It regards processes as a consequence of the main dialectic that characterizes the theory of Social Quality, the self-realisation of citizens in forming collective identities. Correspondingly, the "economic" component is added with reference to the Greek word 'oikos' for household, and is supposed to allude to cooperation that serves the mastering of daily circumstances. In the Social Quality approach Socio-economic Security is not left for the individual to achieve: it means to look after oneself and others, with help of the most various formal and informal institutions operating in society.

The subject matter of Socio-economic Security is defined as follows: "It is the degree to which people have material and immaterial resources over time in the context of social relations". "People" are acting social beings and "the social" is reflecting processes of self-realisation. "Social relations" in turn refer to the formation of collective identities as families, social networks, communities, parts of systems, institutions etc. The characteristics of Socio-economic Security are material and immaterial resources. This specification will be crucial in delimiting Socio-economic Security from other conditional factors of the theory. Domains subsequently introduced express the characteristics of the conditional factor. The (im)material resources for Socio-economic Security could be money (financial security), work, having shelter (housing), health, education, family and friends (social network) and time³.

It is the aim of this chapter to analyse the state of Socio-economic Security by means of a number of indicators that have been developed for these domains and which are summarized in table 1 below. In the following, each of the domains will be addressed individually and evaluated for the Dutch context.

³ M. Keizer and L.J.G. van der Maesen: Social Quality and the Component of Socio-economic security 3rd Draft, Working Paper, Amsterdam, September 2003

Table 1 Indicators of Socio-economic Security

Domains	Sub-domains	Indicators
Financial resources	Income sufficiency	1. Part of household income spent on health, clothing, food and housing (in the lower and median household incomes)
	Income security	2. How do certain biographical events affect the risk of poverty on household level. 3. Proportion of total population living in households receiving entitlement transfers (means-tested, cash and in-kind transfers) that allow them to live above EU poverty level
Housing and environment	Housing security	4. Proportion of people who have certainty of keeping their home
	Housing conditions	5. Proportion of hidden families (i.e. several families within the same household)
		6. Number of square meters per household member 7. Proportion of population living in houses with lack of functioning basic amenities (water, sanitation and energy)
	Environmental conditions (social and natural)	8. People affected by criminal offences per 10.000 inhabitants 9. Proportion living in households that are situated in neighbourhoods with above average pollution rate (water, air and noise)
Health and care	Security of health provisions	10. Proportion of people covered by compulsory/ voluntary health insurance (including qualitative exploration of what is and what is not covered by insurance system)
	Health services	11. Number of medical doctors per 10.000 inhabitants 12. Average distance to hospital, measure in minutes, not in meters 13. Average response time of medical ambulance
	Care services	14. Average number of hours spent on care differentiated by paid and unpaid
Work	Employment security	15. Length of notice before employer can change terms and conditions of labour relation/contract 16. Length of notice before termination of labour contract 17. proportion employed workforce with temporary, non permanent, job contract 18. Proportion of workforce that is illegal
	Working conditions	19. Number of employees that reduced work time because of interruption (parental leave, medical assistance of relative, palliative leave) as a proportion of the employees who are entitled to these kinds of work time reductions 20. Number of accidents (fatal / non-fatal) at work per 100.000 employed persons (if possible: per sector) 21. Number of hours a full-time employee typically works a week (actual working week)
Education	Security of education	22. Proportion of pupils leaving education without finishing compulsory education (early school leavers) 23. Study fees as proportion of national mean net wage
	Quality of education	24. Proportion of students who, within a year of leaving school with or without certificate, are able to find employment

Source: M. Keizer and L.J.G. van der Maesen: Social Quality and the Component of Socio-economic security 3rd Draft, Working Paper, Amsterdam, September 2003

2.2 Financial Resources

The combination of the sub-domains "income sufficiency" and "income security" offers the basis for a comprehensive understanding of the Dutch income situation: well-being is not only described as a function of the income level, but as well of income variation. As far as income sufficiency is concerned, table 2 illustrates that low-income households are forced to assume a different consumption pattern

than high-income households. In particular, it is striking that a significantly higher proportion of total expenditures is dedicated to nutrition and –even more importantly- accommodation by households in lower income classes⁴. The higher expenditure on these basic needs items comes at the cost of relatively lower expenditures on self-development, leisure and traffic as well as clothing. Consumption on hygiene and health care shows no obvious relation with income⁵.

Table 2 Household Expenditure on Clothing, Food and Accommodation and Health by Household Income Decile (2000)

	1st Decile	2nd Decile	3rd Decile	4th Decile	5th Decile	6th Decile	7th Decile	8th Decile	9th Decile	10th Decile
Food	18	18,8	17,9	17,3	17,1	18,6	18	17,7	16,7	15,6
Accommodation	41	43,9	40,5	39,3	35,2	33,7	33,1	32,5	30,1	31,1
Clothing	5,9	5,3	5,9	5,8	6,8	7,1	7,1	7,2	7	7,7
Hygiene and Health Care	6,3	6,8	6,1	6	6,8	5,8	6,1	5,6	6,5	6,8

Source: CBS; Bestedingen beknopt; Huishoudkenmerken

High income replacement rates in case of sickness, unemployment and retirement suggest high levels of income security in the Dutch society. In the Netherlands, employers are obliged to pay an employee minimally 70% of his last earned salary⁶ within the first year of sickness. Some collective bargaining agreements even guarantee a higher compensation. If the term of sickness exceeds 52 weeks, people will receive disability benefits after that period. The replacement rate here depends on age, the degree of disability and the height of the salary last earned. A maximum of 70% of the last earned salary can be obtained⁷. After 5 years individuals have to re-apply for this benefit. Also the transition from employment to unemployment confronts the average worker with a reduction of his income to 70%. Benefits are distributed for a period between six months and 5 years⁸.

It is difficult to speak of an average replacement rate for Dutch retirees, since the Dutch pension system is composed of 3 pillars, consisting of a basic state pension, an occupational pension scheme and individual old age insurance. The public pension is a flat-rate benefit, payable from age 65 subject to a residency test. The benefit for a single person is worth 70% of the net minimum wage, which corresponds to around 35% of the economy-wide average earnings⁹. In addition 91% of all employees participate in the private occupational pension system. Typical benefits are 1.75% of the final salary for each year of service, giving a replacement rate of 70% after a complete 40-year career. Earnings-related benefits do not complement but substitute the public benefit entitlement. Correspondingly, all workers with pay above 50% of the economy-wide average receive a flat 70% replacement rate¹⁰.

⁴ Low-income households are entitled to rent subsidies which are not deducted from expenditure numbers reported here.

⁵ Sociaal en Cultureel Panbureau: Armoedemonitor 2001, Den Haag, November 2001

⁶ This amount is subject to a maximum daily salary of 167, 7 Euro; the lower bound corresponds to the legal minimum wage.

⁷ The same daily maximum and minimum salary as above applies here

⁸ Agora, Platform Sociale Zekerheid: Informatie Sociale Zekerheid in Nederland: retrieved from www.saludegroep.nl/publ/agora/index.php?n=564 on May 13th, 2004

⁹ Single persons with a child younger than 18 receive 90% and married individuals 50% respectively of the net minimum wage.

¹⁰ OECD Report: Aging and Income, Paris, 2001

The second indicator of the sub-domain "income security" concerns the capacity of the benefit system to prevent people from poverty. Table 3 displays the share of persons with an income lower than the EU risk-of-poverty threshold¹¹, before and after social transfers.

Table 3 The impact of social transfers (excluding pensions) on the risk-of-poverty rate before transfers for the Netherlands¹²

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Before transfers	24	24	23	21	21	21	21
After transfers	11	12	10	10	11	10	11
Reduction	13	12	13	11	10	11	10

Source: Eurostat; Free data, Social Cohesion

While 24% of the EU population were at risk of poverty in 2001, the Netherlands fall slightly below this number with a poverty rate of 21%. After Social transfers the risk of poverty is reduced to 15% for the EU 15 countries as compared to 11% for the Netherlands. This shows that recent reductions in poverty risk in the Netherlands are exclusively due to an improvement of the pre-transfer situation. Thus a reduction in poverty risk cannot be attributed to a higher impact of social transfers.

2.3 Housing and Environment

It is difficult to say how many people really face "certainty of keeping their home". What is for sure is that Dutch tenants benefit from formidable protection: generally speaking, landlords do not have the right to cancel the rental contract unilaterally¹³. Courts will enforce this right in case of 5 very narrowly circumscribed reasons¹⁴.

In case of certain forms of unacceptable behaviour by the tenant (accumulation of rent arrears, damage to rented property, nuisance to other tenants or the landlord).

At the end of a temporary rental contract. This reason, however, only applies if either the landlord himself or the previous tenant has to move back in.

Urgent need for personal use (including renovation purposes). Even if this is established, it must be the case that the current tenant is in the state to find an adequate new accommodation.

The landlord asks for a change in the contractual relationship, which is not accepted by the tenant. In case of a rent increase or additional fixed costs for the accommodation, court will decide on the adequacy of this measure.

¹¹ equivalised disposable income below 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income

¹² Data retrieved from europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/: Free data: Social Cohesion

¹³ Houseboats, accommodation attached to shops, housing provided from employers to employees and seasonal as well as vacation accommodation are exceptions to this rule.

¹⁴ Ministerie van Volkshuisvesting, Ruimtelijke Ordening en Milieubeheer: Dossier Huurbescherming, retrieved from www.vrom.nl/pagina.html?id=7097 on May 17th, 2004

If the communal authority wants to realise a construction project that requires the termination of the rental contract.

As far as housing conditions are concerned, the Dutch society offers a grossly egalitarian picture. As illustrated in table 5, households in the most wealthy income quartile have approximately one room more at their disposal than households in the least wealthy quartile. For both groups the number of rooms has slightly increased, with high income households showing a more discernible improvement. As far as distinct household types are concerned, differences in housing are even less apparent: a single parent has on average the same number of rooms available as a couple without children as shown by table 4¹⁵.

Table 4 Number of rooms by household characteristics

household type	1990	1994	1998
single	3,3	3,2	3,4
couple	4	4,1	4,2
family with child younger than 18	4,7	4,6	4,8
family with child age 18 or older	4,7	4,7	4,8
single parent	4,2	4,2	4,2

Source: SCP, De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2001, Bijlagen

Table 5 Number of rooms by income quartile

Income category	1990	1994	1998
1st quartile	3,5	3,4	3,6
2nd quartile	3,7	3,8	3,9
3rd quartile	4,1	4,2	4,3
4th quartile	4,5	4,6	4,8

Source: SCP, De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2001, Bijlagen

According to Eurostat, within the Netherlands 12% of all households (16% of households with less than 60% of the median income) lack at least one of three basic amenities (bath/shower, indoor flushing or hot running water). This problem concerns 16% of all poor households. Both percentages are significantly lower than the respective EU averages (21 and 35%)¹⁶. Moreover for 1998, the Central Office for Statistics (CBS) indicated that 0,16% of households do not dispose over any type of bathing facility and 11,9% of all accommodations are not equipped with central heating¹⁷.

As is displayed by table 6, the number of people affected by crimes from 1998 to 2002 remained grossly the same, with a slight increase in vandalism. Strikingly though, the proportion of Dutch citizens feeling unsafe has increased more substantially from 21,9% in 1998 to 25,4% in 2002.

Table 6 Percentage of above 15-year-olds having been victim of a crime or feeling unsafe

	Assault	Vandalism	Theft	Feeling

¹⁵ Retrieved from SCP: De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2001, Bijlagen

¹⁶ Eurostat: Living conditions in Europe, 2003, p.90

¹⁷ CBS Statline: Woon situatie Huishoudens; Voorzieningen Woning, 1998.

	Unsafe			
1998	5,7	11,1	13	-
1999	5,6	11,6	12,6	21,9
2000	5,1	11,1	12,4	20,8
<u>2001</u>	5,9	10,6	12,1	22,5
<u>2002</u>	6	12	12,9	25,4

Source: CBS; Sociale Monitor

Available indicators on the housing environment concern individual perception and are thus subjective in nature. Data summarised in table 7 show that 7,9% of all people asked are concerned with being robbed or harassed in the direct environment of their accommodation. It also shows that this feeling of insecurity is considerably lower within the own home: here less than 2% of the population feel unsafe. Additional nuisance by smell, noise or dirt in their living environment is perceived to be high by 11,5% of all households as suggested by table 8.

Table 7 Security of housing environment: perception by households in % of total households, 1998

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neutral	diagree	Totally disagree
Scared to be robbed or harassed	2,2	5,7	7,8	54,5	29,9
Feeling Safe in own house	44,4	51,4	2,4	1,3	0,5

Adapted from: CBS; "Woonsituatie Huishoudens"

Table 8 Nuisance in living area produced by smell, noise or dirt: perception by households in % of total households, 1998

High	moderate	low
11,5	19,2	69,3

Adapted from: CBS; "Woonsituatie Huishoudens"

2.4 Health Care

Participation in the social insurance scheme is obligatory for employees below a certain earnings level. Social health insurance comprises medical care and dental provision, the costs of institutionalised care services and costs related to childbirth. Employees above a certain income threshold are obliged to insure themselves privately. Private insurances are competing on the market subject to regulation. Generally, services offered are more comprehensive than those of the social insurance scheme. Yet, little can be said about the precise composition of services, since it varies between companies¹⁸. According to the CBS the compulsory nature of Dutch Health Insurance results into coverage of 98% of the population.

¹⁸ Zorgverzekeraars Nederland: The Dutch Health Care System, Fact and Figures; retrieved from <http://www.zn.nl/international/english/about-zn/dutchhealthcare/factsandfigures.asp> on April 28th, 2004

Within the Netherlands in 2001 there were 321 GPs per 100.000 inhabitants¹⁹. The Dutch research organization for health care, Nivel, furthermore reports that GPs have improved their efficiency over the last 14 years: they treat more patients in less time, pay more visits to patients and give more advice on the phone. 97% of all patients could be treated successfully, such that a further consultation of more expensive specialist services could be avoided. Importantly, this coincides with the satisfaction of 90% of the patients.

Using private transport, half of the Dutch inhabitants will be able to reach emergency departments in 10 minutes as is highlighted by figure 1. Moreover, 99,2% can reach emergency services within half an hour by private transport (which is congruent with Eurobarometer data. The 128000 Dutch inhabitants who need more than 30 minutes to receive emergency treatment are mainly resident on the islands, Zeeuws-Vlaanderen, Schouwen Duiveland and in some parts of Friesland and North Groningen²⁰. Eurobarometer also distinguishes travel time by the economic power of households. It shows that within the lowest quartile 11% less are able to reach a hospital within 20 minutes.

Figure 1 Percentage of inhabitants by category of travel duration, private car (2001)



Note: X-axis category of travel duration in minutes, y-axis: % of inhabitants; source:www.rivm.nl

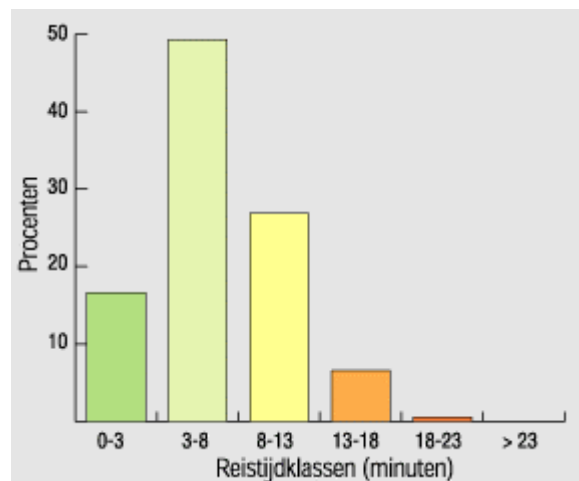
As far as the average response time of ambulances is concerned, Dutch regulations demand that in case of an emergency ambulances have to arrive within 13 minutes of reporting the emergency. For about 1,1 million or 7,2% of all Dutch citizens this norm is not fulfilled. Yet, as is illustrated by figure 2, two thirds of all Dutch inhabitants can be reached within 8 minutes. Only 2600 inhabitants cannot be reached within 23 minutes.

¹⁹ Eurostat: Statistical Yearbook 2003

²⁰ Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu, 2003: Nationale Atlas Volksgezondheid, retrieved from www.rivm.nl on May 7th, 2004

The sub-domain "care services" is captured by both paid and unpaid hours spent on care. As far as unpaid care is concerned, data that distinguishes between types of care is not in line with the division suggested by ENIQ. A distinction is merely made between care for own and other children, household members and others. Not surprisingly it shows that the average female spends double as much time per year on care services than men. As table 9 suggests, this holds also true for the individual categories of care.

Figure 2 Percentage of inhabitants per category of travel duration, ambulance (2001)



Explanation: X-axis category of travel duration in minutes, y-axis: % of inhabitants; source:www.rivm.nl

Table 9 Annual hours spent on care, 2001

	Total	own children	other children	family / household Members	family /non-household members	others
Men	116	85	12	6	6	6
Women	231	170	24	12	12	12

Adapted from: CBS; Tijdbesteding per dag

For paid care services, no data was available for annual hours of care. As far as childcare is concerned, however, the CBS highlights that 57% of all eligible children (children between 0 and 12 years of age) are consuming paid care services. This concerns 71% of children at the age of 0-3 and 59% of children between 4 and 6 years of age. Table 10 illustrates that this type of care usually concerns a limited number of hours per week. Furthermore, it has been documented that about 4,7% of all Dutch citizens older than 65 live in a care institution²¹.

Table 10 Weekly hours of child Care, percentage of age group (2001)

	1-8 hours	9-16 hours	17 or more hours
0-3 years	27	27	47
3-6 years	65	23	11

Adapted from: CBS; Kinderopvang 2001

²¹ CBS: Verzorgingshuizen, index cijfers 2001

Old age care is delivered by both, verpleeghuizen and verzorgingshuizen (within the former higher emphasis is placed on medical care). Recent increases in places available have not corresponded well with the simultaneous increase in the old-aged population. Whereas in 1975, 33 beds were available per 100 people above age 75, in 2000 this number had shrunk to 18. Nationally, the amount of beds in 1999 was 8,2% lower than the legally prescribed norm. Only in the cities of The Hague and Utrecht the number of beds exceeds the norm; in the province of Flevoland the deficit exceeds 30%²². As a consequence, care institutions display long waiting lists, which are addressed in more detail in chapter 3 on Social Inclusion.

2.5 Work

Employment security is depicted here as a combination of the length of notice before a contract can be altered or terminated, the proportion of the employed work force with a permanent job contract and the proportion of the work force that is illegal. Dutch dismissal law is governed by a dual system. On the one hand private sector employers wishing to terminate an employment contract unilaterally require prior permission from a public administrative body, the Centre for Work and Income (CWI). The CWI checks whether the intended dismissal is reasonable. If the institution finds that there are no reasonable grounds for dismissal, the employer is not allowed to dismiss. On the other hand labor courts handle dismissals. Dismissals are generally ruled as fair if they are on grounds of employee conduct or unsuitability, and for economic redundancy. In the latter case, there has to be proof that alternatives to redundancy have been considered. Furthermore, there are prescriptions on the selection of dismissed employees ("last in – first out" principle, or age/sex balance of the workforce, for example). The court may also determine severance pay, roughly according to the formula:

- 1 month per year of service for workers younger than 40 years of age
- 1.5 months for workers between 40 and 50
- 2 months for workers 50 years and over (judges may apply a correction factor taking into account particulars of the case)

In general the notice period for dismissals is one month for individuals having worked with the company for 9 months. The same period of notice applies to employees who have stayed with a company for four years. At an employment record of 20 years the notice period increases to 3 months²³.

Moreover, Eurostat data suggest that most work relationships are permanent: in 2002 only 14,3% of all paid employees did have temporary work agreements (table 11). This number has been slightly increasing over recent years.

²² Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu, 2003: Nationale Atlas Volksgezondheid, retrieved from www.rivm.nl on May 7th, 2004

²³ OECD Labour Force Survey, Paris, 2004

Table 11 Proportion of temporary work agreements

	1999			2000			2001			2002		
	total	women	men	Total	women	men	total	women	men	total	women	men
EU (15 countries)	13,2	14,2	12,4	13,4	14,5	12,5	13,4	14,5	:	13,1	14,3	12,1
NL	12	15,4	9,4	14	17,2	11,1	14,3	17,5	:	14,3	17	12,2

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

An indicator that usually escapes statistics is the extent of informal or black-market activity. Inferences can usually only be drawn from the amount of illegal activity actually detected. In order to get a more appropriate image of the actual abuse the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs has conducted a randomized response survey, which promises anonymity to respondents. Results have revealed that 23% of people consuming social assistance have engaged in paid small-scale activities without reporting this to social institutions. This concerns as well 14% of those individuals receiving disability benefits and 17% of the individuals consuming unemployment benefits²⁴. The interpretation of informal employment has to be treated with care: this indicator is very revealing in terms of employment security in Southern Europe, where safety nets are underdeveloped and many who cannot find formal employment are forced to accept the underprivileged work status attached to informal employment. Within the Dutch society this scenario only applies to illegal migrants. Legal inhabitants of the Netherlands can benefit from a generous social safety net and informal employment thus almost automatically arises in combination with defrauding the social security system.

The dimension ‘working conditions’ concerns the use made of care leave as a proportion of accessibility and the proportion of work related injuries. For 2001, 132000 males and 93000 females were still entitled to parental leave. 16000 males and 39000 females respectively made use of this right²⁵. No data was available on other types of care leave. Additional leave provisions exist though in the case of adoption (maximum of 4 weeks for both parents), emergencies (several days) and short term care leave (several days).

Table 12 Percentage of employed population having suffered from work related accidents by personal characteristics, 2000

	One or more accidents
Total	2.1
Men	2.8
Women	1.1
National	2.0
Non-national	2.7
15-24 years old	3.0
24-54 years old	2.0
54-65 years old	1.6

²⁴ Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid: Brief van staatssecretaris Hoogervorst over het onderzoek naar regelovertreding in de WAO, WW en Algemene bijstandswet, Den Haag, 31.01.2001

²⁵ Data on the use of parental leave are influenced by the fact that eligibility will persist for 8 years. CBS only records the number of individuals eligible for parental leave and the number of people who have made use of this right for the preceding year.

Low skilled	3.0
Intermediate skilled	2.5
High skilled	0.6

Source: Ministry of Work and Social Affairs; Arbeidsomstandigheden 2001, October 2001, Elsevier s'-Gravenhage

Work related injuries by personal characteristics and sector are reported in table 12 and 13 respectively. These incidences are defined as accidents that result in a minimum of one day of absenteeism. In 2001 2,1% of all Dutch employees were suffering work related injuries. The data displays that men, non-nationals, young and low-skilled employees are running the highest risk of having an accident at work. Risks are highest in construction, agriculture and fishing and lowest in financial services, public administration, education and health care. Eurostat data furthermore indicate that serious as well as fatal accidents have been on decline between 1998 and 2001 (Eurostat, free data, employment).

Table 13 Percentage of employed population having suffered from work related accidents by sector, 2000

	One or more accidents
Agriculture and Fishing	2.9
Industry	3.4
Construction	3.8
Commerce	2.1
Financial Services	0.7
Public Administration	1.7
Education	0.5
Health Care	1.3

Source: Ministry of Work and Social Affairs; Arbeidsomstandigheden 2001, October 2001, Elsevier s'-Gravenhage

Weekly work hours in the Netherlands amounted to 40,6 in 2001, thereby continuing a declining trend. However weekly hours worked differ only insignificantly among European nations and correspondingly this number is broadly in line with what is observed in other European States (Eurostat; free data, long term indicators, people in the labour market, 2003).

2.6 Education

As reported by the Ministry for Culture and Education, in 2001 about 20% of all 20-24 year olds that had left school had not concluded upper secondary education. By international comparison this implies a negative record on premature school leaving²⁶. Nevertheless, even for premature school leavers, the situation on the Dutch job market does not look gloomy. However, this is due to favourable labour market conditions rather than the quality of the education system²⁷.

²⁶ Interestingly, Eurostat reports a lower figure: it states that in 2001 15,3% of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education were not in further education or training (Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1)

²⁷ OECD, Education at a Glance, Paris 2003

Study fees vary with the form of education. Primary education is free of charge as is secondary education for children below 16 years of age. As soon as pupils have reached age 16 an annual fee is payable which will amount to 936 Euros in the academic year 2004/2005. Tertiary education at the university costs 1145 Euros, if students are below 30 years of age. Different fees apply for other forms of post-secondary education. Yet, these study fees are many times compensated by the study subsidy every Dutch student is entitled to. The subsidy is composed of a basic fee, a supplementary fee and a possible loan at reduced interest rates. The basic fee depends on whether the student lives with his parents or individually, and amounts to a monthly entitlement of 74 or 228 Euros respectively. The grant of a supplementary fee depends on the parental income, the number of siblings and the type of health insurance the student has. It ranges from 180 to 234 Euros. At an interest rate of 3.35% students can furthermore borrow 253 Euros per month²⁸.

The quality of education is regarded here as a function of the capacity to find employment. As previously mentioned, even individuals with low qualifications are relatively successful in the Dutch labour market. OECD statistics reveal that for all levels of education, the Netherlands display an average labour force participation rate for both males and females (OECD, 2003). Differences in participation can thus not explain the striking differences in unemployment levels as reported by table 14. Here it shows that individuals without a degree in upper secondary education have an extraordinarily low unemployment rate by international standards. However, it also shows that this applies for all levels of education.

Table 14 Unemployment Rate by level of education

		Below upper secondary education	Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education	Tertiary-type B education	Tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes	All levels of education
Netherlands	Males	2,5	1,1	0,0	0,7	1,6
	Females	3,5	2,3	1,2	2,1	2,7
Country mean	Males	8,9	4,8	3,3	2,8	5,0
	Females	9,4	6,4	4,0	3,5	6,1

Source: OECD; Education at a Glance 2003

²⁸ Informatie Beheer Groep, Studiefinanciering Hoger Onderwijs, retrieved from <http://www.ib-groep.nl/> in May 2004

2.7 Conclusion

The definition of Socio-economic Security is defined as follows: "It is the degree to which people have command over material and immaterial resources over time in the context of social relations".

Generally it shows that Dutch citizens have a strong command over resources. This is not at last revealed by ENIQ indicators on income stability: after transfers, Dutch citizens face a lower risk of poverty than the EU average. Structurally the successful prevention of poverty risk is likely attributable to very generous replacement rates granted to Dutch citizens in the case of sickness/disability, unemployment or retirement. Nevertheless, the fact that in recent years poverty risk has been reduced in the Netherlands is not due to more elaborate transfers, but an improvement in pre-transfer income. By European comparison, Dutch people can certainly not be called poor. Still, it shows that low-income households in the Netherlands are forced to spend roughly 60% of their income on food and accommodation, which comes at the costs of self-development next to other expenditure items. This group correspondingly has a lack of command over certain resources, since large parts of its income is consumed by absolute necessities.

Correspondingly, one of the most pressing problems of the Dutch housing market is an issue of income sufficiency: low-income households have to use a considerable part of their income for expenditures on accommodation. Yet, it should not be ignored here that housing subsidies are excluded from the figures given previously. Many economically weak households are eligible for these subsidies and the situation on the Dutch housing market would look substantially less gloomy if the corresponding figures were taken into account. It is thus suggested here to add an indicator on housing subsidies to the list. Housing security in the Netherlands is bullet-proof: legislation protects Dutch tenants formidably against the unilateral termination of their contract by landlords. Data on Dutch housing conditions are not as telling as desirable, but do suggest a high level of housing quality, also for low income groups and vulnerable household types. Perceptions on the housing environment do suggest that Dutch citizens are moderately concerned with crime and pollution. Chapter 3 on Social Inclusion will furthermore allow us to get an even more complete view on the Dutch housing situation by depicting the problematique of housing shortages that especially in the big cities result in extraordinary waiting times.

The Netherlands score highly within the domain of Health and Care. Participation in the health insurance is compulsory which results in a de facto coverage of 98% of the population by a system that offers a wide range of medical services. In spite of high numbers of clients per General Practitioner, levels of patient satisfaction have been high. Furthermore, the vast majority of citizens can reach medical departments for emergency treatment in little time or trust on the arrival of an ambulance in less than 8 minutes. However, comparable to the situation in the housing sector, command over resources is not to be equated with easy access to the resources of health care. In chapter 3 it will be highlighted that significant shortages in the care sector lead to dramatic waiting times here as well.

Within the domain of "Work", a high Dutch standard of employment security is also discernible, not at last due to formidable Dutch labour protection legislation. Furthermore, a high Dutch proportion of permanent employment suggests that the level of job security is generally high. Working conditions also give a positive picture: work related accidents occur very infrequently and are highly concentrated in sectors, where risk is difficult to reduce. Typical working hours in the Netherlands are exceptionally low as a consequence of the incidence of part-time work. This last point could also be interpreted as a low command over resources, especially for women who are mainly employed in part-time positions. However, in chapter 3 it will be shown that part-time employment is almost never involuntary in the Netherlands, especially for women. Correspondingly, we can continue to interpret the domain "work" in general as a reliable source of social quality in the Netherlands.

Dropping out of school is more often than not a deliberate decision and the question thus arises whether the high proportion of premature school leavers in the Netherlands can be interpreted as "insecurity of education". It is certainly difficult to argue that this indicator truly represents a lack of command over resources. Yet, high drop-outs could be related to the fact that study fees are levied on all students above the age of 16. However, once students are to decide on whether or not to participate in tertiary education, the discouraging effect of study fees is offset by the study subsidy all Dutch students are entitled to and which usually exceeds the amount of the fee. As far as quality of education is concerned it is striking that even premature school leavers score high in the labour market. However, it is maintained here that this is due to favourable labour market conditions which grant high rates of success to individuals from all types of educational background. This in turn could be but one explanation for the high proportion of premature school leavers. Overall, it is thus maintained here that the indicators in the domain education do not correspond well with the subject matter of socio-economic security. It is suggested here that this domain should focus more strongly on the resources available to students in education. This could refer to crude indicators as the percentage of GDP spent on education and its elements, but also information on the average number of students in a class or the number of student per teacher. The availability of school libraries or PC facilities could also be taken into account. Furthermore, it should be considered as well within the component of Socio-economic Security that education is a life-long concept and indicators should reflect that at this point as well. It would also be interesting to take a look at skills mismatches in the labour market as well as over-education.

3 Social Cohesion

3.1 Introduction

The second book of the Foundation defines social cohesion as "concerning processes that create, defend or demolish social networks and the social infrastructures underpinning these networks". Infrastructures refer to the achievements of society embodied in formal and informal institutions such as legislative frameworks, norms and values relating to citizenship, pluralism, tolerance and respect. Processes in turn may refer to policies and provisions for regional development, equal opportunities in both the public and private sectors, and economic and fiscal equity to overcome unequal sharing of economic burdens.

To facilitate the development of domains and sub-domains of social cohesion Berman and Phillips have offered an additional, operational definition of the component²⁹. According to this definition "Social Cohesion depends on the strength of social relations (including social networks) and is a function of the integration between integrative norms and values (including trust) in society". Four domains were derived: (1) trust; (2) other integrative norms and values, (3) social networks and (4) identity.

It is the aim of this chapter to analyse the state of Social Cohesion by means of a number of indicators that have been developed for these domains and which are summarised table 15 below. In the following each of the domains will be individually addressed and evaluated for the Dutch context.

²⁹ Y. Berman and D. Phillips: Indicators for Social Cohesion, 5th Draft, EFSQ Working Paper, Amsterdam, June 2004

Table 15 Indicators of Social Cohesion

Domains	Sub-domains	Indicators
Trust	Generalised trust	25. Extent to which 'most people can be trusted'
	Specific trust	26. Trust in: government; elected representatives; political parties; armed forces; legal system; the media; trade unions, police; religious institutions; civil service; economic transactions 27. Number of cases being referred to European Court of law 28. Importance of: family; friends; leisure; politics; respecting parents. parents' duty to children
Other integrative norms and values	Altruism	29. Volunteering: number of hours per week
	Tolerance	30. Blood donation 31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism 32. Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences
	Social contract	33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural 34. Willingness to pay more taxes if you were sure that it would improve the situation of the poor 35. Intergenerational: willingness to pay 1% more taxes in order to improve the situation of elderly people in your country 36. Willingness to actually do something practical for the people in your community/ neighbourhood, like: picking up litter, doing some shopping for elderly/ disabled/ sick people in your neighbourhood, assisting neighbours/ community members with filling out (fax/ municipal/ etc) forms, cleaning the street/ porch/ doorway 37. Division of household tasks between men and women: Do you have an understanding with your husband/ spouse about the division of household tasks, raising of the children, and gaining household income?
Social networks	Networks	38. Membership (active or inactive) of political, voluntary, charitable organisations or sport clubs 39. Support received from family, neighbours and friends 40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues
Identity	National/ European identity	41. Sense of national pride
	Regional/ community/ local identity	42. Identification with national symbols and European symbols 43. Sense of regional / community / local identity
	Interpersonal identity	44. Sense of belonging to family and kinship network

Source: Y. Berman and D. Phillips: Indicators for Social Cohesion, 5th Draft, EFSQ Working Paper, Amsterdam, June 2004

3.2 Trust

Dutch citizens display an unusually high level of generalised trust: 59.7% affirmed that "most people can be trusted", when asked in course of the European Value Survey (2003). Respective percentages were only higher in Sweden and Denmark. Issues of specific trust give a more mixed image, with trust being exceptionally high for some institutions and remarkably low for others. Institutions in which the Dutch trust comparably stronger than their other European counterparts are: 1) the press (55.4% vs. European average of 38.8%), 2) Trade Unions (58.6% vs. 35.2%), 3) the Police (63.6% vs. 56.2%), 4) the Parliament (55.3% vs. 35.6% and 5) the Court of Justice (48.2% vs. 44.9%). Less trust than their European counterparts do the Dutch reveal in 1) the Church (29.6% vs. 53.8%), 2) the army (39.1% vs. 56.5%), 3) the Civil Service (37.5% vs. 39.7%) and 4) the European Union (33.4% vs. 42.9%).

An additional indicator of specific trust presented here is "the number of cases being referred to European Court of law". It is the responsibility of the Court of Justice to ensure that the law is observed in the interpretation and application of the Treaties establishing the European Communities and of the provisions laid down by Community institutions. This gives the European Court the quality of a watchdog over Member States who regularly reports on the degree to which Member States have fulfilled their obligations under Community law. The statistical section of the European Court Yearbook indicates that since 1999 the Netherlands failed to fulfil its obligations in 32 cases subsequently ruled by the European Court. Most of these new cases were ruled in 2000 (12) and 2003 (9). By EU comparison the amount of cases is small³⁰

Finally, specific trust is measured here by the "Importance of: family; friends; leisure; politics; respect to parents and parents' duty to children". 86.5% of the persons asked enjoy their work, which is slightly less than the European average. Also, a substantially smaller part of the Dutch shows a high appreciation for the church. The Dutch are in line with their European counterparts with respect to their strong appreciation of family and friends (92.7% and 96.3% respectively) and leisure time (94%). Politics in turn are valued more highly than is the case for the average European country (57.7%).

Interesting about the Dutch is also their perception of reciprocal duties between parents and their children. Only 32.7% maintains that "one must always love and respect parents", which is in contrast affirmed by on average 71.7% of individuals asked in other countries. Strikingly the majority of Dutch agree with other Europeans that "Parents' duty is to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being" (62.8%).

3.3 Other integrative norms and values

3.3.1 Altruism

A striking feature about Dutch citizens is their exceptionally strong willingness to volunteer in groups that are directed to the well-being of the larger society. This concerns "social service for the elderly, for which 21.6% of the Dutch do voluntary work as well as religious or church organisations (35,1%) and groups on education/ arts/ music (46,2%). Furthermore, the Dutch are significantly stronger involved in organisations for donation to the 3rd World (24%) and the conservation of nature (44,3%) than other European nations.

Eurostat data reveals that the Dutch are comparatively hesitant in blood donation. Only 26% of the population ever donated blood whereas the European average for this indicator is 31%³¹. Moreover,

³⁰ <http://www.curia.eu.int/en/instit/presentationfr/rapport/stat/st03cr.pdf>

³¹ Eurobarometer 58.2: "Le don de sang", 2002

CBS trend data indicate that blood supply has recently got less scarce again although the number of actual blood donors has decreased from 40 to 33 per 1000 inhabitants in the period 1999 to 2002³².

3.3.2 Tolerance

According to the European Value Study, Dutch attitudes towards minorities are tolerant (34% and 31% indicate themselves to be actively and passively tolerant respectively). Only 11% of respondents are found to be outright intolerant³³. The European Values Survey 1999/2000 gives a somewhat different picture. 55,6% of respondents in 2000 said that there should be strict limits on the number of foreigners who can come to the Netherlands. By comparison this percentage does not make the Netherlands one of the most tolerant countries with respect to foreigners. (EVS 1999/2000, Q74). Additional insights into Dutch views on multiculturalism can be derived from a survey commissioned by the television programme "Twee Vandaag" through NIPO³⁴ on both, September 11th 2002 and 2003. The survey dealt with the way in which the Dutch perceive Muslims. For 50% of all Dutch their perception of Muslims has changed to the worse since September 11th 2001. Furthermore 85% of respondents perceive Muslim integration in the Netherlands as insufficient. In turn, 85% of the interviewed Muslims disagree with the statement "I feel welcome in the Dutch society" and 60% is convinced that this circumstance will persist irrespectively of potential integration efforts on their behalf. In contrast, only 9% of the Dutch respondents think that Muslims are doing their best to integrate in the Dutch society (interestingly 52% of all Muslims think that they are doing their best). Yet, it is apparent that the different parts have a very different idea of what "doing one's best" means: 34% of all Dutch indicate that Muslims should have to adapt completely to the Dutch way of life and 57% finds that at least a substantial adaptation is necessary³⁵. In contrast, only 5% of all Moroccans and 0% of the Turks finds a complete adaptation necessary. Since the early 90s the Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau has regularly surveyed the Dutch population on their opinions of foreigners³⁶. In 2002, 45% of the Dutch respondents found that immigrants enrich national culture. Yet, it is reported that from 1995 to 2002 the percentage regarding foreigners positively dropped from 29% to 17%. Respective negative feelings rose from 12% to 22% over the same period of time.

Referring to individual groups of foreigners 28% of the respondents indicate that they do not feel comfortably with Turks and 38.3% do not feel at ease with Moroccans. Furthermore, almost 15% of the Dutch respondents state that they would dismiss a foreign worker rather than a Dutch worker if

³² Bloedbanken/bloedvoorziening, exploitatie-, personeelsgeg. en activiteiten www.statline.cbs.nl

³³ L. Halman: The European Values Study; a Third Wave; WORC, Tilburg University, 2003

³⁴ <http://verkiezingen.2vandaag.nl/redactie/HTML/peilingmoslims.html>

³⁵ This is confirmed by EVS data (Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q5): 70,9% of respondents here indicate that "for the greater good of society it is better if immigrants do not maintain their distinct custom and traditions but take over the customs of the country".

³⁶ J.Becker, *Opvattingen over het beleid*. Uit: *De sociale staat van Nederland*. Den Haag: SCP, 2003

they had to choose. Moreover, 44% would give an apartment to a Dutch person rather than to a foreigner.

With respect to Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences, the EVS also indicates that the Dutch are usually more tolerant than other European citizens concerning lifestyle choices which are not on the costs of others (i.e. homosexuality). If self-realization comes at the cost of others, the Dutch show themselves less tolerant (although it could be questioned here whether this is still an issue of tolerance) (European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q65).

3.3.3 Social contract

The Dutch seem to feel strongly bound to an implicit social contract. This for example expresses itself in their beliefs on the causes of poverty. Unlike in the rest of Europe, only 14.3% ascribe poverty to laziness, but rather to unluck and injustice in society (32.8% and 25.8% respectively). Also a comparatively high proportion of the Dutch respondents indicate that they would give part of their income away if they were sure it was used to reduce environmental pollution (73.4% against the European average of 59,7%).

Moreover, 55% of all respondents indicate that they are concerned about the living conditions of the elderly, 22,2% are concerned about the unemployed and 50,3% are concerned with the situation of the sick and disabled. Interestingly, in each of these categories the Dutch seem to show (slightly) less "compassion" than their European counterparts. Yet, it should be considered here, that in the Netherlands there is little objective reason to be generally concerned about these population groups, since they are provided with a very generous public safety net (as was shown in chapter 1 on Socio-economic Security). Interestingly the proportion of Dutch respondents who is willing to "do something for the elderly" (63.4%) and the sick/disabled (66%) is larger than the proportion of other Europeans.

The social contract between the sexes seems to have gained important strength in recent years as can be shown by the redistribution of paid and unpaid work. No information can be presented here on whether an explicit understanding has been reached between spouses on the division of household tasks, raising children and gaining household income. Yet, the SCP "Emancipation Report" offers a large amount of insights into the implicit contract between spouses³⁷.

Table 16 Population of Working age by labour market status and gender (*1000)

		Labour force	employment	unemployment
1990	Women	2198	1958	240
	Men	3865	3686	179
2001	Women	2990	2848	142
	Men	4321	4215	106

Source: CBS: Survey Working Population

³⁷ Sociaal Cultureel Planbureau : Emancipatiemonitor 2002, Den Haag, November 2002

Between 1990 and 2001 female participation rose from 39% to 53%, double as fast as male labour market participation (table 16). Yet, female participation remains at 77% of the male level. While all age groups are concerned by the increase in female participation, the biggest increase can be noticed for the young age segment (25 to 34 years of age). Almost 75% of this age group was working in 2001, compared to 53% only 10 years earlier. Highly skilled women more frequently have a paid job than less skilled women. Here also differences between men and women are lowest (84% of women and 90% of men are working in this skill class). It should also be noted from table 17 that in the last years the proportion of women with a part-time job has increased sharply (from 50% in 1990 to 63% in 2001) while men still mainly work full-time (90% of the male population).

Table 17 Employment population by weekly hours worked (*1000)

	Women 1990	Women 2001	Men 1990	Men 2001
Total employed	2416	3405	3911	4460
12-19 hours	312	508	75	100
20-34 hours	690	1284	287	415
35 hours or more	955	1056	3324	3700

Source: CBS: Survey Working Population

Table 18 Time spent on paid and unpaid work by persons older than 25 (in hours per week)

	1980	1990	2000
Women			
Unpaid work, of which	44.4	39.1	35.5
Household work	30.2	26.1	23.9
Care for household members	5.2	5	5
Do it yourself	7.1	5.6	4.6
Help to non-family members	1	1.2	1.1
Voluntary work	0.9	1.1	0.9
Paid work	4.4	7.7	12
Men			
Unpaid work, of which	18.5	19.7	20
Household work	8.8	10	11.4
Care for household members	1.9	1.9	2.1
Do it yourself	5.5	5.2	4.3
Help to non-family members	0.7	0.9	0.9
Voluntary work	1.6	1.8	1.4
Paid work	25.6	27.3	29.8

Source: CBS: Survey Working Population

Correspondingly, substantial changes can be observed in the way in which men and women divide their time between paid and unpaid work (table 18). The SCP reports that already since the 1980s male participation in unpaid work has been on the rise from 29% to 36% in 1995. This redistribution mainly results from the fact that women have reduced their unpaid hours. Women in the first instance cut time spent on household tasks and do-it-yourself activities. In contrast the same time is spent on care. Men do more household work while care activities have remained more or less constant. The redistribution of paid work is occurring faster, since women have strongly increased their working

hours. While paid work contributed only for 12% of total female working hours in 1975, this number rose to 25% in 1995 and 29% in 2000³⁸.

3.4 Social networks

An investigation of network participation reveals that the Dutch like to be part of bigger groups. For the most various organisations they reveal a higher participation than their European counterparts. Even though attachment to churches and religion is generally not remarkably high, this even concerns them: 35.1% of all Dutch respondents feel affiliated to a church (compared to an average of 14.1% of all other European respondents). Table 19 gives additional insights into the striking difference in network participation between the Dutch and the rest of Europe. The European Social Survey 2002/2003 also shows that the proportion of people in non-governmental organizations (NGO's) is higher in the Netherlands than in most other countries.

Furthermore, Dutch citizens are strongly prepared to support their direct social environment. When asked, significant proportions said that they stand prepared to do something for 1) their family (94.8%) and their neighbourhood community (68%). The Dutch furthermore display comparatively intense contact with their friends: 66.7% of all respondents see their friends at least once a week and 84% is sure to see them at least once or twice a month. In contrast, links with colleagues are low by European comparison: in their free-time only 14.7% of people asked reported to see their colleagues once a week. 45% see their colleagues once or twice monthly³⁹.

Table 19 Active or passive group membership: The Netherlands vs. the EU

Group	Dutch Participation in %	Average Participation Europe in %
Education, music, arts	46.2	9.6
Trade Unions	23.4	16.7
Political Parties or groups	9.5	4.3
Local community action on poverty, employment, housing etc.	7.4	3
Third World Development and human rights	24.6	3.1
Conservation of the Environment	44.3	4.8
Sports and Recreation	50.3	15.6
Women's Groups	4	2.5
Voluntary Organizations concerned with Health	9.6	3.5
Groups for elderly or deprived	21.6	6.1

Source: L. Halman: The European Values Study; a Third Wave; WORC, Tilburg University, 2003

3.5 Identity

³⁸ Sociaal Cultureel Planbureau : Emancipatiemonitor 2002, Den Haag, November 2002

³⁹ L. Halman: The European Values Study; a Third Wave; WORC, Tilburg University, 2003

In September 1999 the Council for Society Development (RMO) spoke out its advice on national identity to the cabinet with respect to internationalisation through the ongoing process of Europeanization of the Dutch society. The Council reached the conclusion that Dutch citizens have a lesser feeling of identity than other European nations. Correspondingly a majority of the Dutch would regard an increase in European over national competencies positively. The Council furthermore perceives that the building of a European identity is rather complementing than substituting feelings of Dutch identity. Thus, it does not expect that a stronger Europeanization will lead to a further decline in feelings of national identity⁴⁰.

Perceptions on Dutch national pride are supported by the European Value Survey: 80.5% of the Dutch are quite proud and 19.5% of those are very proud of their nationality. Remarkably in other countries more respondents characterise themselves as "very proud" (41.7%). Yet, the Dutch express the strongest feeling of belonging with their country: 42% of respondents see themselves as "Dutch" in the first instance (compared to 27.7% in the rest of Europe). This is because the Dutch have a significantly, lower feeling of belonging in the first instance to their locality (39%) or region (7.7%) than other Europeans.

3.6 Conclusion

Social Cohesion is "the degree and quality of social relations between people based on shared norms and values in society". Following this definition, in the preceding chapter it has been revealed that Dutch citizens can benefit from a high quality of such social relations. This particularly manifests itself with respect to generalised trust, which is higher than in most other European countries. Yet, the Dutch do not trust arbitrarily as gets apparent when issues of specific trust are concerned. Only some institutions do deserve more trust in the eyes of Dutch citizens than in the eyes of their European counterparts. As far as the legal system is concerned the low number of cases transferred to the European Court speaks in favour of Dutch citizens' trust into the legal institutions. With respect to the "Importance of: family; friends; leisure; politics; respect to parents and parents' duty to children" the Dutch are not significantly different from other Europeans.

Next to trust, this chapter has offered substantial evidence on the state of "other integrative norms and values" within the Netherlands. In favour of the quality of social relations in the Netherlands speaks the exceptionally strong willingness to volunteer in groups that are directed to the well-being of the larger society. Irrespective of the type of altruistic goal these groups pursue, it is not an unusual observation that participation in these groups is at least double as high as in the Netherlands than in other countries. There are some slight indications that this outstanding indication of deep social relations should not be taken at face value. One of these is that the records of blood donation do not confirm altruistic tendencies: only 26% of the population ever donated blood. Also, in chapter 3 it will be shown

⁴⁰ Raad voor Maatschappelijke Ontwikkeling: Advies 9. Nationale identiteit in Nederland, September 1999 retrieved from www.adviesorgaan-rmo.nl

that still 11% of the Dutch population feel isolated which could hint to deficiencies in terms of integrative norms and values within the Netherlands.

Evidence on "Tolerance" adds ambiguity to our perception of the quality of social relations in the Netherlands. While this country is re-known world-wide as an "open" society and also the Dutch judge themselves as tolerant, in particular Muslim inhabitants of the Netherlands do not feel welcome in the Dutch society. They even express the feeling that this will stay unchanged irrespective of any integration efforts on their behalf. Studies undertaken by the SCP have furthermore suggested a deterioration of opinions on foreigners between 1995 and 2002.

In contrast again, the Dutch seem to feel strongly bound by an implicit social contract as is expressed by their beliefs on the causes of poverty which they ascribe before all other reasons to being unlucky. Also a comparatively high proportion of the Dutch respondents indicate that they would give part of their income away if they were sure it was used to reduce environmental pollution. Although, the Dutch were revealed to show slightly less concern for socially vulnerable groups this may be related to the high standard of the social security system that makes such concern unnecessary as has been extensively proven in chapter one on Socio-economic Security. This is confirmed by the fact that in spite of the seemingly lacking "compassion" a comparatively high proportion of the Dutch is willing to "do something for the elderly, the sick and the disabled".

The social contract between the sexes seems to have gained important strength in recent years as can be shown by the redistribution of paid and unpaid work. This redistribution mainly results from the fact that women have reduced their unpaid hours. Not surprisingly, equality between men and women is not a fact in the Netherlands and chapter 4 on Empowerment will reinforce this impression by pointing to remaining wage gaps between men and women. Yet what should be noted in all gender relations is that there is a convergence of social quality aspects in all areas of life which gets apparent if younger age groups of men and women are compared with each other. Furthermore, it is maintained here that before we give a judgement on what level of equality between men and women is desirable in terms of social quality a closer look has to be taken into the degree to which gender equality is actually desired within the societies and by the people we observe.

An investigation of network participation reveals that the Dutch like to be part of bigger groups. For the most various organisations they reveal a higher participation than their European counterparts. Furthermore, Dutch citizens are strongly prepared to support their direct social environment. When asked, significant proportions said that they stand prepared to do something for their family and their neighbourhood community.

The Dutch moreover display comparatively intense contact with their friends, yet not with their colleagues. As was mentioned previously, this overly enthusiastic picture should be met with caution as in chapter 3 it will be pointed out that in spite of this outstanding interest in socialising one tenth of the Dutch population feels isolated.

In an interesting contrast to their strong perception of a social contract and the frequent participation in social networks, Dutch citizens have a lesser feeling of identity than other European nations. In other countries more respondents characterise themselves as "very proud" of their nationality. Yet remarkably, the Dutch express the strongest feeling of belonging to their country rather than any other geographical unit. This is because the Dutch have a significantly, lesser feeling of belonging to their local community than other Europeans. The question arises here, whether the above-mentioned lack of national identity is giving an indication of the degree or quality of social relations of Dutch people. A strong national identity certainly contributes to a strong "us"-feeling in a sociological sense, but where there is an "us" there always is a "them" and it can be argued that a very strong group identity does not only foster group cohesion, but also a lack of cohesion vis a vis people not sharing the same national identity. Correspondingly, further analysis into the adequate degree of national identity in terms of a social quality context is desirable here.

4 Social Inclusion

4.1 Introduction

Social Inclusion is defined as "the degree to which people are integrated in (or have access to) different social relations that constitute everyday life". Correspondingly Social Inclusion is a pre-condition of participation, self-realisation and the formation of collective identities. In contrast to the more frequently used concept of social exclusion, Social Inclusion has a positive orientation and "an open horizon of possibilities to articulate the meaning of citizenship in democratic societies"³⁹. The Social Quality perspective moreover guarantees that not only the fact of inclusion matters but also its quality.

Social Inclusion here strongly relates to dynamic processes and it is furthermore multi-layered in that it may cover inclusion at the most various levels: personal relationships, neighbourhoods, organisations, nations etc. This implies that different levels of inclusion may co-exist in the lives of one person or family. The derivation of the domains, sub-domains and indicators must embody the definition of Social Inclusion offered above as well as the component's specificity (the integration in multiple systems and sub-systems). Finally, explorations should respect the mutual focus of all components: the relationship between self-realisation and the formation of collective identities⁴¹.

The domains derived are citizenship rights, labour market, services and social networks. It is the aim of this chapter to analyse the state of Social Inclusion by means of a number of indicators that have been developed for these domains and which are summarised table 20 below. In the following each of the domains will be individually addressed and evaluated for the Dutch context.

³⁹ L. Halman: The European Values Study; a Third Wave; WORC, Tilburg University, 2003

⁴¹ A. Walker and A. Wigfield: The Social Inclusion Component Of Social Quality, EFSQ Working Paper, Amsterdam, September 2003

Table 20 Indicators of Social Inclusion

Domains	Sub-domains	Indicators	
Citizenship rights	Constitutional/ political rights	45. Proportion of residents with citizenship	
		46. Proportion having right to vote in local elections and proportion exercising it	
	Social rights	47. Proportion with right to a public pension (i.e. a pension organised or regulated by the government)	
		48. Women's pay as a proportion of men's	
	Civil rights	49. Proportion with right to free legal advice	
		50. Proportion experiencing discrimination	
	Economic and political networks	51. Proportion of ethnic minority groups elected or appointed to parliament, boards of private companies and foundations	
		52. Proportion of women elected or appointed to parliament, boards of private companies and foundations	
	Labour market	Access to paid employment	53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)
	Services	Health services	54. Involuntary part-time or temporary employment
Housing		55. Proportions with entitlement to and using public primary health care	
		56. Proportion homeless, sleeping rough	
Education		57. Average waiting time for social housing	
		58. school participation rates and higher education participation rates	
Social care		59. Proportion of people in need receiving care services	
Financial services		60. Average waiting time for care services (including child care)	
		61. Proportion denied credit differentiated by income groups	
Transport	62. Access to financial assistance / advice in case of need		
	63. Proportion of population who has access to public transport system		
Social networks	Civic / cultural services	64. Density of public transport system and road density	
		65. Number of public sport facilities per 10.000 inhabitants	
	Neighbourhood participation	66. Number of public and private civic & cultural facilities (e.g. cinema, theatre, concerts) per 10.000 inhabitants	
		67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours	
	Friendships	68. Proportion in regular contact with friends	
		69. Proportion feeling lonely/isolated	
	Family life	70. Duration of contact with relatives (cohabiting and non-cohabiting)	
71. Informal (non-monetary) assistance received by different types of family			

Source: A. Walker and A. Wigfield: The Social Inclusion Component Of Social Quality, EFSQ Working Paper, Amsterdam, September 2003

4.2 Citizenship rights

The full set of citizenship rights is only coming with the Dutch nationality. Only Dutch nationals can vote for provincial and country representation (community voting is allowed after several years of stay in the Netherlands). Furthermore certain public functions are reserved for nationals, such as mayor, police, soldier and judge. The possibility for foreigners to receive the Dutch nationality is very limited and usually requires birth in the Netherlands, Dutch Antilles or Aruba and residence within these countries from early age onwards. Nationality can furthermore be awarded after 3 years of marriage with a Dutch national and for minors that have been adopted or have one Dutch parent. The CBS reports that naturalisations have strongly decreased in recent years from 112 per 1000 foreigners in

1996 to 60 in 2002. There has been little change in the proportion of non-Dutch inhabitants of the Netherlands since the early 1990s: in 2001 4,2% of all legal inhabitants were foreign, of which 2.9% were non-EU nationals⁴².

4.2.1 Constitutional/ political rights

IDEA reports a decline in voter participation from 84% in 1970-1974 to 75% 1990 -1994⁴³. Data also show that this decline is a common trend across countries and that also the correspondingly low participation level is more than representative. The CBS offers more recent data for the national context. It shows that in the 2002 and 2003 election voting participation was 79.1% and 80% respectively. Interestingly, CBS data also shows that the number of invalid votes decreased substantially since 1994⁴⁴.

4.2.2 Social rights

Everyone legally residing in the Netherlands is automatically insured by the public pension scheme (AOW). Nationality is not an issue here but rather the duration of stay in the Netherlands, which coincides with the period of insurance. For every year of insurance the AOW pension increases with 2%. This increase is usually interrupted in the case of working and living abroad⁴⁵.

Like in other European countries there remains substantial inequality between the earnings of men and women: women's wages maximally reach 82% of men's. The biggest wage gaps persist in the sectors trade and repairs and financial intermediation as is shown by table 21.

⁴² Eurostat Migration statistics, 2003, p.12

⁴³ Source: IDEA (1997), Voter Turnout from 1947 to 1997: A Global Report on Political Participation, International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, Stockholm (see also, <http://www.idea.int>)

⁴⁴ CBS: Verkiezingsuitslag 2de Kamer Verkiezingen; Opkomst & Ongeldige Stemmen retrieved from www.cbs.nl/statline

⁴⁵ Sociale Verzekeringsbank: Information on your old age pension, retrieved from http://www.svb.nl/Images/9104EL_03%2E03_tcm66-29980.pdf in May, 2004

Table 21 Annual gross earnings of women as a percentage of men's, 2000

	EU-15	NL
Industry and services	75	73
Industry	77	77
Mining and quarrying	75	-
Manufacturing	75	75
Electricity, gas and water supply	78	81
Construction	88	82
Trade and repairs	72	68
Hotels and restaurants	79	82
Transport	84	74
Financial intermediation	62	62
Real estate	70	70

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings. Source: Living conditions in Europe, Eurostat, 2003, p.60

4.2.3 Civil rights

Every legal resident is entitled to free legal help. This can contain a brief advice, an appointment with one of the available lawyers or general information folders on certain legal topics. Furthermore, advice can be given on contact addresses of legal specialists. If necessary, the "Rechtshulp" will correspond and bargain with other parties involved on behalf of their clients. The organisation may even offer support in law-suits and arbitration councils⁴⁶.

Civil rights are violated as soon as discrimination occurs. In 2002, 3902 complaints against discrimination were recorded at the regional Anti-Discrimination Offices (ADBs). As is displayed by table 22, the 4 big cities account for 44% of all complaints, which can mainly be attributed to the fact that these host the highest amount of ethnic minorities. Furthermore, in these cities there is a greater awareness of the presence of the ADBs, which might also increase the number of official complaints. Outside the big cities, there are several other areas with comparatively high amounts of discrimination complaints such as Haarlem, Noord-Holland Noord, Den Bosch and Overijssel. It shows that the total number of complaints has decreased by 3% in 2002 after several consecutive years of increase, peaking in 11% in 2001. This decline is exclusively due to a decline in complaints in the big cities (13% in 3 of them), whereas in other areas there has been an increase in complaints.

⁴⁶ www.rechtshulp.nl

Table 22 Number of Complaints on Discriminatory Practices by Region, 2002

plaats/regio	2002
Amersfoort	37
Amsterdam	629
Apeldoorn	145
Den Bosch	185
Dordrecht	152
Ede	47
Eindhoven	68
Flevoland	47
Friesland	127
Haaglanden	409
Haarlem	194
Hilversum	30
Hoogeveen	2
Leiden	83
Maastricht	90
Noord en Midden Limburg	33
Noord-Holland Noord	173
Nijmegen	68
Overijssel	164
Rotterdam	532
Sittard	17
Tilburg	103
Utrecht	152
Veenendaal	114
West Brabant (Breda)	132
Zaanstreek Waterland	111
Zeeland	58
Totaal	3902

Source: Landelijke Vereniging van Anti-Discriminatiebureaus: Landelijke Cijfers Discriminatie-klachten over 2003, retrieved from www.lvadb.nl/kerncijfers2002.pdf

Racial discrimination remains with 63% the most prominent type. This percentage has remained grossly unchanged throughout the last 4 years. Religious discrimination is showing a further increase after a rise from 3% to 6% from 2000 to 2001. This increase is partially related to more discriminatory actions against Muslims. This mainly concerns reactions on Muslim symbols such as Mosques and head scarves. Anti-semitically rooted discrimination has remained constant at 4% of all cases. Yet, a concentration of cases in Amsterdam, which has a relatively large Jewish community, is striking.

4.2.4 Economic and political networks

Unfortunately no data is available on the "proportion of ethnic minority groups elected or appointed to parliament, boards of private companies and foundations". Yet, Eurostat offers several aspects of women's participation in political networks. According to Eurostat, the proportion of women in the single/lower houses of national/federal parliament amounts to 38 % being rather high by European comparison. Within national/federal governments and the European Commission Dutch women are equally well represented. The number of female junior and senior ministers amounts to 10, which is also high by international comparison. In contrast the proportion of female judges at the Dutch

Supreme Court and female representation in the European Court of Justice is at 10% extremely low by comparison⁴⁷.

4.3 Labour market

Exclusion from the labour market has been reduced substantially in recent years, in particular for women, as table 23 shows. Long-term unemployment rates are low by European comparison and typically do not concern more than one percent of the labour force.

Table 23 Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Females	3.3	4.0	3.6	3.4	3.7	3.1	1.8	1.5	1.0	0.8	0.8	1.1
Males	2.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.6	1.8	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.0

Source: Eurostat Free data: Social Cohesion

A typical work relationships such as part-time employment can also constitute a type of exclusion. From a working conditions perspective, the empirical evidence shows that part-time work is associated with several negative working conditions, such as fewer opportunities for training and career progression, weaker job tenure, lower salary levels, and less access to supplementary payments and social protection benefits. Conversely, part-time workers are less likely to report job-related health problems and are more likely to achieve a positive work-life balance.

If part-time work is involuntary, it becomes a form of underemployment. The mismatch between the usual volume of hours worked and the preferred arrangement can be considered as a negative working condition by itself. It is therefore not surprising to find that part-time workers are more likely to hold multiple jobs than full-time workers (14% of male part-time workers and 8% of female part-time workers hold more than one job, compared with 5% of male full-time workers and 4% of female full-time workers). Involuntary part-time work is very low in the Netherlands (2.3%) and concerns men slightly more (3.4%) than women (1.9%)⁴⁸.

4.4 Services

4.4.1 Health Services

As stated in chapter 1 on Socio-economic Security 98% of all inhabitants are covered by (obligatory) health insurance. All these individuals are correspondingly entitled to public primary health care.

⁴⁷ http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/women_men_stats/out/measures_out51_en.htm

⁴⁸ Eurostat Labour Force Survey, 2002

4.4.2 Housing

Homelessness in turn reflects the proportion of people, which have not been protected by either formal or informal protection mechanisms of housing security. Although statistics on homelessness remain vague, they do tell that this problem concerns less than 0,1% of the Dutch population⁴⁹.

A more substantial problem in the Netherlands are waiting times for social housing. Social Housing Corporations own an approximate 75% of all rental accommodations in the Netherlands. These are offered to people with low incomes, people leaving temporary housing provision in shelters, asylum seekers, students, elderly people and other special target groups. Yet, also tenants with intermediate range incomes rent from Social Housing Corporations. Waiting time for an accommodation has increased to 2 and a half years in general and up to 8 years in the big cities⁵⁰.

4.4.3 Education

In the Netherlands, compulsory education is comparatively long, ranging over 13 years to the age of 18. Table 24 shows that pre-schooling is comparatively uncommon in the Netherlands. Few children between 5 and 14 years of age are excluded from schooling. This is slightly less true for the age group of 15 to 19 year olds.

Table 24 Enrolment by age group as a percentage of age-group population

Age Group	3-4	5-14	15-19	20-29
Netherlands	48,9	99,3	86,2	24,3
Country Average	63,1	98,2	77,7	21,8

Source: OECD, Education at a Glance, 2003

4.4.4 Social care

Through an increase in demand for care services and care intensity, there remain significant personnel shortages in spite of increasing employment in the care sector, which can largely be attributed to an ageing current labour force. The fact that the majority of employees are women does not make the situation less precarious: women frequently work part-time, have more sick leave and have a stronger influx into the disability scheme. Remarkably shortages in formal care services are compensated by informal care services. According to recent estimations one fourth of the adult population provides some kind of informal care services. Such care services are mostly performed by middle-aged women and mostly directed to low-skilled women beyond the age of 65. It is furthermore estimated that many of those in need receive about three times as much informal as formal care⁵¹.

⁴⁹ National Action Plan, 2001

⁵⁰ Ministerie van Volkshuisvesting, Ruimtelijke Ordening en Milieubeheer: Corporaties en woningsmarkt, retrieved from www.vrom.nl/pagina.html?id=11938

⁵¹ Sociaal en Cultureel Panbureau: De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2003, Den Haag, September 2003

Supply of care services cannot meet demand: this problem mainly expresses itself in waiting lists. Yet it shows that in several types of physical care services the number of people waiting could be reduced. In spite of having decreased overall, the waiting time problem remains substantial as is displayed by table 25 and 26. Here it is particularly striking that individuals seeking to be admitted by a Verzorgingshuis have to wait significantly longer than one year.

Table 25 Verzorgingshuizen: No. of people on waiting list and average waiting time, 2001

	Average Waiting time
External Care	56
Dagopvang	26
Dagverzorging	32
Temporary internal care	32
Internal Care	65

Source: Brancherapport Volksgezondheid 2001

Table 26 Average Waiting Time in weeks by Care Product: Outpatient Care, 2001

Care	25
Specialized Care	16
General daily Tasks	-
Daily Household Tasks	27
Cure	13
Specialized Cure	17
Advice, instruction, prevention	14
Support for informal care providers	61

Source: Brancherapport Volksgezondheid 2001

44% of all people waiting expect admittance to a Verzorgingshuis and 43% wait for care services at home, half of which needs support with household tasks⁵². The average waiting time here is half a year. Among the handicapped there is a strong increase in the number of people waiting for care services. This mainly concerns short-term care, day care and several outpatient care services. Increases in waiting times for long term institutional care are less substantial but levels are already high. Waiting lists for the mentally handicapped slightly increased between 2001 and 2002 as a consequence of a 50% rise in demand. The mentally handicapped mostly wait for external care services and longest for social housing that is suitable for the special needs of this patient group. For adults, old-aged and children respective waiting times amount to 48, 53 and 23 weeks. Teenage mentally handicapped also wait 24 weeks for institutionalized care⁵³.

⁵² Brancherapport Volksgezondheid 2001, Deelrapport Care, Ministry for Public Health, Well-Being and Sports: http://www.ggzbeleid.nl/pdfmacro/branche_vws_care2001.pdf

⁵³ Brancherapport Volksgezondheid 2001, Deelrapport Care, Ministry for Public Health, Well-Being and Sports: http://www.ggzbeleid.nl/pdfmacro/branche_vws_care2001.pdf

4.4.5 Financial services

There is no data available on the "proportion denied credit differentiated by income groups". Yet, with respect to "access to financial assistance / advice in case of need" it can be said that all regions have specialised debt relief bureaus which offer professional support to people in precarious financial positions. Everyone legally residing in a particular region can use the "schuldhulpverlening" free of charge. The service first of all comprises that an inventory of all debts, incomes, expenses and wealth is made. People searching help will be advised on whether they can ask for social assistance and what possibilities are to save. The bureau will also assist the debtor in making a plan for repayment, which the debtor can present to his creditors. If it shows that debts cannot be re-paid within 3 years, there is the possibility to ask for debt restructuring with a credit institute. The institute will repay the debt of the debtor, who in turn has to take a loan from the credit institute. This makes the bank the only creditor and the debt problem becomes easier to deal with.

4.4.6 Transport

According to the SCP, Dutch citizens judge transport by car superior to public transport on a high number of variables. The generally negative judgement of public transport can largely be attributed to differences in travel time: on average a trip by public transport takes 40% longer than the respective trip by car. Trains are 20% and buses 80% slower than cars. Moreover public transport is comparatively less popular due to reasons of punctuality: studies have shown that approximately one quarter of all trains are delayed and that slightly less than one quarter of connecting trains are missed. On some tracks up to 50% of all trains are delayed. Capacity problems further reduce the popularity of public transport: 5% of all passengers have to spend their trip standing (on some tracks this concerns 28% of all passengers in peak times). Last but not least verbal and physical violence have become more frequent in public transport facilities: two thirds of 500 passengers asked comment that they regularly or some times do not feel safe when using public transport. Another study reports that in 2000 one quarter of all passengers was at least once molested when using public transport⁵⁴.

Dutch citizens, mainly as a consequence of traffic intensity do not regard car transport entirely uncritical. A recent study reveals that 56% of drivers perceives the street network as insufficient. This mainly concerns traffic intensity on motor ways, which has increased by 25% since the mid-90s. Yet, also the use of access roads to city results in always more frequent delays. Furthermore, the introduction of traffic calming measures has limited the access to city centers. Social costs of each, delays on primary and secondary streets, have been estimated to amount to 1 billion Euros annually⁵⁵.

⁵⁴ Sociaal en Cultureel Panbureau: *De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2003*, Den Haag, September 2003

⁵⁵ Sociaal en Cultureel Panbureau: *De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2003*, Den Haag, September 2003

4.4.7 Civic / cultural services

There has been an increase in the number of subsidised cultural performances in the Netherlands of more than 17 per cent in comparison with 2000. Attendance figures rose though results are quite mixed across sectors. In the ballet/dance sector, for instance, attendance rose by 15 %, whereas attendance in the theatre sector decreased by 21 %⁵⁶. It should also be noted that figures have tended to vary strongly from year to year and that only after some time it will show whether the current expansion in performances will also lead to a structural increase in public interest. With respect to cinema visits interest in the Netherlands has remained strong: in 2001 there have been approximately 2.3 million attendants. This constitutes a slight increase from previous years. Moreover, the market share of Dutch films rose from 1.8 % in 2000 to 4.1 % in 2001. Museum visits in turn do not reveal a clear trend over the last years. While the number of visitors had increased substantially between 1999 and 2000 (from 5.070.000 to 5.249.000 visitors), by 2001 they were again below the 1999 level (4.925.000 visitors).

According to the CBS the number of musea has constantly declined from 942 in 1997 to 873 in 2001⁵⁷.

Table 27 Sports Facilities

	number of accommodations	Total visits per week
1988	1618	1890
1991	1772	2000
1994	2040	2140
1997	2115	1060
2000	2210	1130

Source: CBS, Vrije Tijdbesteding

The number of public libraries totals some 1,400 which are run by 512 organizations. The number of organizations has decreased by 7% since 1998, mostly as a consequence of administrative reorganizations that forced the merger of libraries of formerly independent municipalities. Between 1998 and 2000, membership figures rose by 6 %, which implies that the use of public libraries remained at a high level⁵⁸. Table 27 gives interesting insights on the availability and use of sports facilities in the Netherlands. While the number of sports facilities significantly increased since the late 80s, total visits per week are substantially lower now.

⁵⁶ Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap: Education, Culture and Science in the Netherlands Facts and Figures 2003, The Hague March 2003

⁵⁷ CBS: Cultuur en Recreatie retrieved from www.cbs.nl/statline

⁵⁸ Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap: Education, Culture and Science in the Netherlands Facts and Figures 2003, The Hague March 2003

4.5 Social networks

According to the CBS in 2002 69% of all Dutch citizens did have regular contact with their neighbours and 79% indicated regular contact with friends. 85% confirmed regular contact to their families (table 28). Both figures have very slightly increased in recent years. The percentage of people feeling isolated remained constant at 11%. Unfortunately little else can be said on the domain of social networks for the component of Social Inclusion because no data have been found for the "duration of contact with relatives" and the "informal (non-monetary) assistance received by different types of family".

Table 28 Sense of belonging to family and kinship network

	older than 12	older than 12	older than 15	older than 15	older than 15
	Satisfaction with friends	Not feeling isolated	Contact: neighbours	Contact: family	Contact: friends
1998	47	89	67	82	78
1999	49	89	66	83	78
2000	49	88	66	83	79
2001	49	89	67	84	79
2002	49	89	69	85	79

Source: CBS Sociale Monitor: Samenleving

Eurostat also indicates that the percentage of population aged 16 and over talking to neighbours was slightly lower in the Netherlands than in other European nations in 1999. However proportion of the population aged 16 and over meeting people was again in line with that of European counterparts (Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe).

4.6 Conclusion

Social Inclusion is defined as "the degree to which people are integrated in (or have access to) different social relations that constitute everyday life". Citizenship rights give an important insight in this integration. Within the Netherlands most citizenship rights are only coming with the Dutch nationality and the possibility for foreigners to receive the Dutch nationality is very limited. Moreover, since 1996, naturalisations have almost decreased by half. As another indicator of integration voter participation decreased between the early 70s and 90s (in line with experiences of other countries), but surged again in recent elections to approximately 80%. With respect to social rights the Netherlands present a mixed image. On the one hand, a positive feature is that every legal resident in the Netherlands is automatically insured by the public pension scheme (AOW). On the other hand it is negative – although not unusual by European standards- that there remains substantial inequality between the earnings of men and women. In previous and subsequent chapters of the report we also learn that gender differences remain as well in other aspects of life, which reinforces the negative impression in the social rights dimension. As far as civil rights are concerned a mixed picture on gender equality arises. With respect to economic and political networks the proportion of women with

politically representative functions is high by European comparison. In contrast the proportion of female judges at the Dutch Supreme Court and female representation in the European Court of Justice is extremely low. Exclusion from the labour market has been reduced substantially in recent years and in particular for women long-term unemployment rates are low. Atypical work relationships such as part-time employment can also constitute a type of exclusion if part-time work is involuntary. Involuntary part-time work is very low in the Netherlands and concerns men slightly more than women. Also, the remainder of the civil rights domain gives an ambiguous message. On the one hand every legal resident is entitled to free legal help while on the other hand, numerous complaints against discrimination were recorded at regional Anti-Discrimination Offices in recent years.

However, at this point we should ask ourselves whether we are not comparing apples with pears and whether the corresponding ambiguity within the Social Inclusion component is inevitable. Even more than with other components the impression arises that more indicators are needed to fill these domains with meaning. Furthermore, within the component of Social Inclusion it becomes particularly obvious that it is necessary to formulate a set of values in terms of Social Quality that will guide us in the decision when an indicator indicates a fine, mediocre or bad level of social quality. It is definitely necessary to establish certain benchmarks not only for purposes of evaluation, but also in order to identify possible deficiencies in the design of indicators.

This report offers the most extensive evidence on the "services" domain. As previously stated, the Netherlands rank highly on health care: due to obligatory insurance almost all legal residents are entitled to public primary health care. Also there is little exclusion from the housing market as low numbers of homelessness show. A more substantial problem in the Netherlands are waiting times for social housing. In the Netherlands, compulsory education is comparatively long and only few children between 5 and 14 years of age are excluded from schooling. This is slightly less true for the age group of 15 to 19 year olds. As far as care is concerned, extensive waiting times are most expressive on problems perceived. With respect to "access to financial assistance / advice in case of need" it can be said that everyone legally residing in a particular region can consult the "schuldhulpverlening" (debt relief agency) free of charge.

Dutch citizens diagnose ample possibility for improving all kind of transport connections but clearly judge transport by car superior to public transport on a high number of variables. The generally negative judgement of public transport can be attributed to differences in travel time, punctuality, capacity and harassment problems with public transport. Yet, a large amount of car drivers also perceives the street network as insufficient.

There has been an increase in the number of subsidised cultural performances. With respect to cinema visits interest has remained strong; however, museum visits in turn revealed a clear decrease. The number of library organizations has significantly decreased as a consequence of administrative reorganizations. Yet, membership figures rose strongly by 6 %. The opposite development is discernible for sports facilities: while their number of facilities significantly increased since the late 80s, total visits per week are substantially lower now.

Due to a shortage of data little can be said on the development of social networks. Available indicators suggest that relations to family friends and neighbours have remained grossly constant over recent years. Overall thus the component of Social Inclusion gives a highly ambiguous image of the degree to which people have access to different social relations that constitute everyday life.

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

Empowerment is defined as "the degree to which the personal capabilities and ability of people to act is enhanced by social relations". In searching to measure Empowerment we have to be aware of the fact that Empowerment - being defined as a matter of access and participation- refers to getting (process) rather than being (status) empowered. Furthermore Empowerment is a social process rather than an individual capacity. Actors participating in this process are non-governmental/non-profit organisations, community development groups/social movements, non-governmental/non-profit institutions and state bodies, just to name a few⁵⁹.

It is the aim of this chapter to analyse the state of Social Empowerment by means of a number of indicators that have been developed for these domains and which are summarized table 29 on the next page. In the following each of the domains will be individually addressed and evaluated for the Dutch context.

⁵⁹ P. Herrmann: Discussion Paper on the Domain Empowerment, 3rd Draft, ENIQ October 2003

Table 29 Indicators of Social Empowerment

Domains	Sub-domains	Indicators
Knowledge base	Application of knowledge	72. Extent to which social mobility is knowledge-based (formal qualifications)
	Availability of information	73. Per cent of population literate and numerate 74. Availability of free media 75. Access to internet
	User friendliness of information	76. Provision of information in multiple languages on social services 77. Availability of free advocacy, advice and guidance centres
Labour market	Control over employment contract	78. % Of labour force that is member of a trade union (differentiated to public and private employees) 79. % Of labour force covered by a collective agreement (differentiated by public and private employees)
	Prospects of job mobility	80. % Of employed labour force receiving work based training 81. % Of labour force availing of publicly provided training (not only skills based). (Please outline costs of such training if any) 82. % Of labour force participating in any "back to work scheme"
	Reconciliation of work and family life (work/ life balance)	83. % Of organisations operating work life balance policies. 84. % Of employed labour force actually making use of work/life balance measures (see indicator above)
Openness and supportiveness of institutions	Openness and supportiveness of political system	85. Existence of processes of consultation and direct democracy (eg. referenda)
	Openness of economic system	86. Number of instances of public involvement in major economic decision making (e.g. public hearings about company relocation, inward investment and plant closure)
	Openness of organisations	87. % of organisations/ institutions with work councils
Public space	Support for collective action	88. % Of the national & local public budget that is reserved for voluntary, not-for-profit citizenship initiatives 89. Marches and demonstrations banned in the past 12 months as proportion of total marched and demonstrations (held and banned).
	Cultural enrichment	90. Proportion of local and national budget allocated to all cultural activities 91. Number of self-organised cultural groups and events 92. Proportion of people experiencing different forms of personal enrichment on a regular basis
	Provision of services supporting physical and social independence	93. percentage of national and local budgets devoted to disabled people (physical and mental)
Personal relationships	Personal support services	94. Level of pre-and-post-school child care
	Support for social interaction	95. Extent of inclusiveness of housing and environmental design (e.g. meeting places, lighting, layout)

Source: P. Herrmann: Discussion Paper on the Domain Empowerment, 3rd Draft, ENIQ October 2003

5.2 The Knowledge Base

In describing the knowledge base available to citizens it is not only important to assess the availability of information, but also individuals' capacity to absorb and deal with this information. Correspondingly, literacy and numeracy of the Dutch population are vital for an assessment of the population's capacity

to absorb and process data. Unfortunately, data for the Netherlands supplied by the OECD PISA study are insufficient for international comparison. The initial response rate for the Netherlands was only 27%. The response rate was too low to give confidence that the sample results reflect those for the national population reliably. The rank position of the Netherlands may be expected with 95% confidence to lie between the 2nd and 14th among the countries on the combined reading literacy scale, between the 1st and the 4th on the mathematical literacy scale and between the 3rd and 14th on the scientific literacy scale⁶⁰.

As far as the availability of information is concerned, the liberty of the media is of prime concern. "Reporters Without Borders⁶¹" has published a worldwide index of countries according to their respect for press freedom. The index was drawn up by asking journalists, researchers and legal experts to answer 50 questions about the whole range of press freedom violations (such as murders or arrests of journalists, censorship, pressure, state monopolies in various fields, punishment of press law offences and regulation of the media). The final list includes 139 countries. The Netherlands rank top sharing the first place with Finland, Iceland and Norway.

Yet, Minister of Justice, Donner, showed himself concerned on the integrity of the Dutch press in his speech on May 4th 2004 at the occasion of a conference on press freedom. He expressed his concern that the dissemination of information is strongly biased to news that sell, rather than facts and that press freedom thus defends activities serving economic rather than noble causes. He accused the media of raising fear and suspicion without reasonable cause⁶². The Minister argued for a stronger self-regulation of the media and requires that journalists take responsibility for the dissemination of incorrect information. At the conference the Minister received a report on press freedom in the Netherlands conducted by Frank van Vree and Mirjam Prenger. They had reached the conclusion that the large amount of public relation officials in government agencies was responsible for a watering down of information. In the Netherlands there are more such public relation officials than journalists (in a relation of 3,5 to 1).

Public Internet services give access to an additional expansive information source. Their wide-spread presence is another guarantee for information to be at the disposal of Dutch citizens. The ESIS Knowledge Base offers European data on Internet access up to 1999. Back then 39% of the Dutch population had private access to Internet and the one-year growth rate in access was 76%⁶³. According to the CBS, access continued to increase strongly to reach 65% of the Dutch population in

⁶⁰ Knowledge and skills for life: first results of PISA 2000, Appendix 3A; <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/37/1/32478583.pdf>

⁶¹ Reporters without borders: Indicators of Press Freedom, retrieved from www.rsf.org on June 7th

⁶² Medialog: Persvrijheid: te veel of in gevaar? retrieved from medialog.blogspot.com

⁶³ ESIS Knowledge Base: Information Society indicators; retrieved from europa.eu.int/ISPO/esis/default.htm in June 2004.

2002 and 68% in 2003⁶⁴. It shows that the main reasons for not having any access to the Internet are a lack of interest into the Internet and the lack of suitable equipment (table 30).

Table 30 Reasons for not having access to the internet (in percent of people asked)

Reason	% of people asked
Not interested/ useful	33
No suitable PC	30
Internet use too costly	12
Necessary equipment too costly	5
Insufficient Skills	9
Too old for internet	10
No time	2
Possibility to use internet elsewhere	8
Worried about privacy	2
no special reason	5
other reasons	12

Source: CBS, ICT en Media Gebruik

Information distributed by authorities is furthermore user friendly. All authorities dispose over an English web site and specific information, such as leaflets on benefit receipt are available in multiple languages, including Turkish. As already mentioned in chapter 3 on Social Inclusion every legal resident is entitled to free advocacy, advice and guidance centres.

5.3 The labour market

The Dutch labour market is described by substantial control employees have over their labour contract. Although Dutch union membership is lower than the respective OECD average (23,2% as compared to the OECD figure of 32,4%), more employees are covered by a collective bargaining agreement than in the typical OECD counterpart. 82,5% of all Dutch employees are protected by collectively bargained employment conditions (the respective OECD average is 60%).

Table 31 Public expenditure and participant inflows: Training Measures

Programme categories and sub-categories	Public expenditure as a percentage of GDP	Participant inflows as a percentage of the labour force
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⁶⁴ Note here a discrepancy with Eurostat data which indicate that as late as 2002 still 40,7% of the Dutch population never uses the internet.

	1999	2000	2001	2002	1999	2000	2001	2002
1. Public employment services and administration	0,28	0,26	0,25	0,28				
2. Labour market training	0,46	0,51	0,54	0,60	3,46	3,62	3,82	3,97
a) Training for unemployed adults and those at risk	0,40	0,44	0,46	0,52	1,37	1,34	1,37	1,44
b) Training for employed adults	0,06	0,07	0,08	0,09	2,09	2,28	2,44	2,53
3. Youth measures	0,04	0,04	0,04	0,04	0,64	0,63	0,64	0,68
a) Measures for unemployed and disadvantaged youth	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
b) Support of apprenticeship and related forms of general youth training	0,04	0,04	0,04	0,04	0,64	0,63	0,64	0,68
4. Subsidised employment	0,38	0,33	0,33	0,33	1,88	1,88	1,77	1,55
a) Subsidies to regular employment in the private sector	0,05	0,05	0,05	0,04	1,39	1,43	1,41	1,21
b) Support of unemployed persons starting enterprises	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
c) Direct job creation (public or non-profit)	0,33	0,27	0,28	0,29	0,49	0,45	0,36	0,35
5. Measures for the disabled	0,56	0,55	0,58	0,59	0,73	0,77	0,99	1,00
a) Vocational rehabilitation	-	-	-	-	0,02	-	-	-
b) Work for the disabled	0,56	0,55	0,58	0,59	0,71	0,77	0,99	1,00
6. Unemployment compensation	2,12	1,81	1,65	1,72	5,72	4,77	4,33	5,16
7. Early retirement for labour market reasons	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	3,48	3,49	3,39	3,56	12,43	11,67	11,55	12,36
Active measures (1-5; for inflows, 2-5)	1,72	1,68	1,74	1,85	6,71	6,90	7,22	7,20
Passive measures (6-7)	2,12	1,81	1,65	1,72	5,72	4,77	4,33	5,16

Source: OECD Labour Force Survey 2004

The Dutch government also provides work based training measures to a raising number of employees as is shown by table 31. In line with increasing expenditure the labour force percentage of employed people in training measures has steadily risen from 2.09 to 2.53 between 1999 and 2002. Furthermore expenditure on training measures for the unemployed and risk groups have been on steady increase as have expenditures on direct job creation. Strikingly also, the Netherlands devote a substantial part of training expenditures to the disabled.

Eurostat (2003, Living conditions in Europe) furthermore shows that 88% of all enterprises train their employees. These enterprises occupy 96% of all employees in the Netherlands. 41 % of employees in all enterprises take part in CVT courses, which is a good record by European standards, but does not come close to the Swedish level (61%). Vocational training in the Netherlands is equally frequently provided by the different sectors (Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus).

Finally the Dutch society since recently faces even more generous provisions to combine work and care/ social life. In the Netherlands, on January 1st, 2001 the Law of Work and Care (Wet arbeid en zorg) came into effect. The initiative aims at smoothing the combination of work and care, such that men and women find it more attractive to stay employed if the need for care arises. Innovations are in particular the entitlement to a maximum of ten days of care leave; the right to four weeks of paid leave in case of adoption for both parents and the right to two days of paid leave for partners in the case of birth. While on leave, persons receive 70% of their respective income. At the same time the initiative

provides for the possibility that employers make individual arrangements with respect to the duration and the compensation of some kinds of leave.

It shows in the Dutch society that children are less and less a reason for women to retreat completely from the working sphere, but rather work less hours which is unproblematic as a consequence of an abundance of part time provisions. The SCP argues that this can furthermore be ascribed to the development of generous care provisions in the 90s that have been refined even more in the *Wet Arbeid en Zorg*. As a consequence the percentage of people combining work and care has increased from 22% in 1990 to 34% in 2000. This however has also gone along with an increase in time pressure: in 2000 47 hours per week were dedicated to work, care and education, which is 3 hours more than in 1990. Correspondingly, the SCP describes further that still parents of younger children would look forward to additional flexibility, in particular with respect to working schedules and day care⁶⁵.

5.4 Openness and supportiveness of institutions

Referenda are not particularly wide-spread in the Netherlands: they neither ever occurred on national or provincial level. On a community basis between 1912 and 2002 101 referenda were held the majority of which concerned community structure (new cities, additional city parts, merger of cities or city parts etc.). From 1998 to 2002 19 such referenda were held, most of which in 2001 (11)⁶⁶. Yet, it shows that the absence of such direct democracy measures should not be attributed light-heartedly to the satisfaction of the Dutch with political decision making: 81% think that it is necessary to have national referenda on a selection of important topics according to a questionnaire by the SCP⁶⁷. 74% of people asked found that citizens should have more say in community and provincial affairs and more than 50% of Dutch citizens asked found that a) government members are not interested in the needs of the common man and b) that ordinary people do not have the slightest influence on the actions of their government. 67% feel that the interest of powerful groups play a more important role in political decision making than questions of general interest.

Openness of organisation seems to be more favourable to Dutch citizens than the openness of the political system. Companies who have more than 50 employees are obliged to have a works council, while for smaller companies this remains a voluntary option. Otherwise, small companies have to hold an open discussion with their workers twice a year. Every sector (such as construction, services or commerce) has its own company commission which is employed by an organ of the Dutch government, the Socio-Economic Council. The commission is made up by an equal share of

⁶⁵ Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau: *De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2001*, Den Haag, September 2001

⁶⁶ Referendumplatform: *Analyse van de gehouden referenda in Nederland*, retrieved from <http://www.referendumplatform.nl/gehouden/analyse.htm> in July 2004-08-05

⁶⁷ SCP: *De Sociale Staat van Nederland*, The Hague 2003

employers and employees and serves to settle disputes between both parties. This arbitration facility has to be consulted before disputes are carried to court.

The works council has a variety of rights. First of all it has the right to information including balances the social annual report and future plans as well as all additional information necessary to fulfil its tasks adequately. The works council may furthermore give advice on financial and structural decisions (reorganisation, mergers, big investments, moving). As far as social policy is concerned the works council has veto power on decisions that have not been regulated in the collective bargaining agreement. Members of the works council have to be provided with equipment and time on the job to fulfil their tasks and they may request training on company time⁶⁸.

5.5 Public space

Dutch citizens are supportive of collective actions. Table 32 shows that in spite of generally very generous work provisions, strikes are not unknown to the country. Little can be said on trends here though as both, the number of work days lost and the number of employees involved has been fluctuating strongly.

Furthermore interesting is an SCP study on the amount of collective protest exercised by Dutch citizens older than 18. 55% of people asked indicate that they would try to take action if they were convinced that the parliament would adopt an unjustifiable new law. In terms of actions that were indeed taken, 14% of all respondents state that they were active in a question of national importance while 29% of all respondent quote that they have been active in this way at the local level⁶⁹.

Table 32 Strikes in the Netherlands

	Incidences	Work days lost	employees involved
1999	24	75800	58900
2000	23	9400	10300
2001	16	45100	37400
2002	16	245500	28600
2003	14	15000	10800

Source: CBS; Werkstakingen

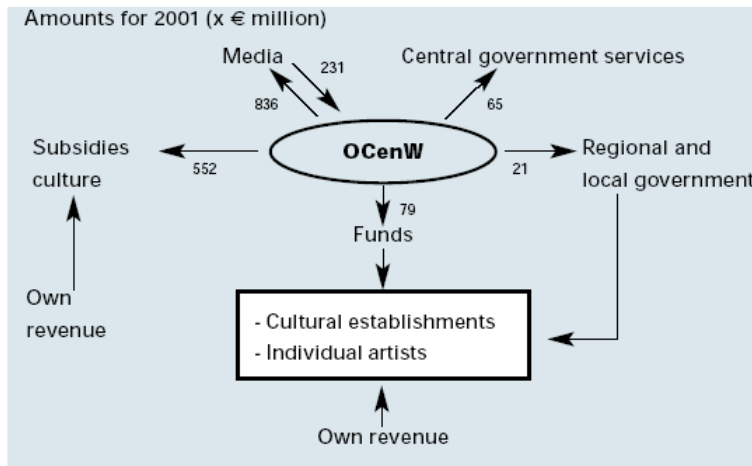
As far as cultural enrichment is concerned, the funding of cultural activities has experienced a small but steady increase from 1137 million Euros in 1997 to 1493 million Euros in 2001. The main flow of funds, the long-range institutional subsidies, is allocated every four years on the basis of subsidy applications from all the different sectors. Subsidies are provided in the form of a block grant, so that

⁶⁸ Personeelsnet Arbeidsrecht Medezeggenschap: OR instellen meestal verplicht; retrieved from <http://www.personeelsnet.nl/inc/indexed.php?n=/recht/nav.php&t=/recht/kopmedezeggenschap.php&c=/recht/homemedezeggenschap.php> in June 2004

⁶⁹ Sociaal en Cultureel Panbureau: De Sociale Staat van Nederland 2003, Den Haag, September 2003

institutions can reserve any operating surplus to use later for extra activities or to cover operating deficits. In the four major cities and some larger municipalities, the major performing arts institutions are subsidised jointly by central and local government.

Figure 3 Funding of Arts and culture, 2001



Source: www.minocenw.nl

Subsidies for projects of short duration and grants to individual practitioners of the arts and institutions are administered by fourteen national funds set up by the ministry for this purpose. The funds themselves are subsidised on a multi-year basis. The provinces and medium-sized municipalities receive special-purpose grants in support of local policy. At the moment, the level of the grants is still decided annually. Figure 3 above gives an overview of funding flows to arts and culture in the Netherlands in 2001.

The Dutch government provides extensive services for supporting the physical and social independence of handicapped individuals. Measures include the before mentioned labour market reintegration measures, fiscal support, the construction of accommodations that are adjusted to the needs of handicapped people and the improvement of access to public buildings for people in wheelchairs. Furthermore, in the areas of education, culture, transport and care additional measures have been taken to foster the reintegration of handicapped people in social life. Correspondingly, expenses on care services and aid for the handicapped have increased strongly between 2001 and 2003 by almost 25%⁷⁰. In 2003 expenditure on care items alone accounted for 1,24% of GDP.

Within the sub-domain of "personal support services" some indication can be given to levels of pre- and post-school child care. As is described by table 33 the number of available day care places has increased substantially between 2001 and 2002 in spite of a significant decrease in public provision on community level. This is due to an increase by company day care by almost 10.000 places.

⁷⁰ Ministerie van Volksgezondheid, Welzijn en Sport: Jaarbeeld Zorg, Den Haag, 2003

Interestingly, many of these newly gained places do not seem to be taken up. A very similar picture is offered by care services for school kids outside school lessons as displayed by table 34.

Table 33 Day Care places

	all day care	in companies	private	public	local public	spaces not taken
2001	83099	48159	17264	1927	11599	4150
2002	94336	58204	15648	1836	9407	9241

Source: CBS; Welzijnswerk en kindercentra: personeel/exploitatie/dienstverlening

Table 34 Pre- and post school day care for pupils

	Pre- and post school care	in companies	private	public	local public	spaces not taken
2001	40186	15550	7312	1896	11285	4145
2002	52429	26069	7842	2409	7544	8564

Source: CBS Buiten/naschoolse opvang

Living space in the Netherlands seems to offer ample support for social interaction. When asked for the availability of facilities in their living area, the overwhelming majority of respondents found the amount of health care provision centres, stops for public transport, green areas and day care centres "sufficient". Strikingly, satisfaction with "facilities for young kids" and "playgrounds" was significantly less high which could give some indications on deficiencies in the extent of inclusiveness of housing and environmental design. Findings are summarized in table 35.

Table 35 Availability of facilities in the neighbourhood

GP, Health Care Center			Stops for Public Transport			Green Aareas		
Sufficient	Insufficient	Not Available	Sufficient	Insufficient	Not Available	Sufficient	Insufficient	Not Available
5 583	367	437	5 254	751	381	5 251	892	243

Facilities for young kids			Playgrounds			Daycare centers		
Sufficient	Insufficient	Not Available	Sufficient	Insufficient	Not Available	Sufficient	Insufficient	Not Available
3 747	1 594	1 046	4 138	1 530	718	4 995	794	597

Source: CBS: Woonomgeving

5.6 Conclusion

Empowerment is defined as "the degree to which the personal capabilities and ability of people to act is enhanced by social relations". Little can be said in this respect on literacy and numeracy of the Dutch population although they are vital for an assessment of the population's capacity to absorb and process data. Unfortunately, data for the Netherlands supplied by the OECD PISA study are

insufficient for international comparison and only approximate rank positions can be given which still indicate a “good” or “mediocre” position of the country.

Only who is well informed is also “able to act”. As far as the availability of information is concerned, the liberty of the media is of prime concern. “Reporters Without Borders” indicate that the Netherlands rank top sharing the first place with Finland, Iceland and Norway. Yet, concerns have been raised regarding the neutrality of information published as a consequence of which it is suggested here to include this indicator in future analyses. Within the Netherlands, a particularly critical fact is the control public PR officials have over information. On the positive side in turn, the wide-spread presence of Internet access promotes the availability of information. Furthermore, information distributed by authorities is user friendly. Finally, as already mentioned in chapter 3 every legal resident is entitled to free advocacy, advice and guidance centres. In general thus the impression arises that inhabitants of the Netherlands dispose over a wide range of means ensuring their “capacity to act”.

This generally also applies to the labour market. The Dutch labour market is described by substantial control employees have over their labour contract. Although Dutch union membership is lower than the respective OECD average, more employees are covered by a collective bargaining agreement than in the typical OECD counterpart. The Dutch government also provides work based training measures to a raising number of employees. Furthermore, expenditure on training measures for the unemployed and risk groups have been on steady increase as have expenditures on direct job creation. Finally, the Dutch society since recently faces even more generous provisions to combine work and care/ social life. It also shows in the Dutch society that children are less and less a reason for women to retreat completely from the working sphere, but rather work less hours which is unproblematic as a consequence of an abundance of part time provisions. On the downside, still parents of younger children would look forward to additional flexibility, in particular with respect to working schedules and day care.

Concerning the openness and supportiveness of institutions, it can be said that referenda are not particularly wide-spread in the Netherlands: they never occurred on national or provincial level. Referenda held at the communal level mainly concerned community structure. Still, it shows that the absence of such direct democracy measures should not be attributed to the satisfaction of the Dutch with political decision making. We should ask ourselves, if the Dutch are many times not satisfied, yet the structure for having referenda exists within the Netherlands, whether the fact that frequently no referenda take place can be called an “incapacity to act”. Irrespective of this, the openness of organisation seems to be favourable to Dutch citizens. Companies who have more than 50 employees are obliged to have a works council, while for smaller companies this remains a voluntary option. Dutch citizens show themselves supportive of collective actions. In spite of generally very generous work provisions, strikes are not unknown. Furthermore the majority of Dutch citizens indicate that they would try to take action if they were convinced that the parliament would adopt an unjustifiable new law. In general it seems that Dutch citizens do not feel inhibited to take action.

The Dutch government furthermore provides extensive services for supporting the physical and social independence of handicapped individuals. Correspondingly, expenses on care services and aid for the handicapped have increased strongly between 2001 and 2003. Also the number of available day care places for school kids has increased substantially between 2001 and 2002 in spite of a significant decrease in public provision on community level. Interestingly, many of these newly gained places do not seem to be taken up. Finally, living space in the Netherlands seems to offer ample support for social interaction. Yet while health care provision stops for public transport, green areas and day care centres are generally considered "sufficient" strikingly, satisfaction with "facilities for young kids" and "playgrounds" was significantly less high.

6 Social Quality Initiatives

6.1 Introduction

It is the aim of this chapter to give an idea on policy development currently under way in the Netherlands which will have an effect on Social Quality. One of the main insights gained from this short review is that policy developments can only under difficulty be framed in the Social Quality approach. In particular, special measures promoting labour market integration and thus contributing to Empowerment may sound harsh from the viewpoint of Socio-economic Security or may be evaluated negatively from the perspective of Social Cohesion.

6.2 Socio-economic Security

6.2.1 Social Assistance Reform

The Reformed Social Assistance Act (WWB) which came into effect on 1 January 2004 is based on the principle that every citizen should support himself independently. Income support in this way remains temporary and conditional on the individual's efforts to gain financial independence. This is an interesting approach in the face of Socio-economic Security, since it implies a reduction of eligibility for social assistance. Yet, the purpose of tighter eligibility rules is to reintegrate the inactive in the labour market and society as a whole – a kind of measure that can be counted as Social Empowerment. In the following some aspects of the WWB are outlined.

Benefit receipt is conditional on job search on the one hand (if appropriate) and reintegration measures on the other hand. Newly registered unemployed are offered a place in a reintegration programme within twelve months. If a reintegration cannot be accomplished in the short term people are encouraged to join social activation measures. These include voluntary service (in more detail addressed below), training courses, work placements, group activities and language-learning skills. People who nevertheless become long-term unemployed are offered an additional place if necessary. Local authorities and benefit agencies purchase reintegration programmes in the private market. Some of the 600 to 800 companies offering reintegration services provide complete programmes from purchase through to assistance into work while others organise specific activities. Availability of information is guaranteed by a number of instruments. One of these is the experience bank. This is a database of experiences that purchasers and clients have had with reintegration companies. Moreover, a reintegration monitor gives an overview of the types of services provided by reintegration companies, the region they operate in and their specialisations.

In particular young people find it hard to find new jobs. They are vulnerable in the labour market as a consequence of the fact that they are frequently temporarily employed. In addition, they suffer from low levels of experience which makes them less attractive to employers. Finally, as prior analyses

have shown many young people are poorly qualified because they decided to leave school early during the last economic boom. An action plan has been drawn up to ensure that within six months every unemployed young person either enters the labour force or resumes formal education lifting youngsters at least to the minimum educational level required to stand a chance in the labour market⁷¹.

Other recent innovations concern a new system for the occupationally disabled. Also in the new occupational disability insurance system planned for 2006 the return to work is the central element. Correspondingly the main responsibility for prevention and reintegration lies with employers and employees. Initiatives concerning "sheltered employment" are supporting people with an occupational disability in finding a suitable full-time job that enables them to work independently to the largest extent possible. They generally concern people with intellectual or physical impairments. Around 95,000 people with an occupational disability are employed under the terms of the Sheltered Employment Act (WSW).

Correspondingly, what gets apparent is that the new law does not constitute "an easy way out" of the state's obligation to support the inactive. Rather the tightening of eligibility criteria is but one means of a set of measures aimed at empowering inactive citizens to take their life in their own hands again.

6.2.2 Flexibility in labour markets and job security

A second measure discussed here is less recent: the Flexibility and Security Act from 1999 aims to simultaneously achieve more flexibility for employers without endangering the job security for employees. One important aspect of the Act is that it limits the number of times an employer can have a consecutive temporary contract with the same employee. For example, if the duration of consecutive temporary contracts exceeds 36 months, the contract automatically turns into a permanent employment contract. It shows that in general the Law accomplishes more flexibility for employers since entering into and terminating flexible employment contracts has been made easier. On the downside, the stricter regulations on flexible employment relationships have increased the administrative burden for employers. Most importantly, it has been shown that security for flex workers has generally improved. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs reports that for employees doing flexible work, the Act has helped create a more regulated and secure employment relationship. Moreover, the number of extensions of temporary employment contracts is far higher than was expected when the Act came into force. A substantial proportion of these extensions result in permanent employment for the flex worker concerned. It is furthermore reported that a quarter of flex

⁷¹ Minsiterie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid: Tackling Unemployemnt, retrieved from http://internationalezaken.szw.nl/index.cfm?fuseaction=dsp_rubriek&rubriek_id=13008&lijstm=0,334_6543#3094310 in July 2004

workers think the Act has improved their legal position, while a growing number of employers are now less negative about the changes⁷².

What is shown by this example is that an increase in atypical work relationships does not necessarily have to point to less job security in the Social Quality context. In combination with the right type of regulation an increase in temporary employment can imply higher job security.

6.3 Social Cohesion

6.3.1 Voluntary work as reintegration measure

More than 3 million Dutch citizens are regularly active in voluntary work activities. Interestingly the Ministry for Work and Social Affairs uses this aspect of Social Cohesion for reintegration of the unemployed and working disabled, as has already been alluded to in the above. It has established a number of support measures for this purpose.

Communities can for example distribute so-called stimulation premiums to benefit recipients as to encourage them to engage in voluntary work initiatives. Importantly this premium is not deducted from other benefits received. The additional benefit paid for participation in voluntary work is 80 Euros per month⁷³. We here see relationships that Social Quality indicators would not correctly reflect the subject matter of the Social Cohesion. If voluntary work is used as a method of reintegration which is furthermore supported by an – albeit small- remuneration, doubt is cast on whether voluntarism reflects Social Cohesion. In this set-up, in contrast, voluntary activity could be serving a selfish goal. On the other hand, seen from the perspective of Social Empowerment, encouraging the unemployed to do voluntary work must be regarded positively: voluntary work is highly regarded in the Netherlands and correspondingly such measures may strongly contribute to reintegration in both society and labour market.

6.3.2 Tolerance and Integration: The impact of 9/11 and Pim Fortuyn

Both, the New York terrorist attack and the disputed but popular politician Pim Fortuyn, who was killed on May 6th 2002, have strongly influenced the Dutch political climate. Most concerned in this respect are Dutch views on foreigners, tolerance and integration. Elections in May, 2002 stood in the sign of Pim Fortuyn's assassination two weeks earlier. His party, the LPF, became the second most powerful in the country. Yet, as a consequence of internal instability of the LPF the parliament was soon

⁷² Minsiterie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid: Flexible work in the Netherlands retrieved from http://internationalezaken.szw.nl/index.cfm?fuseaction=dsp_rubriek&rubriek_id=13011&lijstm=0,334_6546 in July 2004

⁷³ Minsiterie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid: Increasing labour market participation, retrieved from http://internationalezaken.szw.nl/index.cfm?fuseaction=dsp_rubriek&rubriek_id=13009&lijstm=0,334_6585 in July 2004

dissolved and new elections were held. 9/11 and Fortuyn are symbols for anxiousness and unrest among the population concerning the Islam, immigration and integration.

Although, since the re-election in 2003 these themes have again moved to the background of the immediate policy agenda, they remain sensitive and much discussed issues in political debate. In his electoral campaign Fortuyn made immigration and integration policy his main emphasis. He advocated a minimal admission of new immigrants to the country and insisted that they should have to adapt to the Dutch life style. Under the influence of his success, all parties took a significantly stricter stance on these issues and the new government continues in this tradition. Interestingly this does not constitute a break with respect to policies undertaken by previous left-wing governments. They had tried to limit new immigration by a sequence of stricter regulations. As a consequence the number of asylum seekers has been on the decline, just as in other European countries. Stricter handling of foreigners' affairs and integration policies is furthermore responsible for declining naturalization figures quoted in chapter 2. The main difference between former and current politics mainly lies in the tone in which issues of migration and integration are discussed by parliament members, the government and opposition⁷⁴.

This example points to the great sensitivity to time of several Social Quality indicators, in particular indicators of Social Cohesion. Pim Fortuyn and 9/11 greatly affected the attitudes of Dutch citizens and certainly those of other Europeans. Correspondingly attitudes towards pluralism and levels of tolerance have worsened as has been shown in the previous analysis. The question here remains to which extent this trend describes a persistent change in the attitude in a very open and tolerant nation, which is not perceived by the author of this text.

6.4 Social Inclusion: Discrimination against age

In the previous chapter emphasis has been placed on discrimination problems that usually raise most concern: racial, gender, religious discrimination or discrimination on the basis of homosexuality. Little concern is generally perceived about discrimination by age, since mostly unequal treatment here is considered justified and based on objective standards. Correspondingly the question arises how a recently enacted law should be evaluated from the point of view of Social Quality.

On May 1st, 2004 the law on equal treatment with respect to age has been enacted. Since that date no distinction may be made between people on the basis of their age in the fields of work including job advertisement and selection as well as working conditions and procedures of dismissal. The law also refers to work related training, including vocational training, professional advice and membership in employee or employers' organizations. In the future thus a company would face difficulties if it demands a temporary work agency explicitly for a worker younger than 30 if this unequal treatment cannot be justified on objective grounds. If unequal treatment cannot be justified, both the employer

⁷⁴ Landelijk Bureau ter bestrijding van Rassendiscriminatie: Racisme in Nederland - Stand van zaken retrieved from http://www.lbr.nl/racismerapportage/1-politieke_ontwikkelingen.html in July 2004

and the temporary work agency are engaged in an illegal action. Interestingly, certain age limits can legally persist if there is an objective justification for their existence. An example here is specific minimum wages for the young that are targeted to integrate young people into the labour market. The Commission for Equal Treatment has the task to investigate complaints. It gave its first sentence on May 4th. Within an accounting company pension rules determined that only salary increases before the age of 57 would count for future pension benefits paid by the employer. The company argued that it undertook this measure not to inhibit career chances of older employees and to keep pension expenses affordable. The Commission did not perceive this as a sufficient objective reason and ruled that this procedure involved discrimination on the basis of age. In particular, the company did not prove that an adaptation of the regulation would lead to exploding pension costs.

This case may point to a number of difficulties with the new law. First of all, few people perceive the existence of discrimination by age, since frequently unequal treatment is easy to justify on objective grounds. For the same reason, cases of discrimination are very difficult to establish. Comparing discrimination by age to gender discrimination, age itself is far more frequently the objective criterion for distinguishing between people on the work floor. Simultaneously, the new law comes as an additional cost to the tax payers. The question thus arises to which extent the new law can effectively contribute to more Social Quality.

6.5 Social Empowerment

The Netherlands have set themselves a row of objectives with respect to the increase of labour force participation until the year 2010. These objectives include: to increase the labour market participation of older people to 50%, to increase female labour market participation to 60%: to halve the number of young people without a starting qualification, to increase the labour market participation of ethnic minorities by 0.75 percent points a year. General measures the Dutch government is relying on include various life-long learning measures and incentives that make work pay, in particularly for the low-skilled. Currently poverty traps are still being caused by the existence of various income-dependent support schemes at local authority level which are on top of the basic benefit. Correspondingly marginal tax rates for both, taking on a new job or working more hours are too high to give incentives for activity.

Specific initiatives targeted to older people have been introduced in January 2004. According to the new law, people older than 57.5 with recent work experience are obliged to continue their application efforts if they want to keep their unemployment benefit. Furthermore, potential supplementary benefits by the former employer are deducted from unemployment benefits. As a measure to counter age discrimination in 2001 the government set up the Taskforce on Older Workers and Employment, which has to develop proposals that keep older workers in employment.

The Cabinet moreover focuses specifically on women searching for a job after care leave for their children. The main problem identified is the mismatch between potential re-entrants, employers'

requirements and jobs available. Within the so-called "covenant" approach, agreements are negotiated with a large number of parties involved as to place re-entrants in paid employment.

Labour participation of ethnic minorities is promoted in various ways, including agreements with the social security agency (UWV), the Centre for Work and Income (CWI) and local authorities on the reintegration and participation of ethnic minorities and encouraging intercultural personnel policy and the recruitment and promotion of workers from ethnic minorities. Also here covenants are funded and supported. Focus has also been on training programmes with a particular emphasis on language. Refugees have to be considered as a group separate from other minority groups. They are more likely to be unemployed and if they are employed this is usually below their abilities. The government in particular wants to tackle this problem by developing activities are being developed to cover all the stages in the refugee experience, from asylum application, settling in and a reintegration or education programme through to starting a job⁷⁵.

It shows here that the range of reintegration measures goes far beyond the funding of training possibilities and corresponding variables might not be captured if Social Empowerment indicators mainly focus on the availability of training. Once again it is also striking that an improvement in empowerment can be at the cost of Socio-economic Security. Benefit reductions can constitute a measure to reduce dependence and thus help to empower people.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter served to supplement preceding analyzes in describing recent policy initiatives that are relevant from the perspective of Social Quality. Emphasis is placed here on a fact that an evaluation by means of the Social Quality framework has to be applied with great care. Frequently, policy initiatives constitute a trade off between different components of Social Quality and benefits and costs have to be weighed carefully. One example in this respect is the Social Assistance Reform, which tightens eligibility criteria for social assistance benefits and thus could be interpreted as constituting a reduction in Socio-economic Security. Yet the tightening of eligibility criteria is but one means and also part of a set of measures to empower inactive Dutch citizens to resume work. The question on the overall effect of this policy becomes apparent. We have to ask ourselves whether we really want to interpret the tightening of eligibility criteria as a decline in income security here. If we do so, the ensuing question is whether the achieved increase in empowerment gives us a positive net effect in terms of overall Social Quality. In this way cases like the Social Assistance Reform will have to be analyzed more thoroughly in order to give us an understanding on how use the theory and facts of Social Quality in a way to assess policy proposals and outcomes.

⁷⁵ Minsiterie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid: Increasing labour market participation, retrieved from http://internationalezaken.szw.nl/index.cfm?fuseaction=dsp_rubriek&rubriek_id=13009&lijstm=0,334_6585 in July 2004

7 Conclusion

This report has given a number of insights into Social Quality within the Netherlands. One of these is that overall the Netherlands display a high level of Socio-economic Security; thus there is strong control of resources over time. Dutch citizens face a lower risk of poverty than the EU average. This is likely attributable to very generous replacement rates granted in the case of sickness/disability, unemployment or retirement. Given bullet proof housing security and good housing quality one of the most pressing problems of the Dutch housing market is an issue of income sufficiency: low-income households have to use a considerable part of their income for expenditures on accommodation. This is partially helped by housing subsidies distributed by the Dutch government. Another problem is that several cities and regions suffer from severe housing shortages. So while there are discernible shortcomings in the domain of housing, the Netherlands score highly within the domain of Health and Care and particular in terms of participation in health insurance schemes, satisfaction with GPs and availability to fast emergency treatment. Within the domain "Work", employment security a high Dutch standard is also discernible, not at last due to formidable Dutch labour protection legislation. Working conditions confirm this positive picture: work related accidents are infrequent and typical working hours in the Netherlands are exceptionally low. Also the Dutch education system scores less favourably, in particular since the proportion of premature school leavers is high. As far as quality of education is concerned it is striking that even premature school leavers score high in the labour market. However it is maintained here that this is more likely due to favourable labour market conditions than the merits of the education system.

Overall, the Netherlands display a positive picture with respect to Social Cohesion, "the degree and quality of social relations between people based on shared norms and values in society". Notably though, there are some deviations from this general judgement in individual domains and sub-domains. An exceptionally high score can be noted with respect to generalised trust, yet, with respect to institutions, some are more and some are less trusted in the eyes of Dutch citizens than by other Europeans. Next to trust, there is substantial evidence of the state of "other integrative norms and values" within the Netherlands. Here, the outstanding characteristic of Dutch citizens is their exceptionally strong willingness to volunteer in groups that are directed to the well-being of the larger society. This also strongly coincides with the results of investigations of network participation: obviously the Dutch like to be part of bigger groups. For the most various organisations they reveal a higher participation than their European counterparts. Furthermore, Dutch citizens are strongly prepared to support their direct social environment. The Dutch seem to feel strongly bound to an implicit social contract as is expressed by their beliefs on the causes of poverty and their readiness to give part of their income to reduce environmental pollution. Also a comparatively high proportion of the Dutch is willing to "do something for the elderly, the sick and the disabled. The social contract between the sexes seems to have gained important strength in recent years as can be shown by the redistribution of paid and unpaid work. In an interesting contrast to their strong perception of social contract and the frequent participation in social network, the Netherlands has a lesser feeling of

identity than other European nations. Yet remarkably, the Dutch express the strongest feeling of belonging with their country rather than any other geographical unit. This is because the Dutch have a significantly, lower feeling of belonging to their local community than other Europeans. Evidence on "Tolerance" offers very mixed evidence. Although the Dutch judge themselves as tolerant, in particular Muslim inhabitants of the Netherlands do not feel welcome in the Dutch society and even have the feeling that this will stay unchanged irrespective of any integration efforts on their behalf.

Social Inclusion is the degree to which people are integrated in (or have access to) different social relations that constitute everyday life. Within the Netherlands it gives a very mixed picture. The full set of citizenship rights can only be obtained by Dutch nationals and the possibility for foreigners to receive the Dutch nationality is very limited. Even given initial limitations naturalisations have furthermore halved since 1996. Voter participation is at satisfactory levels in the Netherlands. Further mixed evidence is given on the domains of social and civil rights. As far as social rights are concerned the universal public pension scheme gives a positive image while persisting gender inequality in earnings is negative. Women are furthermore well represented in political functions, but seriously under-represented in court functions. For civil rights, free legal help for all is one of the credits of the Dutch society; yet the number of discrimination offences does not reflect this favourable evaluation. In turn levels of exclusion from the labour market, housing and education are low. But other items in the services domain give a less favourable image on Dutch society again. Dutch citizens diagnose ample possibility for improving all kind of transport connections but clearly judge transport by car superior to public transport due to differences in travel time, punctuality, capacity and harassment problems with public transport. Yet, a large amount of drivers also perceives the street network as insufficient. Furthermore, the number of library organizations has significantly decreased as a consequence of administrative reorganizations.

With respect to Social Empowerment, the Netherlands offer a positive picture. Dutch citizens are clearly found "capable to act through social relations". Although data are insufficient to allow for judgement of Dutch students capacity to absorb information, the Netherlands score generally well in terms of information availability. Concerning press freedom the Netherlands rank top sharing the first place with Finland, Iceland and Norway. Yet, concerns have been raised regarding the neutrality of information published. The wide-spread presence of Internet access promotes the availability of information. Furthermore, information distributed by authorities is user friendly. Due to high coverage rates the Dutch labour market is described by substantial control employees have over their labour contract. Openness of organisation seems to be more favourable. Companies who have more than 50 employees are obliged to have a works council, while for smaller companies this remains a voluntary option. The Dutch government also provides work based training measures to a raising number of people. Finally the Dutch society since recently faces even more generous provisions to combine work and care/ social life. Concerning the openness and supportiveness of institutions, it can be said that referenda are not particularly wide-spread in the Netherlands. Yet, it shows that the absence of such direct democracy measures should not be attributed light-heartedly to the satisfaction of the Dutch with political decision making. Dutch citizens are also supportive of collective actions. In spite of

generally very generous work provisions, strikes are not unusual. Furthermore the majority of Dutch citizens indicate that they would try to take action if they were convinced that the parliament would adopt an unjustifiable new law. The Dutch government furthermore provides extensive services for supporting the physical and social independence of handicapped individuals. Also the number of available day care places for school kids has increased substantially between 2001 and 2002. In turn, within neighbourhoods satisfaction with "facilities for young kids" and "playgrounds" was significantly lower than satisfaction with other facilities.

The reflection of recent policy initiatives reveals the Social Quality community cannot afford to rest on the Laurels of their achievements in terms of theoretical advance of the concept and a first collection of facts. The examples displayed reveal that a fully fledged application of the Social Quality theory will certainly go beyond the initial compilation of indicators as it has been accomplished in this report. Testing indicators against a clearly defined case, the recent Dutch Social Assistance Reform, places emphasis on the fact that an evaluation by means of the Social Quality framework has to be applied with great care. The reform can be interpreted in two ways: a reduction in Socio-economic Security or an increase in Empowerment. But is it one, the other, or both? Clarity has to be gained on whether we can speak of trade-offs in Social Quality and how we have to weigh the corresponding benefits and costs.

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Annex Collective data

1. Socio-economic security

Domain: Financial resources

Sub-domain: Income security

3. Proportion of total population living in households receiving entitlement transfers (means-tested, cash and in-kind transfers) that allow them to live above EU poverty level.

At-risk-of-poverty rate before and after social transfers: total

The share of persons with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income

	1997		1998		1999		2000		2001	
	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after
EU 15	25	16	24	15	24	15	23	15	24	15
EU 25	:	:	:	:	24	15	:	:	24	15
Belgium	26	14	25	14	24	13	23	13	23	13
Germany	22	12	22	11	21	11	20	10	21	11
Greece	23	21	22	21	22	21	22	20	23	20
Spain	27	20	25	18	23	19	22	18	23	19
France	26	15	25	15	24	15	24	16	24	15
Ireland	32	19	32	19	30	19	31	20	30	21
Italy	22	19	21	18	21	18	21	18	22	19
Hungary	:	:	:	:	:	:	19	9	20	10
Netherlands	23	10	21	10	21	11	21	10	21	11
Portugal	27	22	27	21	27	21	27	21	24	20
Slovenia	17	11	17	12	18	11	17	11	:	:
Finland	23	8	22	9	21	11	19	11	19	11
Sweden	28	9	28	10	28	9	27	11	27	10
UK	30	18	30	19	30	19	29	19	29	17

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

At-risk-of-poverty rate before and after social transfers: males and females

The share of persons with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income

	1999				2000				2001			
	males		females		males		females		males		females	
	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after
EU 15	23	15	25	16	22	14	24	16	22	14	25	16
EU 25	23	15	25	16	:	:	:	:	23	14	25	17
Belgium	23	11	26	14	22	12	25	14	21	12	25	15
Germany	20	10	21	12	19	10	22	11	20	10	23	12
Greece	22	20	23	21	22	19	23	20	21	19	24	22
Spain	23	18	23	19	21	17	23	19	22	17	25	20
France	24	15	25	16	24	15	25	16	23	15	24	16
Ireland	28	17	32	20	29	19	33	21	29	20	32	23
Italy	20	18	21	18	20	18	21	19	21	19	23	20
Hungary	:	:	:	:	18	9	19	10	20	10	21	10
Netherlands	21	10	22	11	21	11	21	10	21	12	21	11
Portugal	27	19	28	22	26	19	28	22	25	20	24	20
Slovenia	17	11	19	12	17	10	18	12	:	:	:	:
Finland	19	9	22	12	18	9	21	13	17	9	20	14
Sweden	26	9	29	10	26	10	28	11	25	10	29	11
UK	27	18	32	21	26	16	32	21	26	15	32	19

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Housing and environment

Sub-domain: Housing conditions

7. Proportion of population living in houses with *lack* of functioning basic amenities (water, sanitation and energy)

Percentage of household lacking at least one of the three basic amenities by income group, 1999

	EU	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
All households	21	19	10	38	62	11	16	15	12	89	4	-	11
Household income less than 60% compared to median actual current income	35	33	25	70	84	24	33	40	16	96	9	-	16

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Domain: Health and care

Sub-Domain: Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants

Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants

	EU15	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
1997	-	386	345	410	428	325	214	578	-	306	296	278	168
1998	368	395	350	426	436	426	219	583	295	312	300	278	172
1999	375	405	355	438	444	328	227	589	311	318	306	283	176
2000	-	411	359	-	454	329	250	599	321	325	308	-	180
2001	-	419	362	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

12. Average distance to hospital, measure in minutes, not in meters

Proximity to hospitals by income (% having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes by quartiles of household-equivalence income)

	Total	Lowest quartile	Highest quartile	Difference in percentage points
EU 15	52,8	44,9	60,4	15,5
Belgium	66	53,6	78,9	25,3
Germany	52,7	48	56,8	8,9
Greece	39,9	35,7	44,3	8,5
Spain	41,4	38,4	44,2	5,8
France	54,4	43,4	65,3	21,9
Ireland	44,6	40,5	48,7	8,2
Italy	60,9	47	75,2	28,2
Hungary	31,4	16	46,8	30,8
Netherlands	72,5	66,8	77,8	11
Portugal	37,8	27,2	49	21,9
Slovenia	37,9	30,5	46,2	15,7
Finland	50,9	48	53,8	5,8
Sweden	58	56	60	4,0
UK	45,5	34,2	57,8	23,6

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

Domain: Work

Sub-domain: Employment security

17. Proportion employed workforce with temporary, non permanent, job contract

Proportion employees with a contract of limited duration (temporary job contracts)

	1999			2000			2001			2002		
	total	females	males	total	females	males	total	females	males	total	females	males
EU 15	13,2	14,2	12,4	13,4	14,5	12,5	13,4	14,5	:	13,1	14,3	12,1
Belgium	10,3	13,7	7,7	9	12,1	6,6	8,8	12,1	:	7,6	10,3	5,5
Germany	13,1	13,4	12,8	12,7	13,1	12,5	12,4	12,7	:	12	12,2	11,8
Greece	13	14,7	12	13,1	15,7	11,5	12,9	15,4	:	11,3	13,4	9,8
Spain	32,7	34,9	31,4	32,1	34,6	12,1	31,6	34,1	:	31,2	34,2	29,2
France	14	14,8	13,3	15	15,7	14,3	14,9	16,3	:	14,1	16	12,5
Ireland	9,4	12,1	7,1	4,6	5,8	3,6	3,7	4,5	:	5,3	6,3	4,5
Italy	9,8	11,8	8,5	10,1	12,2	8,8	9,5	11,5	:	9,9	12,1	8,3
Hungary	:	:	:	:	:	:	7,5	6,8	:	7,4	6,8	8
Netherlands	12	15,4	9,4	14	17,2	11,1	14,3	17,5	:	14,3	17	12,2
Portugal	18,6	20,4	17,1	20,4	22,7	18,4	20,3	22,1	:	21,8	23,4	20,5
Slovenia	:	:	:	:	:	:	13,1	13,3	:	14,7	16,7	12,9
Finland	18,2	21,2	15,2	17,7	20,9	14,5	17,9	22	:	17,3	20,5	13,9
Sweden	13,9	16,6	11,2	14,7	16,9	12,1	14,7	16,9	:	15,7	17,9	13,3
UK	6,8	7,5	6,2	6,7	7,7	5,7	6,7	7,5	:	6,1	6,8	5,5

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Sub-domain: Working conditions

20. Number of fatal accidents (fatal / non-fatal) at work per 100.000 employed persons (if possible: per sector)

Incidence rate of accidents at work. Incidence = (number of accidents at work that occurred during the year/number of persons in employment in the reference population) x100000

	1994		1998	
	non-fatal	fatal	non-fatal	fatal
EU 15	4539	3,9	4089	3,4
Belgium	4415	6	5112	3,1
Germany	5583	3,7	4958	3
Greece	3702	4,3	2936	3,7
Spain	6166	7	7073	5,5
France	5515	4,3	4920	4
Ireland	1494	3,9	1433	5,9
Italy	4641	5,3	4105	5
Hungary	:	:	:	:
Netherlands	4287	:	3909	:
Portugal	7361	8,4	5505	7,7
Slovenia	:	:	:	:
Finland	3914	3,6	3435	2,4
Sweden	1123	2,1	1329	1,3
UK	1915	1,7	1512	1,6

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Evolution of the accidents at work, 1998 = 100

	1997		1998		1999		2000		2001	
	serious	fatal	serious	fatal	serious	fatal	serious	fatal	serious	fatal
EU 15	100	100	100	100	100	85	98	82	94 (p)	79 (p)
Belgium	96	100	100	100	96	106	82 (b)	100	83	124
Germany	101	90	100	100	99	80	96	70	88	65
Greece	113	76	100	100	93	170	88	73	86	78
Spain	95	115	100	100	107	91	108	85	106	81
France	101	103	100	100	101	85	102	85	98	79
Ireland	115	120	100	100	90	119	72	39	105	43
Italy	100	84	100	100	99	68	99	66	92	62
Hungary	103	97	100	100	93	107	94	95	86	71
Netherlands	107	140	100	100	108 (b)	107	105	106	92	79
Portugal	100	108	100	100	92	79	88	104	:	:
Slovenia	106	130	100	100	102	88	98	83	94	105
Finland	98	117	100	100	91	75	89	88	87 (b)	8 (b)
Sweden	81	169	100	100	107	85	111	85	113	105
UK	102	100	100	100	106	88	106	106	110	92

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

Fatal work accidents (per 100 000 employed persons), 2000

	EU	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	5	5	4	3	7	6	2	7	2	9	2	2	2
Age group under 25	3	7	3	1	5	4	-	7	1	5	1	3	1
Age group 45 and over	7	6	5	5	10	10	-	10	4	16	3	3	3

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

21. Number of hours a full-time employee typically works a week (actual working week)

Hours worked per week of full time employment

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
EU 15	42.1	42.1	42.1	41.9	41.7	41.6	41.4	:
Belgium	40.3	40.6	41.2	38.4	38.5	41.2	41.4	41.3
Germany	41.6	41.7	41.7	41.8	41.8	41.6	41.4	41.0
Greece	44.6	44.4	44.5	44.7	44.2	44.2	44.2	44.4
Spain	42.2	42.3	42.3	42.2	42.1	42.0	41.8	41.6
France	41.2	41.1	41.0	40.9	40.2	39.6	38.9	40.7
Ireland	43.9	43.2	42.9	42.1	41.9	41.5	41.2	41.0
Italy	40.6	40.5	40.6	40.5	40.6	40.6	40.5	40.5
Hungary	42.1	42.0	41.8	42.0	41.9	41.5	41.4	41.4
Netherlands	41.5	41.3	41.0	41.0	41.0	40.9	40.7	40.6
Portugal	43.7	43.1	43.1	42.4	42.0	41.9	41.9	41.6
Slovenia	43.6	43.8	43.9	43.6	43.1	43.2	43.1	42.6
Finland	40.5	40.9	40.9	41.0	40.9	40.7	40.6	40.6
Sweden	41.4	41.4	41.3	41.3	41.2	41.0	41.0	40.8
UK	44.8	44.9	44.8	44.4	44.2	44.2	43.9	43.8

Source: Eurostat; free data, long term indicators, people in the labour market

Domain: Education

Sub-domain: Security of education

22. Proportion of pupils leaving education without finishing compulsory education (early school leavers)

Early school-leavers - total - Percentage of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
EU 25	:	:	17.2 (p)	16.5 (p)	15.9 (b)
EU 15	20.5 (p)	19.4 (p)	18.9 (p)	18.5 (p)	18.0 (b)
Belgium	15.2 (b)	12.5	13.6	12.4	12.8
Germany	14.9	14.9	12.5	12.6	12.6 (p)
Greece	17.8	17.1	16.5	16.1	15.3 (b)
Spain	29.5	28.8	28.6	29.0	29.8
France	14.7	13.3	13.5	13.4	13.3 (b)
Ireland	:	:	:	14.7	12.1 (b)
Italy	27.2	25.3	26.4	24.3	23.5
Hungary	13.0	13.8	12.9	12.2	11.8 (b)
Netherlands	16.2	15.5	15.3	15.0	15.0 (p)
Portugal	44.8	42.9	44.3	45.5	41.1
Slovenia	:	:	7.5	4.8 u	4.3
Finland	9.9	8.9 (b)	10.3	9.9	10.7 (b)
Sweden	6.9	7.7	10.5 (b)	10.4	9.0 (b)
UK	19.7 (p)	18.3 (p)	17.6 (p)	17.7 (p)	16.7 (p)

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

Early school-leavers - males and females - Percentage of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training

	1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	females	males	females	males	females	males	females	males	females	males
EU 25	:	:	:	:	15.0(p)	19.5(p)	14.2(p)	18.7(p)	13.9(b)	17.9(b)
EU 15	18.4(p)	22.6(p)	17.1(p)	21.6(p)	16.6(p)	21.2(p)	16.1(p)	20.9(p)	15.9(b)	20.2(b)
Belgium	12.7(b)	17.7 b	10.2	14.8	12.3	15.0	9.9	14.9	10.8	14.7
Germany	15.6	14.2	15.2	14.6	12.8	12.2	12.6	12.6	12.6(p)	12.6(p)
Greece	14.8	21.2	12.9	21.8	13.0	20.4	12.3	20.1	11.0 (b)	19.6(b)
Spain	23.6	35.4	23.2	34.3	22.2	34.9	22.3	35.4	23.4	36.1
France	13.4	16.0	11.9	14.8	12.0	15.0	11.9	14.9	11.6 (b)	15.0(b)
Ireland	:	:	:	:	:	:	10.8	18.5	9.2(b)	14.9(b)
Italy	24.2	30.3	21.9	28.8	22.6	30.2	20.7	27.9	20.1	26.8
Hungary	12.7	13.3	13.2	14.3	12.6	13.3	11.8	12.5	11.1(b)	12.4(b)
Netherlands	14.9	17.5	14.8	16.2	14.1	16.5	14.3	15.7	14.3 p)	15.7(p)
Portugal	38.8	50.7	35.4	50.3	37.0	51.6	38.1	52.9	33.8	48.3
Slovenia	:	:	:	:	5.6	9.3	3.3	6.2	2.3	6.2
Finland	7.9	12.0	6.5(b)	11.3(b)	7.7	13.0	7.3	12.6	8.6(b)	12.9(b)
Sweden	6.1	7.7	6.2	9.2	9.7 b	11.3 b	9.3	11.4	8.2(b)	9.8(b)
UK	19.3(p)	20.1(p)	17.8(p)	18.8(p)	16.6(p)	18.6(p)	16.6(p)	18.8(p)	16.4(p)	17.0(p)

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

2. Social cohesion

Domain: Trust

Sub-domain: Generalised trust

25. Extent to which 'most people can be trusted'

Proportion of the population who thinks that most people can be trusted

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	HU	NL	SL	FIN	S	UK
most people can be trusted	29,3	34,8	19,1	38,5	22,2	35,2	32,6	21,8	59,7	21,7	58	66,3	29,9
you cannot be too careful	70,7	65,2	80,9	61,5	77,8	64,8	67,4	78,2	40,3	78,3	42	33,7	70,1

Source: European Values Study; A third Wave (question 8)

Extent to which the population thinks that most people can be trusted, 2002

The table includes the country means in a 0-10 scale, where 0 means the distrust and 10 means the trustfulness

	B	D	EL	E	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
country means	4,81	4,61	3,64	4,86	5,46	4,54	4,08	5,71	4	3,98	6,46	6,09	5,05

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

Sub-domain: Specific trust

26. Trust in: government; elected representatives; political parties; armed forces; legal system; the media; trade unions, police; religious institutions; civil service; economic transactions

Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

	Trust in country's parliament	Legal system	Police	Politicians	European Parliament
Belgium	4,99	4,39	5,64	4,28	4,88
Germany	4,47	5,73	6,73	3,5	4,46
Spain	4,83	4,31	5,43	3,37	4,8
Finland	5,79	6,75	7,95	4,78	4,88
UK	4,68	5,03	6,04	3,79	3,61
Greece	4,83	6,27	6,43	3,46	5,69
Hungary	5	5,11	4,91	3,88	5,67
Ireland	4,43	5,14	6,53	3,75	5,11
Italy	4,83	5,49	6,66	3,54	5,51
Netherlands	5,22	5,38	5,82	4,87	4,67
Portugal	4,44	4,26	5,13	2,82	4,76
Sweden	5,92	6,06	6,76	4,72	4,02
Slovenia	4,04	4,28	4,89	3,07	4,65

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

Remarks: The table includes the country means in a 0-10 scale, where 0 means the distrust and 10 means the trustfulness.

28. Importance of: family; friends; leisure; politics; respecting parents. parents' duty to children

Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in its live (those two answer categories are taken together)

	work	family	friends	leisure time	politics	religion
Belgium	92,8	97,6	89,1	86,2	33,1	47,6
Germany	82,7	96,9	94,5	83,2	39,5	35
Greece	87,2	99,1	85,5	76,9	34,9	79,7
Spain	94,6	98,9	86,6	80,9	19,3	42
France	94,8	98,2	94,4	88,1	35,4	36,9
Ireland	84,7	98,5	97,3	86,9	32,1	70,7
Italy	95	98,6	89,8	81,2	33,8	72,1
Hungary	88,7	97,8	82,3	79,7	18,2	42,3
Netherlands	86,5	92,7	96,3	94	57,7	39,8
Portugal	95,1	98,7	87,9	83,7	27,1	75,5
Slovenia	95,8	97,2	88,3	79,7	14,5	36,6
Finland	89,2	96,2	95,2	90	19,8	45,1
Sweden	91,1	97,9	97,6	93,9	55	35
UK	78,6	98,8	96,6	92,5	34,3	37,4

Source: European Values Study; A third Wave (question 1)

Domain: Other integrative norms and values

Sub-domain: Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

Volunteer work and informal help among persons aged 20-74 (Hours and minutes per day)

	B	D	F	HU	SI	FIN	S	UK
Volunteer work and help among women aged 20-74	0:10	0:15	0:14	0:08	0:06	0:16	0:12	0:14
Volunteer work and help among men aged 20-74	0:11	0:17	0:18	0:13	0:11	0:16	0:12	0:10

Source: How Europeans spend their time everyday life of women and men – Luxembourg

30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

	EU	B	D	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
Yes	31	23	31	25	38	32	24	26	22	39	25	32

Source: « Le don de sang », Eurostat, 2003, p.2, Eurobarometer 58.2

Sub-domain: Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

Proportion of different opinions according to the inclusion of immigrants in different countries, 2000

Country	Let anyone come who wants to	Let people come as long as there jobs available	Put strict limits on the number of foreigners who can come here	Prohibit people coming here from other countries
Belgium	7,4	33,5	50,5	8,6
Germany	4,5	32,6	56	7
Greece	3,5	40,9	41	14,6
Spain	19,1	56,2	22,4	2,3
Ireland	8,3	46,7	42,1	2,9
Italy	9,7	47,4	38,3	4,6
Hungary	2	12	59,1	26,8
Netherlands	3,9	35,9	55,6	4,7
Portugal	11,5	61,4	23,2	3,9
Slovenia	4,6	48,1	38,9	8,4
Finland	10,4	34,7	51,9	3
Sweden	16,3	54,4	28,7	0,5
UK	4,3	34,1	48,5	13,1

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

Proportion of different opinions in connection with the cultural identity of immigrants in different countries

Country	For the greater good of society it is better if immigrants maintain their distinct customs and traditions	For the greater good of society it is better if immigrants do not maintain their distinct custom and traditions but take over the customs of the country
Belgium	28,1	71,9
Germany	23,8	76,2
Greece	68,7	31,3
Spain	52	48
Ireland	56,7	43,3
Italy	59,7	40,3
Hungary	33,4	66,6
Netherlands	29,1	70,9
Portugal	48,9	51,1
Slovenia	30,8	69,2
Finland	32	68
Sweden	36	64
UK	44,7	55,3

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

32. Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences

Typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities

Proportion of the population that is intolerant, ambivalent, passively tolerant and actively tolerant by country

	Intolerant	Ambivalent	Passively tolerant	Actively tolerant
EU15	14	25	39	21
Belgium	25	28	26	22
Germany	18	29	29	24
Greece	27	43	22	7
Spain	4	18	61	16
France	19	26	31	25
Ireland	13	21	50	15
Italy	11	21	54	15
Netherlands	11	25	34	31
Portugal	9	34	44	12
Finland	8	21	39	32
Sweden	9	15	43	33
UK	15	27	36	22

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	HU
Claiming state benefits which you are not entitled to	2,57	1,91	3,64	2,67	3,39	1,9	1,88	1,7
Cheating on tax if you have the chance	3,64	2,36	2,88	2,35	3,06	2,35	2,39	2,12
Taking and driving away a car belonging to someone else (joyriding)	1,2	1,24	1,39	1,64	1,38	1,11	1,46	1,14
Taking the drug marihuana or hashish	1,72	1,91	2,04	2,16	2,15	1,99	2,03	1,26
Lying in your own interest	3,62	3,32	2,58	2,93	3,71	2,32	2,41	2,53
Married men/women having an affair	2,72	2,85	2,12	2,48	3,52	1,84	2,75	2,1
Someone accepting a bribe in the course of their duties	2	1,8	1,66	1,68	2,08	1,42	1,5	2,67
Homosexuality	5,22	5,69	3,39	5,51	5,27	4,4	4,83	1,45
Abortion	4,45	4,61	4,18	4,34	5,64	2,9	4,04	3,92
Divorce	5,64	5,86	5,42	6,1	6,32	4,8	5,14	4,5
Euthanasia (terminating the life of the incurably sick)	5,83	4,34	3,49	4,73	6,16	3,31	3,86	3,83
Suicide	3,27	2,61	2,26	2,77	4,34	2,07	2,28	1,56
Throwing away litter in a public place	1,48	2,22	1,88	1,86	1,62	1,81	1,58	1,72
Driving under the influence of alcohol	1,64	1,45	1,49	1,52	1,88	1,4	1,43	1,16
Paying cash for services to avoid taxes	4,29	2,89	3,46	3,35	4,18	2,89	2,5	2,62
Having casual sex	2,86	3,15	3,6	3,92	3,91	2,71	3,07	2,74
Smoking in public buildings	2,92	4,05	4	3,74	3,38	3,33	3,46	2,85
Speeding over the limit in built-up areas	2,39	1,99	2,19	1,93	2,84	1,85	2,61	1,98
Avoiding a fare on public transport	2,39	2,13	2,89	:	2,71	:	2,17	:
Sex under the legal age of consent	:	2,64	4,57	:	:	1,45	:	:
Prostitution	:	4,19	2,37	3,25	:	2,54	2,4	:
Political assassinations	:	1,49	1,93	:	:	:	:	:
Scientific experiments on human embryos	2,07	1,52	1,38	1,74	:	1,92	1,95	:
Genetic manipulation of food stuff	2,42	2,21	2,32	2,05	:	:	2,31	:

Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences (continued)

	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK	Total
Claiming state benefits which you are not entitled to	1,51	2,03	2,82	2,3	2,08	1,99	2,28
Cheating on tax if you have the chance	2,67	2,45	2,34	2,46	2,41	2,42	2,63
Taking and driving away a car belonging to someone else (joyriding)	1,34	1,62	1,68	1,31	1,29	1,21	1,41
Taking the drug marihuana or hashish	3,06	2,02	2,3	1,65	1,77	3,1	1,83
Lying in your own interest	3,14	2,45	2,54	2,71	2,56	3,01	2,85
Married men/women having an affair	2,69	2,47	3,47	2,36	2,38	2,31	2,56
Someone accepting a bribe in the course of their duties	1,58	1,77	1,78	1,43	1,83	1,77	1,82
Homosexuality	7,8	3,19	4,62	4,94	7,65	4,89	4,3
Abortion	5,4	3,81	6,19	5,42	7,38	4,54	4,58
Divorce	6,54	5,46	6,58	6,64	7,8	5,57	5,51
Euthanasia (terminating the life of the incurably sick)	6,65	3,5	5,37	5,4	6,07	4,99	4,82
Suicide	4,34	2,2	3,54	3,04	4,12	3,16	2,63
Throwing away litter in a public place	1,7	1,83	1,94	2,27	2,72	2,61	1,88
Driving under the influence of alcohol	1,44	1,83	2,04	1,35	1,35	1,51	1,54
Paying cash for services to avoid taxes	4,2	2,25	3,28	3,48	3,78	3,53	3,25
Having casual sex	3,7	2,76	4,08	3,75	4,8	3,44	3,15
Smoking in public buildings	3,81	3,34	3,57	3,1	3,18	4,02	3,51
Speeding over the limit in built-up areas	1,8	2,38	2,93	2,82	2,72	2,3	2,33
Avoiding a fare on public transport	2,72	:	:	2,36	:	2,68	2,82
Sex under the legal age of consent	:	:	5,78	3,31	:	1,96	2,53
Prostitution	:	:	3,31	3,2	:	3,42	2,84
Political assassinations	:	:	:	1,44	:	1,99	1,63
Scientific experiments on human embryos	2,5	:	1,86	2,47	:	2,35	2,08
Genetic manipulation of food stuff	3,07	:	2,83	2,6	:	2,3	2,42

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q65, 1-10 scale

Sub-domain: Social contract

33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

Proportion of the population which considers (respectively) unfortunateness, laziness, injustice and the modern progress as the most important reason for living in need

	unlucky	laziness or lack of wilpower	injustice in society	part of the modern progress	none of these
Belgium	26,8	16	35,3	20	1,9
Germany	11,7	28,4	36,9	19,6	3,5
Greece	14,3	29,8	18,2	34,4	3,3
Spain	19,8	19,6	48,4	10,4	1,9
France	14,4	11,4	44,3	26,9	2,9
Ireland	23,2	20,6	33	19,3	3,9
Italy	19,5	23	37,7	15,6	4,2
Hungary	13	27,6	37,7	18,8	2,9
Netherlands	32,8	14,3	25,8	17,5	9,7
Portugal	23,3	41,9	21,6	11,6	1,6
Slovenia	10,4	33,2	35,4	17,3	3,7
Finland	14,8	23	23,8	35,3	3,1
Sweden	10,2	7,1	49,5	33,1	0
Great Britain	16,4	24,6	30,5	24,4	4,1

Source: European Values Study : A third Wave (question 11)

38. Membership (active or inactive) of political, voluntary, charitable organisations or sport clubs

Proportion of people member of non-governmental organizations (NGO's) in different countries, 2002/2003

	B	D	EL	E	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
Male	65,1	72	24,8	36,7	68,6	37	27,9	84,4	31,1	51,3	64,6	82,8	71,4
Female	57,1	61,7	16,4	29,5	59,3	24,9	17,7	77,4	18,6	33,3	57,2	78,8	62

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003

Proportion of population which belongs to....

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I
social welfare services for elderly, handicapped or deprived people	11,4	3,9	10,2	3,7	5,6	5,9	6,4
religious or church organisations	12,2	13,5	11,8	5,8	4,3	16,2	10,3
education, arts, music or cultural activities	18,9	7,9	11,2	7,3	7,8	10,1	9,9
trade unions	15,7	7,2	6,5	3,5	4	10	6,2
political parties or groups	7	2,8	4,9	2	2	4,4	4,1
local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	5	0,7	2,8	2,2	2,3	5,6	2,4
third world development or human rights	9,8	0,6	1,8	2,4	1,4	2,4	2,9
conservation, the environment, ecology, animal rights	10,4	2,7	5,8	2,5	2,2	2,8	3,8
professional associations	8,3	4,4	7,7	2,6	3,1	7,7	7,1
youth work	7,5	1,9	2,5	2,6	2	7,1	4,2
sports or recreation	23,8	28	9,6	8,5	16,4	27,6	11,5
women's groups	8,7	3,6	2,2	2,3	0,4	4,4	0,4
peace movements	2,3	0,2	2,9	1,6	0,5	1,7	1,4
voluntary organisations concerned with health	5	2,5	3,6	2,7	2,5	4,1	4,7
other groups	10,6	3,9	6,8	3,7	6,9	5,4	2,6

Proportion of population which belongs to.... (continued)

	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
social welfare services for elderly, handicapped or deprived people	1,9	21,6	2	5,4	10,4	20,8	6,7
religious or church organisations	12,1	35,1	5,6	6,7	47	71,5	4,9
education, arts, music or cultural activities	3,4	46,2	3,1	9,2	14,3	26,4	9,7
trade unions	7	23,4	1,7	16,9	32,3	64	8,2
political parties or groups	1,6	9,5	0,9	3	6,6	10,6	2,5
local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	1	7,4	1	9,2	2,6	9,5	3,8
third world development or human rights	0,3	24,6	0,8	0,8	5,9	15	2,6
conservation, the environment, ecology, animal rights	1,7	44,3	0,5	3,3	4,4	11,3	1,5
professional associations	3,7	18,5	1,1	6,7	5,6	14,5	1,6
youth work	0,8	7,3	1,2	4,5	6,7	6,9	5,7
sports or recreation	3,8	50,3	8,6	16,9	23,7	37	3
women's groups	0,3	4		1,9	4	3,5	1,7
peace movements	0,3	3,4	0,6	0,8	1,3	1,5	0,6
voluntary organisations concerned with health	2	9,6	2,2	2,9	9,2	6,7	3
other groups	2,6	9,7	3,2	9,9	11,8	25	5

Source: European Values Study; A third Wave (question 5)

40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

Frequency of spending time with friends

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
every week	50,2	49,3	62,1	67,5	58,5	72,1	61,9	37,0	66,7	63,6	57,7	60,3	66,5	74,2
once a week	30,9	36,7	23,6	18,5	28,0	21,1	20,2	29,1	25,5	14,5	25,7	27,7	28,2	18,5
few times a year	14,1	12,3	11,3	10,1	11,0	5,3	13,3	22,0	6,5	16,3	14,0	11,0	5,0	5,2
not at all	4,9	1,7	3,1	3,9	2,5	1,6	4,6	11,9	1,3	5,6	2,6	1,0	0,3	2,1

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

Frequency of spending time with colleagues

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
every week	12,9	11,3	24,1	27,0	12,5	25,0	16,8	13,6	14,7	35,4	24,4	23,3	17,8	18,6
once a week	22,5	27,0	23,3	18,7	18,7	27,5	21,9	17,3	29,2	17,8	25,6	23,8	35,9	24,2
few times a year	33,4	39,9	21,6	18,8	24,0	20,4	26,4	20,5	38,3	16,5	28,2	33,8	37,0	26,8
not at all	31,2	21,8	30,9	35,4	44,7	27,0	35,0	48,5	17,7	30,2	21,9	19,1	9,3	30,3

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

Domain: Identity

Sub-domain: National / European pride

41. Sense of national pride

Sense of pride : proportion of the population which is proud of being (country) / European

	EU15	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
national pride	85	83	66	96	92	86	96	93	84	92	96	90	90
european pride	61	64	49	64	74	58	75	81	62	66	73	70	47

Source: Standard Eurobarometer 6;: full report (categories very and fairly proud taken together)

Sense of national pride

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
very proud	24,3	16,8	65	44,1	39,7	71,8	39,3	50,9	19,5	79,1	55,7	56,1	41,4	50,5
quite proud	50,9	50,8	25,6	45,2	49,6	26,2	49	38,4	60,5	17,7	34,9	37,5	45,6	39,5
not very proud	17,5	24,3	8,6	7,8	7	1,7	9,8	8,5	14,8	2,3	7,4	5,6	11,6	7,9
not at all proud	7,3	8,1	0,9	3	3,7	0,3	1,9	2,3	5,2	0,9	2	0,9	1,4	2,1

Source: European Values Study; A third Wave (Q71)

Sub-domain: Regional / community / local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

Which of these geographical groups would you say you belong to first of all?

	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
locality or town	32,1	55,2	44,8	45,6	43,7	56,6	53,4	67,3	39,1	36,3	52,8	48,9	58,7	48,9
region of country	20,3	29,6	12	16,5	12,1	15,8	10,6	6,3	7,7	16	8,7	12,3	9,5	13,7
country as a whole	27,9	10,1	33,2	26,8	28,5	24	23,3	20,1	41,2	41,6	32,1	31,2	22,4	28,4
Europe	9,3	2,9	1,2	1,7	4,3	2,2	4,2	2	4,8	1,6	2,4	3,2	4,2	1,9
world as a whole	10,4	2,2	8,8	9,4	11,4	1,4	8,5	4,3	7,2	4,5	3,9	4,4	5,3	7,2

Source: European Values Study; A third Wave (Q67)

3. Social inclusion

Domain: Citizenship rights

Sub-domain: Constitutional / political rights

46. Proportion having right to vote in local elections and proportion exercising it

Proportion voting in national elections (as the percentage of the voting age population)

	B	D	EL	EL	F	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	SL	UK
1995-1999	83,2	:	83,9	80,6	59,9	66,7	87,4	:	:	79,1	:	71,1	:	69,4

Source: IDEA (1997), Voter Turnout from 1947 to 1997 and OECD : Society at a glance 2001

Sub-domain: Social rights

48. Women's pay as a proportion of men's

Gender pay gap

as the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees.

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
EU (15 countries)	16	16	15	16	16
Belgium	10	9	11	12	12
Germany	21	22	19	21	21
Greece	13	12	13	15	18
Spain	14	16	14	15	17
France	12	12	12	13	14
Ireland	19	20	22	19	17
Italy	7	7	8	6	6
Hungary	22	18	19	20	19
Netherlands	22	21	21	21	19
Portugal	7	6	5	8	10
Slovenia	14	11	14	12	11
Finland	18	19	19	17	17
Sweden	17	18	17	18	18
United Kingdom	21	24	22	21	21

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

Earnings of men and women

Annual gross earnings of women as a percentage of men's, 2000

	EU15	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
Industry and services	75	83	-	80	77	82	-	-	73	71	79	86	68
Industry	77	83	78	83	73	84	-	-	77	67	82	89	69
Mining and quarrying	75	99	91	81	-	92	-	-	-	94	77	90	68
Manufacturing	75	79	76	74	-	79	-	-	75	65	80	89	68
Electricity, gas and water supply	78	68	82	81	-	83	-	-	81	89	77	83	70
Construction	88	99	91	94	102	100	-	-	82	90	82	90	76
Trade and repairs	72	79	74	76	-	77	-	-	68	71	73	83	63
Hotels and restaurants	79	91	-	77	-	85	-	-	82	74	90	90	72
Transport	84	91	-	64	-	90	-	-	74	98	87	92	81
Financial intermediation	62	70	75	73	-	64	-	-	62	80	57	66	46
Real estate	70	76	-	91	-	72	-	-	70	71	75	78	66

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

Source: «Living conditions in Europe», Eurostat, 2003, p.60

Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

52. Proportion of women elected or appointed to parliament, boards of private companies and foundations

Proportion of women in national governments and parliaments, 2001

	B	D	EL	ES	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK	Total
government	22,2	38,6	12,5	17,6	29,4	21,9	10,3	36	9,8	38,9	50	32,9	24,7
parliament	24,6	29,8	8,7	27,1	8,3	14,2	10,2	32,4	20	37	44,3	17	20,5

Source: Europäische datanbank Frauen in Führungspositionen (www.db-decision.de)

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

Total long-term unemployment

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
EU 15	4.9	4.4	4.0	3.5	3.1	3.1	3.3
Belgium	5.4	5.5	4.9	3.7	3.2	3.5	3.7
Germany	4.9	4.7	4.3	3.9	3.8	4.1	4.6
Greece	5.3	5.8	6.4	6.0	5.4	5.1	5.1
Spain	8.9	7.6	5.9	4.7	3.9	3.9	3.9
France	4.8	4.6	4.2	3.6	3.0	3.0	3.4
Ireland	6.0	3.9	2.6	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.5
Italy	7.5	7.0	6.8	6.4	5.8	5.3	4.9
Hungary	4.5	4.2	3.3	3.0	2.5	2.4	2.4
Netherlands	2.3	1.5	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0
Portugal	3.3	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.8	2.2
Slovenia	3.4	3.3	3.2	4.1	3.5	3.4	3.4
Finland	4.9	4.1	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.3
Sweden	3.1	2.6	1.9	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.0
UK	2.5	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.1

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Long-term unemployment: females and males (1997-2000)

	1997		1998		1999		2000	
	females	males	females	males	females	males	females	males
EU 15	5.8	4.2	5.4	3.7	4.7	3.3	4.2	2.9
Belgium	7.1	4.2	7.0	4.5	5.9	4.1	4.6	3.0
Germany	5.6	4.3	5.3	4.2	4.7	4.0	4.2	3.7
Greece	9.3	2.8	9.9	3.1	10.5	3.7	9.8	3.5
Spain	14.1	5.7	12.4	4.8	9.4	3.7	7.6	2.8
France	5.7	4.0	5.5	3.9	5.1	3.5	4.4	2.9
Ireland	5.1	6.5	2.8	4.6	1.9	3.2	1.0	2.0
Italy	10.5	5.7	9.5	5.4	9.3	5.2	8.8	4.9
Hungary	4.0	4.9	3.9	4.5	2.9	3.6	2.5	3.4
Netherlands	3.1	1.8	1.8	1.3	1.5	0.9	1.0	0.6
Portugal	3.6	3.0	2.7	1.9	2.1	1.5	2.1	1.4
Slovenia	3.3	3.6	3.3	3.3	3.0	3.4	4.1	4.0
Finland	4.9	4.9	4.0	4.3	2.8	3.2	2.7	2.8
Sweden	2.0	4.0	1.8	3.2	1.4	2.2	1.0	1.7
UK	1.5	3.3	1.2	2.5	1.0	2.2	0.9	1.9

Long-term unemployment: females and males (continued) (2001-2003)

	2001		2002		2003	
	females	males	females	males	females	males
EU 15	3.7	2.7	3.6	2.7	3.7	2.9
Belgium	3.6	3.0	4.1	3.2	4.0	3.4
Germany	4.1	3.7	4.2	4.0	4.6	4.6
Greece	8.6	3.1	8.3	3.0	8.5	2.8
Spain	6.3	2.3	6.3	2.3	6.0	2.4
France	3.7	2.4	3.5	2.6	3.9	3.1
Ireland	0.8	1.6	0.7	1.7	0.9	1.9
Italy	8.0	4.5	7.2	4.1	6.7	3.9
Hungary	2.1	2.9	2.1	2.7	2.3	2.5
Netherlands	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.6	1.1	1.0
Portugal	1.9	1.2	2.2	1.4	2.6	1.8
Slovenia	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.3
Finland	2.3	2.7	2.0	2.5	2.0	2.6
Sweden	0.8	1.2	0.8	1.2	0.8	1.2
UK	0.8	1.7	0.7	1.4	0.7	1.4

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Social networks

Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours

Percentage of population aged 16 and over talking to neighbours, 1999

	EU	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
At least once a week	81	71	-	96	90	-	89	80	70	86	79	-	78
Once or twice a month	10	17	-	2	5	-	7	10	14	8	12	-	13
Less than once a month or never	9	12	-	2	5	-	4	10	16	6	9	-	9

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Sub-domain: Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends

Percentage of the population aged 16 and over meeting people (at home or elsewhere), 1999

	EU	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
At least once a week	81	78	-	90	92	66	97	81	85	74	80	-	87
Once or twice a week	14	18	-	9	6	26	3	13	13	16	17	-	10
Less than once a month or never	5	4	-	2	2	8	1	6	2	9	4	-	3

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

4. Social Empowerment

Domain: Knowledge base

Sub-domain: Availability of information

73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

Competence poverty: proportion of educationally „poor” individuals in different countries based on literacy competences

	B	D	EL	F	IRL	I	HU	P	FIN	S	UK
students aged 15	19	22,6	24,4	15,2	11	18,9	22,7	26,3	6,9	12,6	12,8
Population aged 16-65	15,3	9	-	-	25,3	-	32,9	49,1	12,6	6,2	23,3

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

75. Access to internet

Internet use in different European countries (% of individuals aged 14 and over)

	B	EL	E	IRL	I	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S	UK
Never use	56,3	86,6	75,1	58,3	69,8	80,4	40,7	69,9	64,1	43,9	33	51,4
Everyday use	18,1	4,2	9,3	13	9,9	5,7	21,7	14,8	10,6	18,8	27,8	17,7

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

80. % of employed labour force receiving work based training

Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)

	EU	B	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	P	FIN	S	UK
Training enterprises as a % of all enterprises	62	70	75	18	36	76	79	24	88	22	82	91	87
Employees in training enterprises as a % of employees in all enterprises	88	88	92	56	64	93	92	56	96	52	95	98	97
Participants in CVT courses as a % of employees in all enterprises	40	41	32	15	25	46	41	26	41	17	50	61	49
Hours in CVT courses per employee (all enterprises)	12	13	9	6	11	17	17	8	15	7	18	18	13
Hours in CVT courses per participant	31	31	27	39	42	36	40	32	37	38	36	31	26

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Distribution of companies and enterprises that provide vocational training, 1999 (%)

Branch	B	D	E	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S
Industry	68	73	38	34	90	19	53	77	90
Commerce	72	83	41	39	87	24	30	85	94
Financial services	100	100	74	79	97	67	66	100	100
Economic services	86	87	41	48	90	43	60	86	90
Other public and personal services	75	89	33	35	88	29	69	93	100
Other	63	65	29	31	86	18	46	79	84

Source: Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus

Annex Social Quality theory

1 Introduction

In the 1990s representatives of universities from different European countries started to elaborate the theory of social quality. Stimulated by neo-liberal globalisation and the dominance of economic interests and herewith related economic thinking and policies in the process of European integration, they were searching for an alternative. Important was to develop international standards with which to counteract the downward pressure on welfare spending (the race to the bottom). But which standards were acceptable, which theoretical criteria could be applied and why? The social quality initiative addressed these questions and could be seen as a possible theoretical foundation upon which judgements for acceptable standards could be made. The initiative was launched formally under the Dutch Presidency of the European Union in 1997. The European Foundation on Social Quality, localised in Amsterdam was founded and presented its first study; *The Social Quality of Europe* (Kluwer Law International, 1997; paperback version by Policy Press, 1998). Social quality is a new standard intended to assess economic, cultural, and welfare progress. One that can be used at all levels to measure the extent to which the daily lives of citizens have attained an acceptable level. It aspires to be both a standard by which people can assess the effectiveness of national and European policies and a scientific yardstick for evidence-based policy making. Its ambition is to contribute to public policies that improve the democratic relations on European and national levels and that enhance social justice and equity in the cities and regions of Europe.

From the beginning the theory's aims has been to contribute to a comprehensive understanding of societal processes and to develop an interdisciplinary approach. The social quality approach is a strategy for analysing the reciprocity between societal structures and actions of citizens. The most renewing aspect of this approach – and especially in this respect social quality differs from the traditional (passive) welfare policies – is the addition of the concept of empowerment; a concept that strengthens the roles of citizens in their communities. The goal is to contribute to the personnel development of citizens to enable them to elaborate their own conditions for social quality in daily circumstances.

The first study delivered the points of departure for the Amsterdam Declaration of Social Quality (June 1997) which opens with the words; *“Respect for the fundamental human dignity of all citizens requires us to declare that we do not want to see growing numbers of beggars, tramps and homeless in the cities of Europe. Nor can we countenance a Europe with large numbers of unemployed, growing numbers of poor people and those who have only limited access to health care and social services. These and many other negative indicators demonstrate the current inadequacy of Europe to provide social quality for all citizens”*. This Declaration was finally signed by thousands scientists all over Europe and presented solemnly to the President of the European Parliament in October 1997.

In this appendix to the national reports about the indicators of social quality we will not present the whole theory, but only the aspects relevant for the application of this theory and for the analysis of societal trends and processes in the European Union. The project, for which these national reports

are made, tries to determine and compare the nature of social quality in the different European countries.

2 The European Network on Indicators of Social Quality (ENIQ)

2.1 The Foundation's second book as point of departure

The policy of the European Foundation on Social Quality is based on five pillars: (i) theorising social quality, (ii) developing its measurement instruments, (iii) applying these instruments to policy outcomes as well as circumstances in cities and regions, (iv) disseminating the Foundation's outcomes, and (v) stimulating public debates. In January 2001 the Foundation published the outcomes of the 'permanent symposium' about social quality and the outcomes of its projects in a second book; *Social Quality, A New Vision for Europe* (Kluwer Law International, 2001). In the Foreword of this book Mr. R. Prodi, the former President of the European Commission, says that "*The concept of quality is, in essence, a democratic concept, based on partnership between the European institutions, the Member States, regional and local authorities and civil society. Quality conveys the sense of excellence that characterises the European social model. The great merit of this book is that it places social issues at the very core of the concept of quality. It promotes an approach that goes beyond production, economic growth, employment and social protection and gives self-fulfilment for individual citizens a major role to play in the formation of collective identities. This makes the book an important and original contribution for the shaping of a new Europe*".

Thanks to this work the Foundation was rewarded for a manifold of grants. The most important were, first, a grant by DG Employment and Social Affairs for analysing employment policies from a social quality perspective. The main theme concerned the way the social quality approach may underpin flexibility and security in employment. The outcomes were published by Berghahn Journals in the double issue of the European Journal of Social Quality in 2003. The second important grant was rewarded by DG Research to develop a robust set of indicators with which to measure the conditional factors of social quality. This resulted in the start of the European Network on Indicators of Social Quality in October 2001. Representatives of fourteen universities in Europe and of two European NGOs participated in this network (see page iv of the national report). They were funded to appoint part-time junior scientists as assistants.

2.2 The challenge of the Network Indicators

The network had to deal with a couple of challenges. Within the network people, firstly, used different interpretations of the social quality theory. Secondly, they used different research methodologies. Thirdly, they had different cultural backgrounds (including different scientific backgrounds; like economics, political science, sociology, social policy), and fourthly, they had to deal with the language problem for proper communication. Therefore one of the major objectives of this network was to develop a common understanding. This goal was reached by a combination of deductive and inductive analysis in different stages of the project. In the first stage a preliminary consensus about the theory – discussed during plenary sessions - was tentatively applied in the fourteen national contexts. It concerned the first assessment of data availability in national and European databases for one conditional factor of social quality. The outcomes stimulated to deepen the common understanding and relationship between the four different conditional factors of social quality. The next stage was used for a second tentative application, now for all factors. The outcomes of the second exploration of data availability paved the way for the elaboration of the commonly accepted interpretation of the conditional factors (see below).

Especially thanks to the input by the network, the co-ordinating team and its advisors could specify and clarify the theory by defining the essence of the four conditional factors from a new interpretation of 'the social'. This was done also by analysing the general scientific and European policy debates about the concepts. The outcomes of this theoretical work paved the way for the third (and last) exploration of data availability in the fourteen countries, resulting in the national reports about indicators of social quality. In other words, the work by the network stimulated an incessant reciprocity between empirical exploration and theoretical work. The outcomes of this theoretical work and the interpretation of the outcomes of the national reports will be published in the Foundation's third study, forthcoming at the end of 2005.

3 Some aspects of the theory and its indicators

In this section a short overview will be given of the theoretical research of the project. This theoretical background is essential to understand the choice of the indicators for social quality on which the empirical research of the national reports is based.

3.1 The reciprocity between structure and action

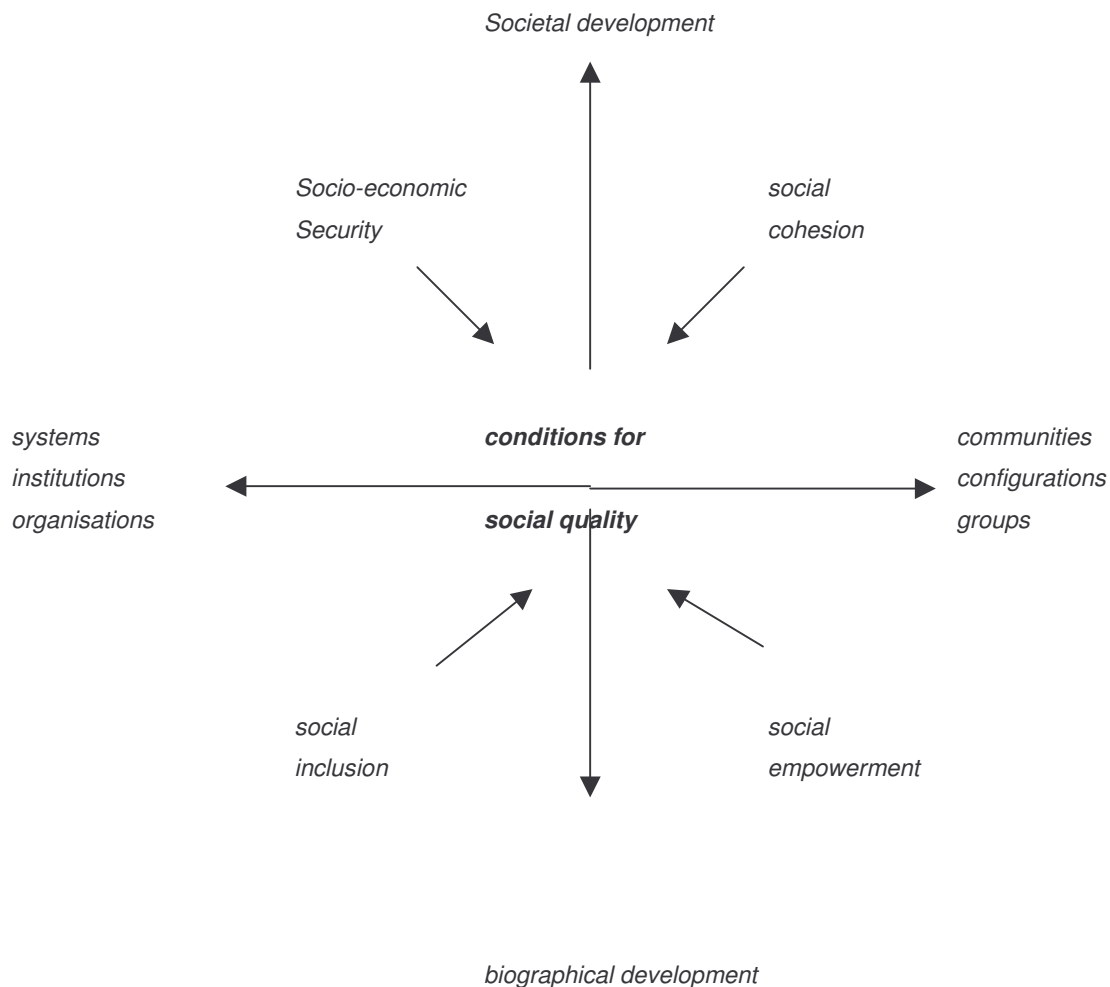
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of 'the social'. We should however remark that 'the social' can only accurately be understood by reference to the individual as actor. The actual problem can be seen in the fact that we are challenged to think the seemingly impossible – the simultaneity of independence and dependence. Furthermore, we have to accentuate the position of individual people as social actors in order to realise the goal of social quality, namely understanding the reciprocity between social structures and actions of citizens.

The social quality approach tries to resolve the actual tension behind action and structure in a dialectical way. Social science is by definition a theory of action (this is not the same as the so-called 'action theory'), as the social cannot be imagined without actions or interventions by individual people. Instead of leaving this to spontaneous and voluntarist assessments it is proposed to search for criteria that allow the analysis of the developmental interconnectedness of both, the biographical and societal momentum of interaction; (i) amongst individual people, (ii) between individual people and society, (iii) amongst societal subsystems and not least (iv) between the various social actors and the natural environment. The social quality approach can serve as a comprehensive or meta-theory for addressing this interconnectedness. Rather than referring to actors and structure, this approach refers on the one hand to biographical and on the other hand to societal development. At the very same time, another reference is made to systems on the one hand and communities on the other hand.

3.2 The four conditional factors

Starting point of developing such a perspective is to look at a common denominator, i.e. criteria which are necessary for their constitution. This is not achieved by looking for minimal standards. Rather, the idea is that there should be a strong commonality in terms of the recognition of all four angles of the social fabric. This is meant to be a substantial dimension of the relationship between action and structure. We recognise four conditional factors of social quality, namely: (i) socio-economic security, (ii) social cohesion, (iii) social inclusion, and (iv) social empowerment. These four conditional factors define the concrete qualitative frame, in which society, individuals and their interaction develop.

Figure-1 The quadrangle of the conditional factors



This frame refers to the institutional level and the space for direct interaction. Furthermore it refers to the development of the actual interaction and the behavioural framework for this interaction. Each of these conditional factors has a different meaning, specific for what could be called 'elements of the social', i.e. for societal processes, biographical processes, systems and institutions, and communities and configurations. However, at the same time all of them are – individually and by their interaction – crucial as conditional factors.

3.3 A referral to the four constitutional factors

As important as this is, it is necessary to go a step further. Namely, to be able to go further into detail of analysing the actual interaction between people, we have to look as well for constitutional factors that realise the individual's competence to act. These factors are derived from the first basic assumption of the theory of social quality. It says, that individual people are essentially social beings.

They interact with each other and these interactions constitute the collective identities as contexts for their actions, resulting in processes of self-realisation.

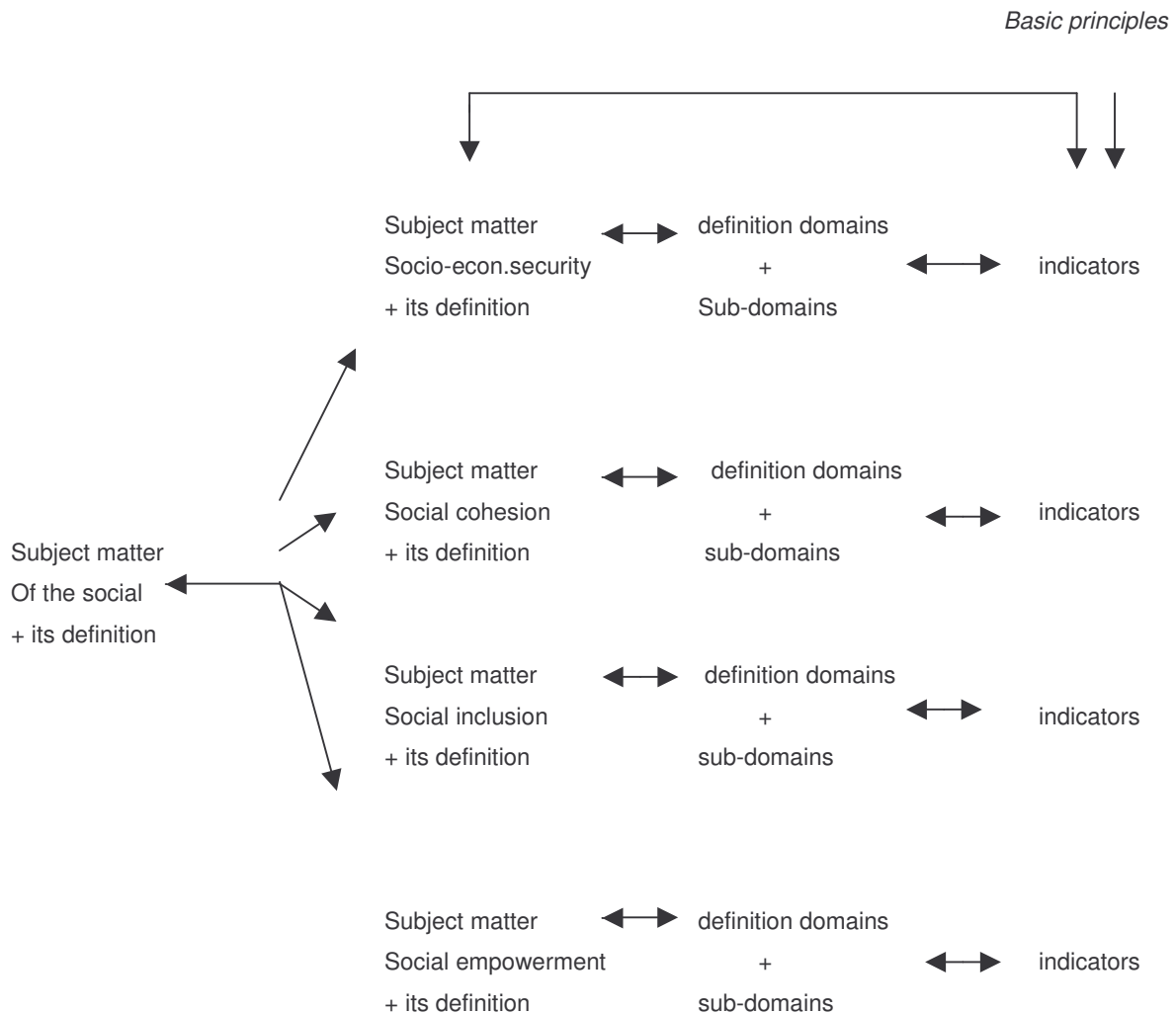
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network on Indicators of Social Quality the nature of the conditional factors in the fourteen national countries is the 'heart of the matter'.

4 The national reports about the indicators of social quality

4.1 The steps made by the network

The measurement tools of the conditional factors are indicators. Indicators of social quality are thus – to be precise – 'indicators of the conditional factors of social quality'. As said, the network's challenge was to develop a robust set of these indicators. A condition was to clarify and to elaborate the social quality theory. This was done by applying deductive and inductive approaches that increased the understanding of the nature of the four conditional factors substantially. Thanks to four plenary sessions of the network's participants and three plenary sessions of their assistants, all those engaged could reach an agreement on the final definition of the four conditional factors, and recognise their domains and sub-domains. This delivered the consensus necessary for the development of indicators for all sub-domains that are relevant for the understanding of the nature of the conditional factor in question. The outcomes of this process are presented in the national reports. The following steps are made to syntonize all relevant concepts and to define the set of indicators: firstly, to determine the subject matter and definition of the conditional factors; secondly, to relate these definitions to each other as well as to the subject matter of 'the social'; thirdly, to determine the conditional factors' most essential domains; fourthly, to determine the nature of the sub-domains. As argued already these steps were based on the reciprocity between empirical explorations in the different countries and theoretical elaboration of the conditional factors of social quality, thus between inductive and deductive approaches. It may be illustrated as follows:

Figure-2 Determination of related concepts

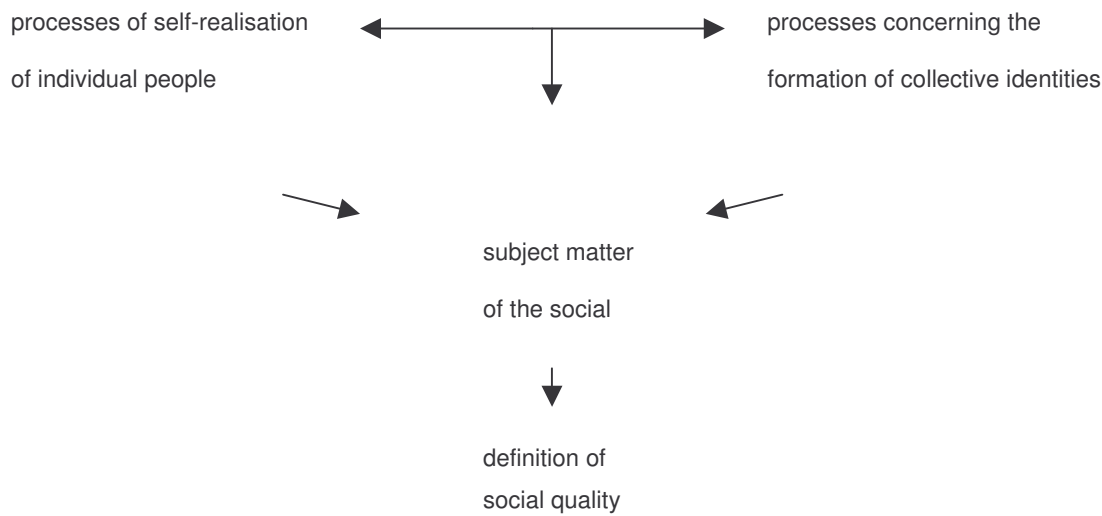


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

The process resulting in the definitions of the relevant concepts will be extensively described in the network's Final Report. At this stage we will only present the consensus about the definitions of 'the social' and the four conditional factors.

The social will come into being thanks to the outcomes of reciprocal relationships between processes of self-realisation of individual people as social beings and processes leading to the formation of collective identities. Its subject matter concerns the outcomes of this reciprocity. The definition of social quality is based and derived from this reciprocity. **Social quality** is the extent to which people are able to participate in the social and economic life of their communities under conditions which enhance their well-being and individual potentials.

Figure-3 Subject matter of 'the social' and the definition of social quality



The herewith related definitions of the four conditional factors are:

- Socio-economic security is the extent to which individual people have resources over time.
- Social cohesion is the nature of social relations based on shared identities, values and norms.
- Social inclusion is the extent to which people have access to and are integrated in different institutions and social relations that constitute everyday life.
- Social empowerment is the extent to which personal capabilities of individual people and their ability to act are enhanced by social relations.

We mean by individual people, 'social beings' that interact with each other and influence the nature of collective identities. These collective identities on their turn influence the possibilities for self-realisation of the individual people. Thus this theory is oriented on social life, not on individuals potentials only. The theory rejects individualistic oriented propositions. Furthermore, there exists a form of overlap between the four conditional factors. This plays a role on the level of defining domains for the factors. In some cases domains can play a role in two or three different conditional factors. But the way of analysing these domains will differ by their sub-domains and indicators, because they are determined by the specificity of the conditional factor in question.

5 Conclusions

In all national reports the domains, sub-domains and indicators are presented in order to assess the data availability for these indicators. At this stage we will summarise some results of this approach:

- The indicators reflect processes of interacting social beings. In comparison with other approaches, the social quality approach has paid a lot more attention to the theoretical foundation of the indicators. It distinguishes ‘the social’ from the economic. Or more precise, the economic is seen as an aspect of ‘the social’ as is the cultural, the juridical etc. This prevents the trap of explaining social policy (or welfare policy) as a productive factor for economic policy and economic growth. The social has its own *raison d’être*.
- For the first time in the academic world concepts as socio-economic security, social cohesion, social inclusion and social empowerment are theoretically related with each other. The social quality theory demonstrates the intrinsic affinity of these four conditional factors. Herewith it addresses the existing scientific and policy-making fragmentation.
- Thanks to the applied method we have the possibility to analyse the nature and relationships between different policy areas. For example the relationship between economic policy, social policy and employment policy – see the Lisbon strategy – cannot be properly analysed without an intermediary. Social quality and the knowledge about the nature and changes of the four conditional factors deliver the points of departure for such an intermediary.
- The network has constructed indicators for measuring the nature and changes of the four conditional factors. By applying these indicators we dispose of a new tool for international comparison that is based on theoretically grounded concepts. Thanks to the application of this tools we are able to analyse the convergence and divergence between the Member States of the European Union with regard to these conditional factors of social quality. This could have added value for international comparison.
- Thanks to the assessment of the data availability of the indicators – as is done in each national report – we recognise the highly differentiated character of the countries of the European Union. This differentiated character cannot be captured by a reduction to a small number of social models. At the same time we recognise an intrinsic affinity in the emphasis on equity and solidarity between most of the countries involved. This outcome of the national reports will deliver good points of departure for future research on the comparison of the essence of the developmental approach of the European Union, the USA and the Asian countries.