

European Network Indicators of Social Quality  
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”  
The Finnish National Report

by  
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STAKES

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## *European Foundation on Social Quality*

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## **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.

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## **Abstract**

The purpose of this report is to present the indicators of the four conditional factors of social quality in Finland. The national situation is described with data of national level with some international comparisons. The evaluation of the national situation is based on the indicator data derived from different resources of statistics and research. The data is presented annually with the latest available information and recent trends where available.

Socio-economic security is still leaning on the Nordic Welfare Model in Finland. The country has after the economic recession in the early 1990s improved significantly its economic competitiveness. This has also had some impact on the people's economy. The average income has increased, but unfortunately, simultaneously the income gap between the poorest and the richest part of the population has widened. The memberships of the European Union in the 1990s and European Monetary Union in the early 2000s brought some stability on the macro-level economy.

At the population level, socio-economic security has been developing towards a better situation. The risk-of-poverty has been slightly decreasing and the living conditions have been improving in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Some significant improvements have been made in order to secure the economy of the most deprived people. Despite all the positive achievements, there is still a need for improvements at many sectors that relate to socio-economic security. There is a need to evaluate the health and social services in order to secure the basic needs of people. The national projects on both social and health care pave the way for policies that take the challenges, such as ageing population, into account.

Social cohesion is built on events in the history and on national heritage in Finland. Almost all Finns sense national pride that is stronger than European pride. During the last decades, mostly the wage policies have been considered as 'solidaristic' since the 1970s. As regards basic values, most Finns are willing to help. Finland is experiencing a mixing of basic values. The basic values and motives for helping are changing towards a more individualistic direction instead of the solidarity characteristics for the older days. When helping others, it seems increasingly important for the helper to achieve also something from the process. Finland's foreign population is only about two per cent of the total population. It is very small in comparison with other European countries but it is growing. Forms of racism and hostility to foreigners are experienced even though work is being done to increase tolerance towards immigrants and refugees by integrating them into the society.

Finland is considered the 'promise land' of associations since the number of registered associations per capita is one of the highest in the world. Besides the informal associations, Finns are one of the most active members of trade unions in the Europe. These different forms of participation and togetherness build trust and cohesion among the Finns. Furthermore, it facilitates the natural birth of different networks that support the individual.

Social inclusion in Finland is accessible due to the freedom of expression and the dominant open society ideology. The equity and possibilities to practise ones rights are secured by laws and enforced by the authorities. Most rights are universal and access is granted to all inhabitants of Finland. The so far increasing educational levels, equal access to services and decision-making evidence some of the aspects of Social inclusion in Finland.

The long-term unemployment rate is decreasing as in Europe on average. The decrease is partly a result of heavy employment measures conducted in the 1990s. Structural unemployment still exists. In fact, repeated unemployment has increased since the mid 1990s. The extreme consequences of long-term unemployment are alcoholism, homelessness and exclusion. Policies to improve the situation of the homeless people are implemented, but little results are gained instead of the decreasing number of homeless. Inclusive housing is still unattainable for many especially in the growth centre areas. Inclusion is also an issue of equity. Some improvement has been experienced in the wage policies relating equal pay for equal work between men and women but some significant differences still exist. The share of ethnic minorities in Finland is growing and should also be secured an equal access to services.

The indicators of Social empowerment give a view on structures and processes enabling and empowering Finnish people to act socially and to maintain or improve personal capabilities. Social empowerment was the most challenging conditional factor of social quality in terms of indicators. Specific social empowerment indicators are rare in the existing literature, and therefore, it was difficult to reflect the use of the indicators. However, Social empowerment indicators enlighten the conditions and processes of extremely important issues.

Knowledge base creates social mobility with other capacities and social background. Literacy, access to information and availability of supporting services play key roles in building a sufficient knowledge base. The Finns have common access to print media and the Internet. Information about public services must be given at least in Finnish and in Swedish. Increasingly, the public service providers are ready to give information also in English, even in other languages.

Labour policies are enforced in accordance of the different laws. The Finnish labour force is one of the most organised labour forces in the Europe. Trade unions have a strong influence in working conditions and employers' abilities to participate further education. The labour and economic systems are also open for community involvement. New forms of participation instead of marches and demonstrations are used in order to participate and influence. These new forms include the referendum initiative concerning the European Union Constitution.

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# 1 Introduction

The task of creating and implementing indicators is a process that must involve different fields of research and expertise. The outcomes of this process should be both practical and justifiable in terms of the underlying theory. According to the theory of social quality, indicators reflect a section of the social quality of the people. Different types of indicators are nowadays utilised popularly at almost every fields of action. Tools and expertise for creating Indicators of social quality already exist. In Finland, also the citizens have rather transparent view on social conditions thanks to data systems of good quality and for the most part free access to information and data. However, some aspects are left with less attention in the development of new and existing data systems. Indicators need to be understandable, concrete and catch the essence of the underlying subject matter. Beck, van der Maesen and Walker (1) state that the formulation of an aggregate overall social quality indicator is possible. Combining different data sources, facilitating the co-operation between different data providers and experts bring us nearer to the goal Beck et al. (1) referred to.

The use of indicators has been debated for many years. Indicators have been criticized to leave too many open questions. Nevertheless, in order to reveal something from the reality, methodological tools are needed. But as Vogel in 1996 in his speech in the World Conference on Quality of Life stated, new forms of indicators are needed in the future. *“New indicators are needed to supplement those of that past, including: detailed indicators of job security, the number and regularity of working hours, consumption of public services, compensation rights of certain transfer systems, total income of marginalized workers, social network support, and current trends in political participation.”* (2). For example, these abovementioned aspects are covered in the social quality perspective.

The social quality in Finland needs to be examined keeping regional aspects in mind. Finland represents the so-called Nordic welfare state/society: a social policy system, which leans into progressive taxation, universal benefits, high-level public services, and a wide-ranging compensation of income. (3) This has created one of the most even levels of income distribution in the Western industrialised countries and some specific policies that develop the equality between population groups.

During the recent decades, Finland has evolved industrially from a northern wood-processing industry into one of the leading information and communication technology (ICT) societies in the world (4). The economy has grown fast since the economic recession in the 1990s. The growth has been faster than in the United States or in Japan or in the European Union on average. These features make Finland internationally a unique ICT society, which utilises the elements of Nordic welfare state and social mixing. Furthermore, new markets and ways of life present both threats and opportunities for social quality.

For the third time during the last four years, the Geneva-based World Economic Forum (WEF) stated that Finland is the most competitive economy in the world. The assessment reveals that Finland's economy is well managed at the macroeconomic level, and scores very high in those measures that evaluate the quality of the public institutions. Furthermore, Finland has very low levels of corruption and the companies operate in an environment of widespread respect for contracts and the rule of law according to the report. The report notes that Finland has been running budget surpluses for several years anticipating the future claims on the budget associated with the aging of the population. (5.) Some economists, however, argue that the WEF survey paints an over-optimistic picture of Finland's economy where some negative factors in the system still persist. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), for example, criticizes Finland lagging behind in taxation reform needed to promote enterprise and employment. It is arguable, however, to promote enterprise just for meeting the requirements of economic competitiveness. The WEF nomination should therefore be interpreted only in terms of economy and not in terms of wellbeing or social quality.

The purpose of this paper is to present the data on the chosen indicators of the four conditional factors of social quality in Finland. These conditional factors are *socio-economic security*, *social cohesion*, *social inclusion*, and *social empowerment*. Each chapter includes data analysis according to the indicators and trends of the conditional factor in question. Furthermore, some most essential underlying trends are reflected in terms of Finnish national characteristics.

This report focuses primarily on the exploration of national circumstances, and describes the national situation with regard to the indicators of the four conditional factors. The data used for the indicators is derived in first instance from European databases in order to facilitate comparability as much as possible. If the international data did not reflect the national situation sufficiently or was missing, national (sometimes even regional) data were used instead of the European data. The cross-country comparisons are not possible in many cases due to the differences in societies, cultures and history. Some indicators include – mostly with regard to social empowerment – a qualitative description of the national situation. The indicator data is in most cases presented in a period from the late 1990s to the year 2003 in order to explore some of the recent trends.



## **2 Socio-economic Security**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Socio-economic security as a concept is easily confused with social security. In the Nordic Welfare State model the social and economic security aspects are absorbed through the society. Traditionally, the Nordic Welfare State is contrasted with continental and liberal welfare programmes and characterised by the high level of public and governmental intervention in the economy and social policy. Another specific feature of the Nordic Welfare State is distribution of the different forms of support to individuals rather than to families.

The Nordic Welfare State is also referred as "the Nordic Welfare Model" or "the Nordic Welfare Society" to split the idea of an omnipotent state. The related concept of a "People's home" is popular in Sweden. (6.) However, the recent criticism against the welfare state policies in Sweden, raise new questions about the ideal Nordic welfare state. Swedish professor and economist Stefan Fölster shows evidence of unexpected uneven distribution of income in Sweden (7). The most dramatic information reveals that some of the taxes make the poor even poorer and the seemingly equal wage policies treat the poor ones harder than the rich ones. These features should be examined in Finland as well since the policies resemble those in Sweden. Some implications of the widening gap between the poor and the rich ones have already been made in research reports.

The policy of the welfare state in Finland has built systems of public education, health care and day care. These policies grant free of charge or cheap access to education, health care and day care for all residents of Finland. The ideal of the Nordic Welfare State has however become less evident in the recent years. A traditional model may not exist anymore, but rather a mix of welfare state and free market ideologies. The public support for individual subsistence exists hand in hand with the private services. The efficiency of the future policies on providing the support and the services may be the most important factor in the near future. The ongoing changes in the environment also have an impact on the socio-economic security. The principal challenges are the globalisation of the operating environment and changes in the age structure of the population (8).

The indicators of socio-economic security in Finland differed slightly from the original list of ENIQ. This was partly because some of the data did not exist, or were inaccessible. Other reason for slightly diverging use of indicators was the issue of comparability. Some of the suggested indicators did not describe the Finnish national situation.

## 2.2 Financial resources

### 2.2.1 Income sufficiency

Finns spent the largest proportion of their income on housing and energy (29%) in 2001-2002. The next largest entity was transport (15%), which is typical in a sparsely populated country as Finland. 13% of income was spent on food supplies and non-alcoholic beverages and only about 3% on clothing and footwear. The median income group spent 14% of their income on food and non-alcoholic beverages, 3% on clothing and footwear, 30% on housing and energy and 4% on health (Table 1). The most significant contributor in the change of consumption pattern has been the growth of housing and energy expenditure. In 1990 housing was some 20%, whereas in 2002 it was almost one third. The proportion of housing and energy increases a bit the lower the income group. The growth of housing expenditure is a consequence of ever-growing prices and rents of dwellings. The situation is worst in the capital region.

**Table 1 Income spent on housing and energy, food and non-alcoholic beverages, health, clothing and footwear by household income in 2001–2002**

Consumption expenditure	% of disposable income by income quintiles				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Housing and energy	30.7	31.8	29.6	27.9	26.3
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	16.5	15.3	14.4	12.7	10.3
Health	3.2	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.3
Clothing and footwear	3.1	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.8
<b>Total</b>	50.3	50.6	47.3	43.7	40.4
Disposable income, EUR / year	13 446	20 106	26 361	31 951	50 266

Source: Statistics Finland, Household Budget Surveys 2001–2002

The differences in consumption expenditure between income groups have been increasing since the mid 1990s. One essential factor segregating the consumption pattern of the households was the status on the employment market. The consumption expenditure of the unemployed and other people outside the employment market (such as students) decreased during the whole 1990s and continues to decrease after the millennium in the 2000s. The consumption expenditure of the households in receipt of social assistance was about 70% of the consumption of other households in 1998, and in 2002 the corresponding percentage was about 65%. The retired population spent as much as 38% and the unemployed 32% of their income on housing and energy.

### 2.2.2 Risk-of-poverty

The risk-of-poverty-rate has slowly been decreasing in Finland since 1996. As in 1996 the risk-of-poverty-rate before social transfers was 23%, the corresponding figure in 2001 was 19%. However, the poverty rate after transfers has increased from 8% in 1996 to 11% in 2001. The risk-of-poverty-rate was slightly higher for women than for men. Surprisingly, the poverty risk of men before social

transfers compared to that of women has remained approximately the same during the last 3 years, but at the same time, the corresponding difference between men and women after the social transfers has increased. (ANNEX.)

The EU average (15 countries) risk-of-poverty-rate has remained unchanged during the last three years. The EU average risk-of-poverty-rate was somewhat higher than the corresponding rates in Finland. However, the risk-of-poverty after social transfers was more evenly distributed between men and women than in Finland. In the late 1990s and in the early 2000s the risk of poverty after social transfers of men compared to that of women decreased from 94% to 82%.

Biographical events on household level also affect the risk of poverty. The status of the household at the employment market and the employment are clearly linked with the risk of poverty. Nine percentages of households that confronted unemployment between 1997 and 1998 became poor in 1998. Only four percentages of the households in which the employment increased became poor in the following year. 17% of the poor households with unemployment stayed poor when no changes occurred in the employment between 1997 and 1998. Measured by income the probability of becoming poor of the households with decreased employment is double the probability of the households in which the employment increased. (9.)

Eight percentages of those households in which the number of ill/disabled people increased became poor in 1997–1998. The risk of poverty in the case of illness is corresponding to the risk of total population (7%). The health insurance seems to protect from poverty. (9.)

The changes of marital status in the risk of poverty are not drastic at the level of the total population. However, in divorced households 15% of the poor in 1997 stayed poor in 1998. Three quarters of the poor households that experienced marriage in 1997 were well off in 1998. Unfortunately, it seems that the marriage rate among the poor is lower than among other groups. Divorcing seems to be more typical in the poor households. 60% of the poor households that experienced divorce in 1997 were poor in 1998 as well. Only from two to three percentages of the well-off households in 1997 became poor in 1998 at any cases of marital changes (marriage, divorce, unchanged). Against some hypothesis, the divorce in the well-off households does not increase the poverty risk; on the contrary, it reduces it. (9.)

The increase in the number of children seems to enhance the mobility away from poverty. Only two percentages of those households that were not poor in 1997 and in which the number of children increased were poor in 1998. Four percentages of the poor households turned into well-off households as the number of children increased during 1997 and 1998. In addition, the proportion of the well-off households was largest in those households in which the number of children increased (93% vs. 86% in total population). (9.)

In 1997 and in 1998 the largest single group in the risk of poverty was those people who were retired at both time points. Retiring seems not to be a significant trigger for poverty nowadays. The probability to become poor after retiring is smaller than that of the total population. Furthermore, if a person is poor prior to retirement, the retirement allowance does not help the person to get away from poverty. Only two percentages of the poor households in 1997 was not poor in 1998 after retirement, whereas five percentages of non-poor households became poor after retirement. (9.)

However, it should be kept in mind that the picture of the subsistence of the retired persons is sensitive for the chosen threshold of risk-of-poverty. Before, when using the threshold of 50% of median income, there seemed to be no poor retired people in Finland. The level of the public pension raised the poorest pensioners above the 50% of median income. Some researchers mention interesting features about the classifications used in ECHP and Eurostat. Some results from the 60% threshold and the new equivalence scales (10) differ from the results of Luxemburg Income Study - research and the pension system studies (11). According to these studies, the pension security seems to function especially well in the Nordic countries. Instead, according to ECHP the "model" countries with well-functioning pension policies are countries such as Ireland (12).

### **2.2.3 Financial support**

Finland has two pension systems: The Statutory Earnings-Related Pension Scheme and the National Pension Scheme. The Earnings-Related Pension Scheme provides earnings-related and insurance-based pensions and the National Pension Scheme a complementary minimum pension on the basis of residence. These two pensions together form the total statutory pension. Private insurance companies manage the private employment pension schemes. (MISSOC 2004.)

Unemployment benefits consist of earnings-related allowance, basic allowance, and labour market support. Most employees are covered by their own sector's unemployment fund, in which case they are entitled to an earnings-related allowance. The allowance is paid by the unemployment fund. The Social Insurance Institution pays the basic allowance and labour market support. (MISSOC 2004.)

In 2002 social assistance was granted to 262 600 households (9% of all) and 429 800 individuals (8% of total population). Compared with 2001, the number of these households decreased by 0.6 per cent. Compared with the figures of the mid 1990s, the number and percentage of social assistance receivers have decreased significantly due the improved employment situation. In 1996 12% of the population received social assistance. (13.)

The most frequent income sources of those receiving social assistance in 2002 were housing allowance and basic unemployment benefit (labour market support/basic unemployment allowance). More than half (55%) of the households receiving social assistance had housing allowance and 47% a basic unemployment benefit among their sources of income. Eight per cent of the adult household members were in employment compared with 61% of the total working-age population. The

unemployment rate among the working-age population (percentage of the unemployed in workforce) was 9% in the country as a whole compared with 86% for social assistance recipients. (13.)

More than a quarter of people receiving social assistance were in risk-of poverty in 1999, but almost three quarters were not. Of those who were in risk-of-poverty, 20% had received social assistance, but as much as 80% had not received assistance. (Table 2.)

**Table 2 Risk-of-poverty and social assistance**

	At risk-of-poverty	Not at risk-of-poverty
% of social assistance receivers	27	73
	Receiving social assistance	Not receiving social assistance
% of people living below poverty-rate	20	80

Source: ECHP 1999; according to Lindqvist (14)

## 2.3 Housing and environment

### 2.3.1 Housing security

The majority of Finns (58%) own their own home, and a significant proportion (17%) live in government-subsidised rental units, 15% rent privately and one per cent enjoy a right-of-occupancy unit (Table 3). Despite the serious efforts, some 10 000 people are considered homeless in Finland. (See more in the Social Inclusion chapter). The situation is worst among male unemployed alcoholists who have the greatest risk to get homeless.

**Table 3 Dwelling units by tenure status of dwelling, %**

	1995	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Owner-occupied dwelling	61.6	60.0	59.0	58.0	58.6	57.7
Rented dwelling	27.4	30.2	30.8 <sup>1)</sup>	30.8 <sup>1)</sup>	30.6 <sup>1)</sup>	31.9
Official residence or employer-provided dwelling	2.3	1.7				
Right of occupancy dwelling	0.2	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1
Other form of tenure or unknown	8.5	7.4	9.4	10.1	9.8	9.3

<sup>1)</sup> Includes also official residences and employer-provided dwellings

Source: Statistics Finland, housing statistics 2002.

The Ministry of the Environment is responsible for housing administration in Finland. The Ministry also works to improve the quality of housing construction through controls and guidelines, and to improve the quality of the residential environment. The off-budget Housing Fund of Finland (ARA) finances and administers all State housing subsidies, except housing allowances. The Fund's essential functions include guidance on quality and control of building costs in State-subsidised housing construction and renovation projects. The State Treasury oversees State-subsidised loans for rented and right-of-occupancy housing, with responsibility for the paying of loans and the collection of repayments. The State Treasury also pays interest subsidies on housing loans directly to the lending institutions. Local

authorities decide which housing projects may be entitled to State subsidies, and some municipalities provide limited housing subsidies of their own. Local authorities are the largest owners of rental housing. They also provide land, infrastructure and other services for housing schemes.

**Table 4 The income profile of ARAVA tenants and homeowners (1999) annual income (Euros)**

	% homeowners	% ARAVA tenants
1 700–6 700	4	19
6 700–11 700	10	22
11 700–16 700	9	14
16 700–25 000	17	19
25 000–33 300	14	11
33 300–41 700	13	7
41 700–50 000	11	4
50 000–58 300	8	2
58 300 or more	14	2

Source: Ministry of the Environment (15)

A significant proportion of households in ARAVA units have a similar income profile to homeowners (Table 4). For instance, 15% of the ARAVA tenants have annual income above 33 300 Euros compared with 46% of homeowners in this income range. However, these similarities can be misleading if it is ignored, that different geographic areas and age groups are mixed together in these statistics.

Low-income households' housing expenditure is reduced through housing allowances, granted in the form of direct subsidies. Housing allowances may be granted for all forms of tenure, including owner-occupied homes and right-of-occupancy housing, as well as homes purchased using subsidised housing loans or bank loans obtained on the open market. Allowances may be granted to all types of household, including households with children, couples without children, single persons, and other communities living together in rented accommodation. The housing allowance assists 21%<sup>1</sup> of all Finnish households, providing them upward to 80% of shelter costs in excess of norm housing charges (adjusted to the households' size, type, location and the type of heating system in use in the dwelling).

According to some evaluations not only the sub-optimal functioning of the ARAVA-system is the reason for the tight market and the low production. The shortage of available building plots is probably much more important. This kind of housing market results in high prices, which also have consequences for an individual household. (15) According to the European Community Household Panel (ECHP 1996), Finnish homeowners as well as tenants experienced serious affordability problems in terms of regional dispersion. In growth centres, dwellers stress that housing allowance does not anymore correspond to the real housing costs, particularly in the Helsinki region. In 2003

<sup>1</sup> Includes Finns assisted by the Pensioner Housing Allowance and Student Housing Allowance

198 300 households applied for ARA-housing. The figure was 18 000 (9%) less than in 2002. Over 81 000 persons (41% of applicants) also received housing in 2003, as in 1999 35% received housing. Still in 2003 over 76 000 persons were queuing for dwelling. (16.)

### 2.3.2 Housing conditions

Only about two per cents of the Finnish families lived in the same household with another family. In 2004 there were about 28 000 families living in the same household with other families. About three per cents of families had any other people dwelling with them. (Population Statistics, Statistics Finland 2004.)

The average floor space in dwellings was 35 m<sup>2</sup> per person in 2000 (Table 5). The average room space has increased during the last decades. In 1980 households in 14% of dwellings were living in overcrowded conditions (more than one person per room, kitchen included). By 1999, that proportion had fallen to 5% (18). Eurostat presents slightly different figures for overcrowded households (Table 6), but interesting here is the division according to the risk-of-poverty. Overcrowding seems to be more common in the less well-off households. Furthermore, overcrowding seems to be more common in the EU on average than in Finland. Remarkable for international comparisons are also the size and the equipment of the dwellings. The average size was 86 m<sup>2</sup> in 2000. In a relatively sparsely populated country, like Finland, the average size of dwellings was not among the largest in Europe (17).

**Table 5 Occupancy rate of dwellings, floor space in square meters per person, 1996–2000**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Floor space m <sup>2</sup> /person	33.7	34.0	34.5	34.9	35.3

Source: Ministry of environment

**Table 6 Share of persons with household income less than 60% compared to median actual current income living in overcrowded houses**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
EU (15 countries)	17.9	17.5	16.1	15.9	15.9	15.7
Finland	9.1	8.4	8.1	11.1	8.1	10.0

Source: Eurostat

The housing amenities of the Finns have improved significantly during the last 30 years. In 1970, only 40% of households lived in dwellings with basic amenities (hot and cold water, sewerage, flush toilet, shower/bath or sauna and central/electric heating). By 1999, 90% of households had all amenities. However, some regional differences exist between rural and urban areas. In 1998, over 90% of households in urban municipalities had all the basic amenities. In the rural municipalities, only three quarters of the households lived in dwellings with all basic amenities at the same year. (Statistics Finland 1999) The proportion of households lacking at least one of the three basic amenities was significantly lower in Finland than the EU average (Table 7, ANNEX). Furthermore, similarly as the case was with the overcrowding, the households at risk-of-poverty are lacking more often at least one

of the three basic amenities. It should be kept in mind, that basic amenities in Finland include also central/electric heating, which is highly appreciated in the cold climate of Finland and the rest of Scandinavia, whereas Eurostat includes bath/shower, indoor flushing and hot running water as basic amenities. Therefore, the figures are not comparable in terms of *basic* amenities.

**Table 7 Households lacking at least one of the three basic amenities by income group, 1999, %**

	EU	Finland
All households	21	4
Households income less than 60% compared to median income	35	9

Source: Living conditions in Europe, Eurostat, 2003

### 2.3.3 Environmental conditions

The four studies of the International Crime Victims Survey (1989, 1992, 1996 and 2000) have shown Finland to have a relatively low overall victimisation rate. Only the rate of assault and sexual violence is higher in Finland than the average for Western European countries. Crimes included in the survey were less likely to be reported to the police in Finland than in Western Europe on average. (18.)

The recorded number of non-lethal assault offences increased in the mid 1990s about 30 per cent, but during the most recent years the number has relatively stable. The changes in the number of recorded offences were partially influenced by technical redefinitions of assault offences and police campaigns aimed at improving the security of public places. However, large-scale victimisation surveys indicate that the number of violent incidents resulting in physical injury increased between 1997 and 2003. This increase reflected increasing violent victimisation against women in occupational situations (mainly in health care and social sector), and the increasing victimisation against males in leisure related activities (in restaurants, for example). The results of the victimisation surveys therefore suggest that the increase of recorded assault offences is not a purely statistical artefact. (18.)

**Table 8 Selected types of crimes 1996–2003, per 10 000 population**

	Crimes against property	Traffic offences	Homicides and offences resulting bodily harm	Drug offences	Sexual offences
1996	570	267	53	14	3
1997	555	256	54	15	3
1998	572	268	55	17	3
1999	585	266	56	21	2
2000	604	279	59	24	2
2001	552	299	58	23	2
2002	556	299	59	11	3
2003	554	328	61	10	3

Source: Statistics Finland



In 1996 about one fifth of households experienced vandalism or crime in the housing environment (EHP EHP/UDB microdata 2001). Finland was at the average level of the EU countries of that time. Some other problems in the living environment include pollution of land, water, air and noise. There are not adequately published data on the effects of the pollution has on the households. Nevertheless, according to EHP 2000 data, 16% of households experienced excess noise from outside the house and 14% of households suffered from the noise of the neighbours. The percentage experiencing noise pollution from outside was one of the lowest in Europe. Furthermore, about 14% of the respondents suffered from pollution in their neighbourhood.

The municipalities have the responsibility to measure the air quality in population centres. At this moment, about 140 measurement stations are situated in the territories of 60 municipalities in Finland. These stations measure the changes in the local air quality and the influence that different sources of emission have on air quality. Air quality in Finland is generally high, so the local impacts of air pollution are fairly limited. During periods when certain atmospheric conditions prevail, particularly atmospheric inversions in the winter and spring, concentrations of pollutants in the air some of the largest Finnish cities may compare to those observed in cities of similar size elsewhere in Europe. (Ministry of Environment 2004.) There are no polluted areas that would influence the every day life in Finland.

Pollution loads have been widely reduced in Finland's inland waters and the Baltic Sea, thanks to progress in industrial and municipal wastewater treatment, but there is room for improvement in overall water quality. In addition, the Baltic Sea is shallow, and sensitive to pollution. The Baltic is virtually an inland sea, and is burdened by exceptionally heavy loads of contaminants originating from its extensive catchment area, which is home to more than 80 million people. (Ministry of Environment 2004.) The conservation of this valuable sea environment needs international action between all the coastal states.

According to a Public Opinion Survey (19) perceived street safety varied between the EU countries in 1996 - 2003. In 2002, 35% of the respondents perceived street a bit or very unsafe in the EU on average, in Finland the corresponding proportion was 19%. In Finland the proportion of those, perceiving street unsafe increased slightly from the 1996 level (from 13% to 19%). Also in the EU on average, the proportion of those feeling unsafe has increased somewhat from 32% to 35% between 1996 and 2002. Positive is, that in Finland more than one third (36%) perceived streets very safe in 2002.

According to the previous survey (19) 79% of respondents across the EU responded that they had access to a mobile phone in their household. In Finland, the proportion was 90%, the highest in EU (15 countries). A mobile phone brings certain security as people can quickly access help from police and other authorities with it.

## 2.4 Health and care

The local authorities are responsible for health services that are provided to all residents in the municipalities. Public health care services are supplemented by private health care services, for which the expenses are partly reimbursed by the General Health Insurance Scheme. The system of national health insurance, administered by the Social Insurance Institution supplements the public health care system by refunding some of the costs incurred by the customer in using private health care services and of medicines used in outpatient care. Under the Health Insurance Act, a daily allowance is payable in compensation for loss of income due to short-term illness.

Sickness allowance represents a compensation for income lost due to temporary incapacity for work. It is payable to persons between ages 16 and 64 who on account of an illness are unable to perform their regular job duties or any other similar job. The allowance depends on the applicant's taxable earnings, or in the case of self-employed persons, pensionable earnings under the Self-Employed Persons' Pensions Act.

In Finland the number of general practitioners and nurses per 100 000 population has increased since the mid 1990s. In 2002 there were approximately 263 practising physicians and 900 nurses per 100 000 inhabitants. (Table 9.) The figure of nurses was one of the highest in Europe. The numbers differ slightly from the Eurostat's figures (see ANNEX). The OECD's figures implicate the actual number of *practising* physicians and nurses. Data for physicians and nurses in the Public (mainly in municipalities and municipality leagues) Sector is based on yearly Personal Register with information on leaves and part-time working. For year 2000, there is an exact head count available based on register also for private sector. The private sector accounts about 5–10% of the total nursing labour force in Finland.

**Table 9 Number of practising physicians and nurses per 100 000 inhabitants**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Physicians/ 100 000 population	231.9	237.0	240.3	251.4	258.6	261.8	263.1
Nurses/ 100 000 population	697.5	724.6	728.7	760.0	824.1	862.4	900.8

Source: OECD

In Finland, the average response time for an emergency call is about 7 seconds at the emergency response centre. The goal is to call out the first helping authority already during the phone call, at latest in 90 seconds after responding the call. Rescue Services in Finland are organised according to specific risk areas. Operational readiness is measured with the time from emergency call to the arrival of the first rescue unit at the scene. This operational readiness was on average 8:45 (minutes:seconds) in Finland in 2003. The operational readiness varied between specified four risk areas, and it was on average between 6:26 and 15:10 in 2003. The time differences between geographical areas were rather large. In the Kainuu region, the average operational readiness was

almost 12 minutes, whereas in the capital region it was seven minutes thirty seconds on average. (Ministry of the Interior 2004.)

**Table 10 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
Finland	50.9	48.0	53.8	5.8
EU15	52.8	44.9	60.4	15.5

Based on Eurobarometer 52.1, Q17/D29; Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1, Q25/D29: if you had to go to the nearest hospital from home, how long would it take you? Less than 20 min, 20-25 min, an hour or more?

Approximately half of the population had the access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes in Finland in 2002. (Table 10). Surprisingly, the EU average was about the same. However, Finland is more sparsely populated than the most of the EU countries. The proximity to hospital seems to be more than 20 minutes more prevailing in the lowest quartile of household-equivalence income than in the highest quartile. (ANNEX.)

The time use survey in Finland provides information on the average hours spent on childcare. On average, Finns spent 20 minutes a day on childcare in 1999; women used 30 minutes, but men only 9 minutes. The daily time used on childcare by men has remained approximately the same during 1979–1999, but the time used by women has increased by six minutes. Upper-level employees used the longest time on childcare (women 31 minutes; men: 19 minutes) in 1999. (20.) However, total time used on paid care cannot be estimated. According to ECHP data, one in five men and a quarter of all women aged 16 years or more participated in unpaid care of children in 2000. Only five per cent of men and seven per cent of women participated in unpaid care of other people. According to Eurostat (33), parents who lived as couples with children spent one hour fifty minutes per day on childcare in 1999–2000; women spent about two and a half hours and men about an hour. Almost all of the women (96%) spent any time on childcare per day. About 70% of men living as parents in these families spent time on childcare. (33.)

## 2.5 Work

### 2.5.1 Employment security

Administrative procedures for individual notice and dismissal in Finland are performed according to the Employment Contract Act. For individual dismissal due to personal reasons, a statement of reasons and information on appeals procedures is given to the employee. The employee can request an in advance discussion with trade union. After the procedures either an oral or written notice is given. In companies with 30 or more employees, a notification to trade union representatives is given before the individual notice. After that a consultation on reasons and ways to avoid lay-off is performed. Invitation

to consultation has a 5-day delay. After that, the consultation may last for 7 days. Notice has to be in writing. (OECD Labour Force Survey 2003.)

Notice periods and severance pay for individual dismissals

The periods of notice are equal to all workers:

- 1) 14 days if the employment has continued for one year or less,
- 2) one month if the employment has continued for more than a year but not more than four years,
- 3) two months if the employment has continued for more than four years but not more than eight years,
- 4) four months if the employment has continued for more than eight years but not more than 12 years,
- 5) six months if the employment has continued for more than 12 years. (21.)

An employer who has terminated an employment contract without observing the period of notice must compensate the employee with full wages for the period equalling the period of notice. Whereas an employee who has not observed the period of notice is obliged to compensate the employer with a one-time payment equalling the wages for the period of notice. (21.)

No severance pays are paid in justified cases. The Employment Contract Act provides a comprehensive compensation system for cases of groundless termination of the employment relationship by the employer. The compensation amount that can normally be awarded to the employee in such cases is a minimum of three months' pay and a maximum of 24 months. The provision concerning the minimum amount of compensation will not be applied when the contract is cancelled only on production-linked or economic grounds. Neither will the minimum compensation be applied when the employer terminates the employment relationship. (21.)

Dismissal is considered unfair if it is done on the grounds of employee's illness or pregnancy, participation in a strike, union activities and political or religious views. Furthermore, dismissals for economic and personal reasons are valid only if employees cannot be reasonably, in view of their skills and abilities, transferred or retrained into other assignments. (OECD Labour Force Survey 2003.)

In Finland, a fixed-term/temporary employment contract always requires a justified reason in compliance with the Employment Contract Act, and the reason must be stated in the employment contract. The period of notice is subject to agreement but may not exceed six months. If a longer period has been agreed, a period of six months shall be observed instead. The employer's period of notice may be longer than the employee's period of notice. If the employment contract can be terminated without observing a term of notice, the employment shall terminate at the end of the working day or shift during which the notice of termination was served on the other party. A fixed-term employment contract terminates without notice at the end of the specified period or upon completion of the agreed work. If only the employer knows the time of termination, he must immediately notify the employee upon being informed of the time of termination. (Enterprise Finland, Ministry of Trade and Industry 2004.)

Temporary job contracts became more common in Finland as in some other industrialised countries in the 1990s. However, the increase in the proportions of employees with temporary job contracts has become steadier and even slightly decreased in during the early years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Table 11, ANNEX). The proportion of employees with temporary contract was 14% for men and 21% for women in 2002. The proportion of men with temporary contract was only two thirds of the proportion of women. The proportion of female employees with a temporary contract in Finland was also significantly higher than the EU average. The proportions of Finnish men with a temporary contract did not differ significantly from the EU average.

**Table 11 Proportion employees with a contract of limited duration (males and females) (temporary job contracts)**

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Finland	18.2	17.7	17.9	17.3
EU (15 countries)	13.2	13.4	13.4	13.1

Eurostat: Statistics in focus: Labour force survey principal results 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, EU and EFTA countries

There are no data on illegal workforce in Finland. According to recent estimations, there are as much as 30 000 illegal workers. According to the Ministry of Interior (2004), about 2 500–3 500 illegal workers are caught every year. Illegal workforce has more risks and significantly less labour market protection than the employers working legally do. Therefore, knowledge about illegal workforce could be a useful source of information for the authorities and could function as a preventive measure. The immigration to Finland is expected to grow in the coming years. Many illegal workers come to Finland with a three-month tourist visa.

## 2.5.2 Working conditions

In 2003, the typical amount of hours a full-time employee worked during a week was 40.6 hours in Finland. The number of hours has been quite stable. Between 1996 and 1999, the average number of hours increased marginally into 41 hours, but has been decreasing since 2000. The Finnish full-time-employees have a bit shorter working week in hours than the EU average. Although the European average has decreased as well, the length of the Finnish working week has been about one hour shorter than in the EU (Table12, ANNEX).

**Table 12 Hours worked per week of full time employment**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Finland	40.5	40.9	40.9	41.0	40.9	40.7	40.6	40.6
EU (15 countries)	42.1	42.1	42.1	41.9	41.7	41.6	41.4	:

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

In Finland 14% of women had in 1999 such daily caring activities that prevented them from undertaking the amount of paid work they would have usually done (Table 13). The proportion was

significantly lower in Finland than in the EU on average. The difference between men and women was only 9 percentage points in Finland, whereas in EU the difference between men and women was over 20 percentage points on average.

**Table 13 Percentage of the population whose daily caring activities (looking either after children or after adults) prevent them from undertaking the amount of paid work they would otherwise do, 1999**

	EU	Finland
Men	4	5
Women	27	14

Source: « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003, p.112

The number of non-fatal work accidents was significantly less in Finland than in EU on average. Furthermore, the number of fatal work accidents was less than half of the average EU figure. Only two fatal accidents per 100 000 employed persons occurred in Finland in 2000. (Tables 14 & 15, ANNEX.)

**Table 14 Work accidents with more than three days absence (per 100 000 employed persons), 2001**

	EU	Finland
Total	4 016	3 046
Age group under 25	5 653	3 144
Age group 45 and over	3 446	2 848

Source: « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003

**Table 15 Fatal work accidents (per 100 000 employed persons), 2001**

	EU	Finland
Total	5	2
Age group under 25	3	1
Age group 45 and over	7	3

Source: « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003

In 2001, there were 2.4 fatal work accidents per 100 000 employed persons in Finland. For EU (15 countries), the corresponding figure was 2.7. According to Eurostat these figures are not comparable with the ones of the previous year 2000. There were 2 973 work accidents with at least 4 days of absence per 100 000 employed persons in Finland and 3 841 in EU in 2001. (Eurostat 2004.)

## 2.6 Education

In Finland, a larger proportion of men have only lower secondary education compared to women. In 2003 13% of men aged 18–24 had highest a lower secondary education, but the corresponding proportion among women was about 9%. Since 1997, the proportion has been increasing for both men and women. In 1996, 7% of women and 9% of men aged 18–24 had at most a lower secondary education. Compared to EU15 average, the figures in Finland are significantly smaller. However, as the percentage of early school leavers increased in Finland between 1997 and 2003, in the EU the proportion of early school leavers decreased on average. (ANNEX)

The higher education funding in Finland is for the most part provided by direct public funding (63%), chargeable services (17%) and other outside funding (17%). Regular students at Finnish universities or polytechnics do not have to pay for tuition or for taking a degree.

**Table 16 Main activities one year after graduation from higher education, %**

Graduation year	Main activities one year after graduation (%)					
	Employed	Entrepreneurs	Postgraduates	Others	Unemployed	Unemployed After 2 years
1992	70.3	2.0	8.6	7.3	11.8	8.0
1993	72.2	2.1	9.4	6.4	9.9	13.8
1994	61.1	1.6	19.2	3.6	14.6	5.3
1995	77.6	1.5	7.5	7.2	6.2	4.5
1996	81.8	1.3	7.7	3.8	5.3	3.5
1997	83.2	1.7	6.0	4.9	4.2	3.5
1998	83.3	1.1	5.1	5.1	3.7	3.0
1999	84.5	1.2	4.2	4.5	3.5	2.8
2000	84.7	1.2	3.9	3.5	3.3	2.8
2001	83.5	1.1	5.2	3.2	3.7	:

Source: Ministry of education, KOTA -database 2004

The unemployment rates of the higher education-graduated were higher in the early 1990s than in the first years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century in Finland. Almost 85% of those persons that graduated in 2001 were either employed or self-employed in the following year. In 2002, about three per cents of those persons graduated in 2000 were unemployed, whereas in the first years of the 1990s, the proportion was significantly higher. Extensive statistics on vocational education does not exist. (Table 16.)

## 2.7 Trends and Reflection

In contrast to Eurostat's statistics, as regards the trends in poverty over the last ten years, the long-run perspective available from the national Consumption Expenditure Survey (CES) indicates a controversial result. Riihelä et al. (22) found that poverty rose over the period 1995–2001 for a very wide range of poverty lines. Furthermore, the composition of the poor has also changed significantly in the corresponding time. There is strong evidence that the unemployed households are the most vulnerable group of the population. It is obvious that not even these results tell the whole story about poverty.

The pace of work has increased since the 1970s, with a slight alleviation in the very recent years. Still, the threat of severe work exhaustion is predicted to grow. More than one third of the employees perceived their work to be very or quite mentally stressful (23). A new factor to emerge is the growth in number of people who are uninformed of coming changes in the workplace.

In the next 30 years, the proportion of the elderly population in Finland will rapidly increase. If the current trend of migration continues, even more regional differences will emerge. The population will

become concentrated in a few prosperous regions and growth centres, and the imbalance of regional population structures will grow. This will bring serious problems particularly for regions with the high migration loss in Northern and Eastern Finland. In such areas, the age structure will become highly skewed towards the older age groups. Regional age dependency ratios will also become wider. (24.)

The consequences of the ageing population and the migration can be serious in terms of social care services, elderly care in particular. If the services concentrate on the growth centres, the elderly in the sparsely populated rural areas should not be forgotten.

The average educational attainment of Finns has risen quite rapidly, and this trend will continue as age groups with lesser training leave the labour market. Education is said to suffer from inflation in Finland. According to an empirical research (25), the relative value of education has clearly decreased, particularly in the degrees of middle level. In order to achieve a certain position has every generation school oneself further. Even though the relative proportion and number of the advanced degrees has increased, the occupational status of these degrees has not maintained its level. Policies that aim to increase the proportion of the advanced degrees may create a shortage of skilled workers with a vocational degree. It is good to keep in mind that not all assignments or jobs require academic degrees.



## 3 Social Cohesion

### 3.1 Introduction

Cohesion in Finland is commonly understood as cohesion between geographical, residential, and industrial areas. It is a macro-level concept that is often confused with inclusion. Social cohesion whereas resembles the concept of social capital. Social capital refers to features of the communal structure of 'the social'. These features include for example social networks, integrative norms and trust. The social bonds and co-operation between people enable the emergence of trust between individuals and groups (26). The definitions of Putnam (27) and the World Bank (28) make social capital and social cohesion even more alike. Ritzen and others prefer to use the term 'social cohesion' instead of or with 'social capital'. They even give a definition to their social cohesion: "*Social cohesion is a state of affairs in which a group of people (delineated by a geographical region, like a country) demonstrate an aptitude for collaboration that produces a climate for change.*" (28) Their definition expects a change, which is not expected in the definition given by Berman and Phillips (29). They give a more positive and relative definition that leaves room for the existing processes.

At macro level, cities, towns and rural areas are facing a multitude of changes in Finland. The migration and structures of the regions create demands for vital network of different kinds of centres. Finland's Regional Councils and the Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities have presented their objectives and positions to Commission officials. As EU continues its enlargement, they emphasize the openness of the Union processes (30). The special characteristics of different areas and nationalities should also be marked in the future creation and interpretation of the indicators. Small countries like Finland should be enabled to preserve the special characteristics and features of culture. The coming Constitution of EU should be transparent and available for all citizens.

The Social cohesion in the Finnish society builds up to Finnish way of life. In addition to the basic family unit, the concept of the family may nowadays also extend to include other close relatives and friends. The wellbeing of parents and children, families and friends should also be contemplated. Finns have a very strong sense of national identity. This is rooted in the history, and particularly the wartime achievements and significant sport merits strengthen the identity. Today it is nurtured by the pride in Finnish expertise in technology. The senses of national and local identity are stronger than the European or global identities. The Finns are rather eager to help the others. Especially those who need the help most are supported. People trust each other, sometimes even too much. However, forms of discrimination are also detected in everyday life.

Some of the indicators of Social cohesion in Finland deviate slightly from the list of indicators presented by ENIQ. The main reason for the differences is that some of the indicator data were inaccessible or missing. Other close-related indicators were used in order to replace the ones missing or inaccessible.

### 3.2 Trust

The Finns tend to trust other people more commonly than in the EU on average. According to European Values Study 1999–2000, almost 60% of Finns stated that they mostly trust other people. The figure was one of the highest in Europe. (Table 17, ANNEX.)

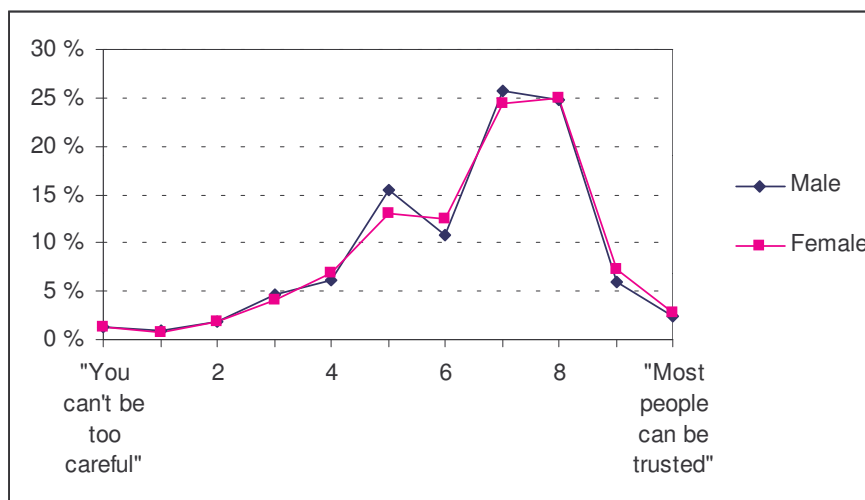
**Table 17 Trusting other people in Finland, %**

	"most people can be trusted"	"you cannot be too careful"
% of population	58	42

European Values Study: A third Wave (question 8) 1999/2000

Figure 1 presents the distribution of answers in the answer scale of trusting other people (European Social Survey 2002/2003). More than two thirds of the respondents answered between 6 and 10 in the scale that illustrates the positive attitude in trusting other people. There were no significant differences between men and women.

**Figure 1 Distribution of answers in the answering scale of trust in other people**



Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003

In Finland the explicit trust in Parliament or political parties is very weak. In a recent barometer (Eurobarometer 61, 2004) the results revealed that the respondents trusted the following institutions: police (88%), defence forces (89%), universities and polytechnics (68%), the judiciary (69%), media (including the press, radio and television) (69%), trade unions (53%), Parliament (58%) and the political parties (21%). In another survey (31), almost none at all "trusted very much" the political parties, and for almost 70% the trust was only minor. Common to all these results was that the trust in politicians as individuals is rare.

The mean scale of trusting different institutions in Finland varied between 4.8 and 8.0 in the scale, where “0” meant the distrust and “10” trust. The police got the highest and the politicians the lowest values. The Finns trusted most in the legal system and the police in Europe. (Annex.)

Almost in all studies, the active people that participate in organisations feel much stronger trust towards the institutions in the society than the passive ones. For example in 1994, only one fifth of all Finnish people trusted the Parliament, but for those Finns who were active in four organisations or more, the corresponding proportion was as much as 40% (32).

**Table 18 Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in life (quite or very important together)**

	Work	Family	Friends	Leisure time	Politics	Religion
% of population	89.2	96.2	95.2	90.0	19.8	45.1

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (question 1) 1999/2000

Almost all Finns felt that family and friends were important according to the European Values Study (2000). Leisure time and work were approximately of same importance to people. Religion was important for less than half of people, and politics was important for one fifth of the respondents. The importance of politics for the Finns was one of the smallest in the EU countries. (Table 18, ANNEX.)

### 3.3 Other integrative norms and values

#### 3.3.1 Altruism and tolerance

Volunteering can be seen as a factor of integrative norms and values. The Finnish men and women aged 20 to 74 years used 16 minutes a day in volunteering in 1999–2000. This was about 5% of the total free time. Average time per day was counted over the whole year. Volunteering was divided into two unities: Volunteer work and informal help. Volunteer work was defined as work done for an organisation and work directed to people via an organisation. Informal help to other households was more common than volunteer work, especially when looking at the proportion of people who spent any time during a day on this activity. Only about three per cents spent any time during a day on volunteer work, whereas more than ten per cents spent time on informal help. Informal help was most common in Estonia and Finland but there were only minor differences between the ten studied countries. (33.)

Table 19 presents the proportion of blood donators in the population in Finland and EU on average. According to Special Eurobarometer (2003), 39% of the Finns had ever donated blood in 2002. In EU on average 31% had donated blood. The figure does not tell us much about the readiness to donate blood, rather more about the opportunities to donate. In addition, the different cultures regard blood donation in different ways. (Table 19, ANNEX.)

**Table 19 Blood donation in 2002**

	EU	Finland
Donated blood, % of population	31	39

Source: Eurostat 2003, Eurobarometer 58.2, ("Ever donated blood")

There are large variations between EU Member States in the level of feelings towards foreigners in the countries. In Finland, only one person out of ten felt that there were too many foreigners in the country in 1997. Almost a half (45%) of respondents in the EU15 on average stated that there were too many foreigners living in their country. (Eurobarometer 48.) Furthermore, almost 90% (87%) of Finns stated that the people of another race were not disturbing in 2000. The EU level was also quite high, as 80% of respondents accepted the presence of people of another race. (Eurobarometer 53.)

Thalhammer et al. (34) reported that less than one tenth of Finns had an intolerant attitude towards minority groups in the country. In EU on average, 14% of respondents had an intolerant attitude towards minorities. (Table 20). 29% of all EU citizens agree that encouraging the creation of organisations that bring people from different races, religions and cultures together can improve relationships between people. In Finland, more than one third of the respondents (38%) agreed with this kind of development. The percentage of respondents who agree with encouraging the creation of organisations that bring people together increased in Finland from 26% in 1997 to 38% in 2000.

**Table 20 Intolerance, ambivalence, passive tolerance and active tolerance towards minorities, %**

	Intolerant	Ambivalent	Passively tolerant	Actively tolerant
Finland	8	21	39	32
EU (15 countries)	14	25	39	21

Source: Thalhammer et al. (34), based on Eurobarometer 2000 survey

As much as 12% of Finns did not want people with different race as their neighbours. In the sample of 32 European countries, the proportion was near the average (13%). Furthermore, more than one in five (21%) Finns did not want homosexuals as their neighbours. The European average was much higher, more than one third (35%). (Table 21.)

**Table 21 Unwanted neighbours, %**

	Different race	Immigrants and foreign workers	Muslims	People who have AIDS	Homosexuals	Gypsies
Finland	12.3	13.0	19.3	20.9	21.3	44.3
Total (32 countries)	12.8	15.9	19.7	30.9	35.1	40.2

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (question 7) 1999/2000 ("On this list are various groups of people. Could you please sort out any that you would not like to have as neighbours?")

According to Thalhammer et al. (34), one in five EU citizens (21%) agrees with the statement that people from minority groups should be encouraged to participate in the political life of the country. In Finland, the rate of agreement was slightly higher than the EU level (26%).

### 3.3.2 Social contract

According to Finns, the three most important reasons for people living in need were “part of the modern progress”, “Injustice in the Society”, and “Laziness or lack of willpower”. More than one third (35%) of Finns saw that people living in need was primarily just part of the modern progress (Table 22, ANNEX). The proportion of the population in favour of the theory was the highest of the 17 EU countries. Surprisingly, only 24% of Finns saw that the most important reason for living in need was injustice in the society. This reflects the fact that the majority of the population considers the Finnish society quite equitable.

**Table 22 Misfortune, laziness, injustice and the modern progress as the most important reason for living in need, %**

	Misfortune	Laziness or lack of willpower	Injustice in the society	Part of the modern progress	None of these
% of the population	14.8	23.0	23.8	35.3	3.1

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (question 11) 1999/2000

Solidaristic attitudes were inquired after in the Eurobarometer 56.1: "I would be ready to pay more tax if it was definitely used to improve the situation of the poor". To accept higher taxes for the sake of the poor was not only considered to be generous towards those less privileged than oneself, but also to reflect a sense of civic participation and social justice. According to Gallie and Paugam (35), almost half of Finns were ready to pay more taxes if it was to be used to improve the situation of the poor. The proportion was of European average level. These solidaristic attitudes were less common among the lowest income groups than in the population as a whole in Finland in 2001.

Nearly half (46%) of Finns were prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of the people in their neighbourhood or community. 72% were ready to give efforts to improve the conditions of elderly, and 73% for the sick and disabled. However, only 23% were ready to do something to improve the conditions of the immigrants in Finland. The Finns were more eager to do something to improve the conditions of elderly, sick and disabled than in the 32 European countries on average. Despite that, willingness to help the people in neighbourhood/community was not as common in Finland than in other participating countries on average. (European Values Study 1999/2000.)

According to European Social Survey (ESS) data, only about three per cent of Finns thought that it is not important to help other people and care for others well-being. About one out of ten men and one out of five women stated that for them it was very important to help other people and care for others well-being. More than 20% of men and women tend to help others once a week or more often, about one third once or several times a month, 36% less than once a month and only 10% never according to the ESS.

According to Leskinen (36), most Finns are willing to help others. In his study, altruistic orientation was found in 74% of the thousand people studied, while 36% showed egoistic tendencies. Individual

altruism was expressed by 90% of the respondents. According to Leskinen, the basic values in Finland and thus motives for helping are changing towards a more individualistic direction instead of the communality and solidarity of old days. When helping others, it is increasingly important for the helper to gain also something from the process. That is why the expression 'individual willingness to help' was used. Leskinen's dissertation, as well as many previous studies, provides evidence about the fact that, the poorest people help others the most. In national investigation, the results from poor rural areas of Northern and Eastern Finland are always relatively the best and the rich cities come last. This can partly be explained by the fact that in the rural areas lives more elderly people that have old ideals of solidarity and community. (36.)

Domestic activities are gender-specific. Women do housework and caring, men do maintenance and repair work. Women performed about 63% of all domestic work in Finland in 1998–2000. Women spent less than four hours per day on domestic work, while men spent slightly more than two hours. Almost all women (98%), but slightly fewer men (90%) did some domestic work every day. The largest differences between men and women were in ironing and construction and repairs. (Table 23.)

**Table 23 Division of domestic work between men and women, % of total time spent by men and women**

	Domestic work total	Ironing	Construction and repairs
Men	37	0	84
Women	63	100	16

Source: Niemi et al. (33)

### 3.4 Social networks

Almost a half of Finns belonged to Lutheran or Orthodox Church or another religious organisation. According to European Values Survey 1999–2000, the proportion is the second highest in EU right after Sweden. Furthermore, almost one third of Finns belonged to some trade union. The percentages in trade union membership were highest in the Northern and Central Europe and lowest in the Southern Europe. Almost a quarter of Finns belonged to a social network that included sports or other recreation (24%). Surprisingly, only about 7% of Finns belonged to political parties or groups. Similarly, the proportion of members of political groups was quite small all over EU. (Table 24, ANNEX.)

**Table 24 Participation in different social networks, %**

Religious or church organisations	47.0
Trade unions	32.3
Sports or recreation	23.7
Education, arts, music or cultural activities	14.3
Social welfare services for elderly, handicapped or deprived people	10.4
Voluntary organisations concerned with health	9.2
Youth work	6.7
Political parties or groups	6.6
Third world development or human rights	5.9
Professional associations	5.6
Conservation, the environment, ecology, animal rights	4.4
Women's groups	4.0
Local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	2.6
Peace movements	1.3
Other groups	11.8

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (question 5) 1999/2000

According to European Social Survey 2002/2003, about 65% of Finnish men and 57% of women were members in non-governmental-organisations. The proportion was slightly above the EU average. The variation between the proportions of NGO-members in different European countries was wide, but in all countries, men were more active members than women (ANNEX.)

There were about 119 000 associations (23 per 1000 people) registered into the register of associations in 2003. Of the 119 000 associations about 60% were estimated to be active. According to the National Board of Patents and Registration of Finland, Sweden and Finland have the most members of associations per population in the world. (National Board of Patents and Registration of Finland.)

Almost 70% of Finns met socially with friends, relatives or colleagues once a week or more often in 2002–2003 (European Social Survey 2002/2003). It was significantly more common for females to meet once a week or more often socially than males (Table 25, ANNEX).

**Table 25 Frequency of meeting socially with friends, relatives or colleagues**

	Males	Females
At least once a week	65.7	71.7
Once or several times a month	27.6	24.0
Less than once a month	6.7	4.2

Source: European Social Survey Data 2002/2003

According to Eurostat, about 81% of the population aged 16 and over talked to neighbours at least once a week in Finland in 1999 (Table 26). Socialising with neighbours in Finland was about the same frequency as in the EU on average.

**Table 26 Percentage of the population aged 16 and over talking to neighbours, 1999**

	EU	Finland
At least once a week	81	79
Once or twice a month	10	12
Less than once a month or never	9	9

Source: « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003, p.110

### 3.5 Identity

Almost all Finns sensed national pride. According to Eurobarometer, 96% of Finns were very or fairly proud of being Finnish in 2003. The proportion was significantly higher than in EU15 on average. Sense of European pride was significantly less than the national pride in Finland. The Finns also sensed more commonly pride of being European than in the EU15 on average. (Table 27, ANNEX.)

Surprisingly, Finnish women tend to be more proud on their nationality than men do. As 69% of women were very proud of being Finnish, only 61% of men felt the same. There were only minor regional differences in the sense of national/European pride in Finland. The population in Eastern Finland seemed to be more proud of their nationality than the rest of the population. (Eurobarometer 60: Finnish national report.)

**Table 27 Sense of national and European pride: proud of being Finnish/ European, %**

	National pride	European pride
Finland	96	73
EU15	85	61

Source: Standard Eurobarometer 60: full report (categories very and fairly proud taken together)

Despite the sense of national and European pride, only 40% of Finns saw themselves both as Finnish and Europeans in 2003. The national identity in Finland was more on the national side than in the EU (15 countries) on average. More than half of Finns saw themselves as Finnish only. (Table 28.)

**Table 28 European and National identity: % national, European, or both**

	National only	National & European	European & National	European only
Finland	57	40	2	1
EU15	40	47	7	3

Source: Standard Eurobarometer 60: full report



About half of Finns saw that they belonged first of all to locality or town, whereas almost one third expressed that they were first of all part of Finland as a whole. The percentages matched approximately the average of the countries participating European Values Study. (Table 29, ANNEX.)

**Table 29 Sense of regional identity in Finland, %**

	Locality or town	Region of country	Country as a whole	Europe	World as a whole
% belonging first of all	48.9	12.3	31.2	3.2	4.4

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (question 67) 1999/2000

### 3.6 Trends and Reflection

The deep economic recession in early 1990's and the consequent high rate of unemployment had influence on social cohesion in Finland. However, it did not lead into a significant increase in social inequality. The Finnish experience can be used as a proof that in order to succeed in today's global competition it is not always necessary to sacrifice all the traditional values of solidarity. Rather it seems that the high levels of trust and social capital that can develop in a homogenous society may provide a suitable environment for the creation of dynamically developing network enterprises. (37.)

People in the Scandinavian countries tend to be most tolerant towards immigrants in Europe. About half of the Finns stated that the diversity in terms of race, religion and culture adds to Finland's strengths. More than two thirds (67%) tend to agree with the statement that minorities enrich the cultural life of Finland. (34.) However, this can be criticised because the number of the immigrants is so minor compared to most other European countries.

As well as the disintegration of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, the enlargement of the EU will influence on the Finnish social cohesion. On 1 May 2004 the EU gained some 75 million new citizens. The recent simulations by the EU Commission have shown that the new member countries will achieve additional economic growth of around two per cent per year. Also, the expected migration from central and eastern European countries as a result of the wealth gap could be much smaller than is often feared. Finnish labour markets will experience some flows of labour, particularly from Estonia, but these flows will be small compared to the immigration of labour in the Central Europe. However, the new market situations may influence on the labour policies of corporations and in that way affect the cohesion and solidarity of the citizens. In addition, the coming Constitution of European Union has many aspects concerning social cohesion in the Finnish society.

The use of Social cohesion indicators in this report differs slightly from the ENIQ proposed list of indicators. Some of the indicators were inaccessible and some of the data were missing. Some indicators did not reflect the national situation at all, and were therefore removed.



## **4 Social Inclusion**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Social inclusion in Finland is based on equal treatment for all citizens and open decision-making. Furthermore, the Finnish values include respect for the security brought by the family and the immediate community. A sense of caring and responsibility for neighbours are the foundation underpinning our social inclusion.

In order to promote democracy, Finland supports the development of functioning and transparent political and economic institutions (e.g. free elections), political participation, the evolvement of civil society and freedom of speech and expression. In addition, the local forms of democracy are supported. These enable people to participate in decision-making concerning them at grass roots level. Human rights, constitutional government, rule of law and democracy are further promoted by supporting networking and co-operation between parliamentarians, the public authorities and NGOs. According to the recent Corruption Perceptions Index of Transparency International (TI) (<http://www.transparency.org>), the Finnish public officials and decision-makers are not open to bribery, and Finland got the fifth consecutive title of the least corrupt country of the analysed 146 countries. The Nordic states top the world for being the least corrupted countries. Finland, Denmark, Iceland, Sweden and Norway were among the eight least corrupt nations in the world according to 2004 TI index.

The indicators of Social inclusion presented for Finland differ slightly from the ones presented by ENIQ. Some of the defined indicators from the list were rather self-evident in Finland. In addition, the indicator of "Involuntary part-time or temporary unemployment" seemed rather difficult to handle. It remains ambiguous, what could voluntary unemployment be. Furthermore, public primary health care is indeed public in Finland. This means, that it is accessible indeed for all staying in the country. In addition, school participation rates are high in Finland (100%). The definition of people in need is also quite difficult. This topic is just under research in Finland. Access to public transport system depends on the need for public transport. It is not useful as an separate indicator. It is however useful to contemplate the need for public transport. The future needs are referred in the section of trends and reflection.

### **4.2 Citizenship rights**

#### **4.2.1 Constitutional and political rights**

In 2003, two per cent of the Finnish population was not Finnish citizens. The proportion has slowly been increasing from 1.3 per cent in 1995. In 2003, there were no significant differences between the proportions of men and women non-citizens. (Statistics Finland 2004.)

According to the Ministry of Justice, the voting activity of Finnish citizens has decreased in the past twenty years. Only exception is the presidential elections, which has maintained a voting percentage of about 80% of all voters. For parliamentary elections, the percentage has decreased from 81% in 1983 to 70% in 2003. For local government elections, the drop has been even more drastic. As in the local government elections of 1980 the percentage of voting was 78% the corresponding figure in the latest elections in 2004 was only 59% with approximately 4 015 000 people with the right to vote (77% of total population, 99% of the population aged 18 years or more<sup>2</sup>).

The right to vote in 2004 local government election had those EU, Iceland and Norway citizens who turned into 18 years of age latest in the last day of election and had a home municipality defined in the Local Government Act at least 51 days before the last Election Day. Furthermore, other foreign citizens who had a home municipality defined in the Local Government Act in Finland for two years also had the right to vote. Finnish citizens living permanently abroad did not have the right to vote in the local government elections. (Local Government Act.) About two percentages (1.8%) of the population with the right to vote were foreign citizens in the 2004 local government election.

#### **4.2.2 Social rights**

The main objective of the Finnish pension system is to ensure that the whole population is covered against the social risks caused by old age, disability and death of a family provider. The statutory pension system comprises an earnings-related pension scheme and a national pension scheme. The whole population get at least the national pension. Only exception makes those foreign citizens who have not stayed in Finland five years. The purpose of the national pension scheme is to guarantee a minimum pension to all residents in Finland. It is accorded to the pensioners who receive no other pension or whose earnings-related pension is less than about 1 000 EUR a month. The exact limit depends also on the person's marital status and place of residence. The amount of the national pension is proportional to the length of residence in Finland. The system is compulsory to the whole population. The earnings-related pension scheme provides earnings-related and insurance-based pensions and the national pension scheme a complementary minimum pension based on residence in Finland. These two pensions together form the total statutory pension of a pensioner. In addition, the pensioner could complement the statutory pension with voluntary pension insurance, but this has become more common in Finland only recently. (38.)

Women's income in relation to men's income has remained the same during the last 10 years. According to Statistics Finland, in 1990 the average income of women as a proportion of men's income was 80%. This means that women got 20% less paid for their work than men. In 2002, the average income of women was 82% of men's. The average income difference was largest at the Central government-employed-sector (81%), and the most equal employers in terms of income were the municipalities (84%). (Table 30.)

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<sup>2</sup> The percentages refer to 2003 population.

**Table 30 Women's income as percentage of men's income**

	Total (%)	Private sector (%)	Central government (%)	Municipalities (%)
1985	79	76	80	83
1990	80	77	83	83
1995	82	81	81	85
2000	82	83	81	85
2001	82	83	81	84
2002	82	83	81	84

Source: Statistics Finland 2004

Eurostat offers slightly different information about the gender pay gap. The gap in Finland in 2001 was 17% according to Eurostat – which was approximately at the same level as in EU (15 countries) on average (Table 31, ANNEX). The gender pay gap—the percentage how much lower women's incomes are—also highlights the still existing significant difference.

**Table 31 Gender pay gap**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Finland	:	:	17	18	19	19	17	17
EU (15 countries)	16 <sup>(s)</sup>	17 <sup>(s)</sup>	16 <sup>(s)</sup>	16 <sup>(s)</sup>	16 <sup>(s)</sup>	15 <sup>(s)</sup>	16 <sup>(s)</sup>	16 <sup>(s)</sup>

Source: Eurostat: free data, employment

### 4.2.3 Civil rights

Free legal advice is universal for all citizens. In addition, foreigners, including non-residents, stateless persons and refugees, can apply for free or reduced-cost legal advice or aid in court on the same basis as Finnish citizens. Almost 70 public legal advice offices are situated in municipalities in the six provinces of Finland. Offices are permitted to provide a legal advice service, either alone or jointly with a neighbouring municipality. Legal aid is granted based on the applicant's income, expenditures, wealth and maintenance liability. (Ministry of Justice.)

According to Eurobarometer survey (2003) only one percent of respondents experienced discrimination on grounds of race or ethnicity in Finland. The EU 15 average was three percentages. The figure is dependent on the size of the minorities in the different countries; therefore, the figures should be interpreted cautiously.

The Swedish-speaking population in Finland at the end of 2003 was almost 290 000, which was about 6% of the total population (Statistics Finland 2004). Finland adopted a new Constitution in 2000. Alike the former, the new Constitution states that Finnish and Swedish are the national languages of Finland. According to the Constitution, the public authorities are required to provide for the cultural and societal needs of the Finnish-speaking and Swedish-speaking populations of the country on an equal basis. Municipalities in Finland can be Finnish, Swedish or bilingual, but a person can officially have only one first language. A municipality is bilingual if at least 8% or 3 000 people speak the local

minority language, whether Swedish or Finnish. Finnish Parliament has 200 members, and the in the most recent parliamentary elections in 2003 16 Swedish speakers were among those elected (8%). The Swedish People's Party has two ministers in the Government appointed in 2003. (Parliament of Finland 2004.)

During the 1990s, about 25 000 Russian-speaking persons moved to Finland. The number of Russian speakers in Finland at the end of 2003 was 35 000 (0.7% of the population) of whom 26 000 (0.5% of the population) were Russian nationals (Statistics Finland 2004). In 2002, Finland was criticised by the European Commission against Racism and Intolerance. ECRI observed that Finland had not paid sufficient attention to the position of the Russian-speaking minority in the country, and that there appeared to be discrimination in some fields, including employment, housing, and access to public services. (39.)

The Sámi are an indigenous minority living in Finland, Sweden, Norway and Russia. It is estimated that the current number of Sámi in Finland is about 7 500 or 0.15% of the Finnish population. In 1996, the new Sámi Parliament (*Sámediggi*) was constituted through an Act of Parliament as a representative body for the Sámi. It is the successor to the Saami Delegation, also known as the old Sámi Parliament that was established in 1973. Elections to the Sámi Parliament are held every four years; the latest were held in September 2003. The Sámi Parliament consists of 21 Sámi members and 4 substitutes elected by the Sámis themselves. In connection with the revision of the national electoral laws in 1989, the possibility was considered of guaranteeing the Sámi a seat in the Finnish Parliament. The idea was rejected, but an obligation on the Government and Parliament to hear the Sámi on all matters of special concern to the latter has been introduced into Finnish legislation. (40.)

The Roma (gypsies) population is approximately 10 000 or 0.19% of the Finnish population. It is only possible to give an estimate as the Finnish law on the protection of personal data prohibits the registration of sensitive information indicating e.g. ethnic origin. There have never been any Roma members of parliament in Finland although some Roma have been elected to municipal councils. The Roma community is not politically organised. The Advisory Board on Roma Affairs (*Romano Saakengo Rakkibosko Skokka*), has been operating since 1956 under the auspices of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health. It has developed into an advocating body that looks after the interests of the Roma minority and has acquired the position of an expert on Roma issues. (41.)

#### **4.2.4 Political networks**

According to the Council of Europe (2002), 34% of municipal councillors were women in Finland in 2002. About 38% of the candidates were women in the latest municipal elections in 2000. Furthermore, 27% of legislators, senior officials and managers were women in 2002. A half of professionals were women as well. Women occupied 44% of minister posts in 2002. The proportion of women ministers was the second highest in the Europe after Sweden. (Council of Europe 2002.)

The proportion of women members of Parliament has increased in Finland in the last few decades. The record was achieved in the 1991 elections: 77 women out of 200 (39%). In 2003 elections 74 women were elected, 37% of the members of the house. Seventeen ministers, eight of them women (47%), were appointed to the Government formed after the 2003 elections. (Table 32.) The proportion of women in national Governments and Parliaments averages slightly more than 20% across the EU. The proportion of female members in national Parliaments and the proportion of ministers are highest in the Nordic countries. Both sexes have to have at least 40% representation in working parties, councils, boards etc. nominated by local, regional or state authorities or political decision-making organs in Finland.

**Table 32 Women in Government and Parliament, %**

	Government (%)	Parliament (%)
Finland (2004)	47.0	37.0
EU (2000), national	23.0	20.6

Source: The Finnish Government and Parliament 2004, Eurostat's thematic statistical sheets: Unit Equality for Women and Men (02/2002)

### 4.3 Labour market

Long-term unemployment rates as a proportion of the total population have been slowly decreasing during the last six years in Finland (Table 33, ANNEX). In 1997, the long-term unemployment rate was about five percentages, whereas in 2003 the rate was only a bit more than two percentages. The level of long-term unemployment in Finland has been at the same level as in the EU 15 on average.

**Table 33 Long-term unemployment, 12 months or more, %**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Finland, total	:	:	:	:	:	4.9	4.1	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.3
EU (15 countries)	3.6	4.4	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.4	4.0	3.5	3.1	3.1	3.3
Females	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Finland	:	:	:	:	:	4.9	4.0	2.8	2.7	2.3	2.0	2.0
EU (15 countries)	4.6	5.4	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.4	4.7	4.2	3.7	3.6	3.7
Males	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Finland	:	:	:	:	:	4.9	4.3	3.2	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.6
EU (15 countries)	2.9	3.7	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.7	3.3	2.9	2.7	2.7	2.9

Source: Eurostat: free data, social cohesion

In Finland, the gender difference in long-term unemployment rate is slightly different compared to the EU 15 average figures. Long-term unemployment has been more common in males than in females in Finland from the year 1998. As in EU, the difference has been vice versa. (Table 32, ANNEX.) One reason for this is the structure of the unemployment in Finland in general: Males are more commonly unemployed than females. Furthermore, the social problems following or leading to unemployment are more common in males including, alcoholism, severe economic problems, and exclusion. In Finland

about a quarter of the unemployed were long-term unemployed as well (OECD 2004). In EU on average, the corresponding figure was more than 40%.

Involuntary part-time work has decreased in Finland since 1995 (Table 34). Still in 2003, almost a third of the persons employed part-time declared that they only worked part-time because they could not find a full-time job. The figures in Finland were significantly higher than in the EU on average. The composition in part-time work is slightly different in Finland compared to EU average. Part-time employment is in most European countries more common than in Finland, especially in women. The incidence of part-time employment in women was only 15% of total employment in 2003, as the EU-15 average was 30%. (OECD 2004.)

**Table 34 Persons employed part-time involuntarily<sup>3</sup>, share in total part-time employment, %**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Finland	43.7	40.9	37.6	33.4	37.9	34.7	32.8	31.5	30.3
EU (15 countries)	18.8	19.1	19.6	18	16.9	15.8	14.8	14.1	:

Source: Eurostat

## 4.4 Services

### 4.4.1 Social and health services

According to Rintala & Heikkilä (42), the availability of the social services was perceived as easy most commonly in the sparsely populated countryside. More than 80% of respondents perceived that the availability of the social services was easy in the countryside. At urban circumstances, the corresponding proportion was 69%. The access to health services was perceived slightly differently. Health services were easily available according to almost 70% urban respondents, whereas among the respondents from the countryside, the corresponding figure was 57%. (42.)

The Primary Health Care Act and Decree place the main health care duties on the municipalities. Municipalities provide public health care services for their own inhabitants, i.e. people living permanently in that municipality according to the definition in the Municipality of Residence Act. School or student health care must also be provided for the pupils and students at educational institutions in the municipality. Occupational health care must be provided for the employees at workplaces in the municipality and entrepreneurs operating there.

<sup>3</sup> Persons working involuntary part-time are those who declare that they work part-time because they are unable to find full-time work. The distinction between full-time and part-time work is made based on a spontaneous answer given by the respondent.



The statutory health care services are:

- Health care advice
- Medical care and rehabilitation
- Transportation of patients
- Dental care
- School health care
- Student health care
- Screenings
- Specialised medical care
- Occupational health care
- Mental health services

(Primary Health Care Act, 1972.)

The outpatient care visits have remained at the same level during the past nine years. The Finns visited on average five times per person in outpatient care. The average visits at general practitioner were approximately two times per year. There were no large differences between the years 1995–2003. (Table 35.)

**Table 35 Healthcare use**

	Outpatient care visits/ person	Visits at general practitioner/ person
1995	4.6	2.0
1996	4.9	2.1
1997	4.9	2.1
1998	4.8	2.1
1999	4.8	2.0
2000	4.9	2.0
2001	4.8	1.9
2002	4.8	1.8
2003	4.8	1.8

Source: Rintanen, H. & Saukkonen, S-M. (43)

#### 4.4.2 Housing

There were about 8 200 homeless single persons (0.2% of the population) and about 420 homeless families in Finland in 2002 (16). Homelessness has increased slightly from the late 1990s and early 2000s level of 10 000. The current Government Programme 2001–2003 may have affected to housing policy, and ensured a more socially and regionally balanced housing market.

Homelessness is a problem in growth centre areas, primarily the Helsinki metropolitan area, and mainly affects men. About 80% of all single homeless persons live in the six growth regions of Finland (44). According to Ministry of Social Affairs and Health a significant percentage of the homeless are unemployed men who have lost their homes, for example as the result of a divorce. As the service

structure has shifted towards out-patient treatment, homelessness is an increasing risk, for example for mental health rehabilitation patients who face increasing difficulties in obtaining rented housing. Of all homeless families, about a quarter had an immigrant background. (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health.)

Almost a quarter of households queuing for ARAVA rental housing were at urgent need of housing in 2002 (Table 36). Urgent need of housing is in question as the existing rental contract has been terminated or the present dwelling is lacking amenities or is in poor condition.

**Table 36 Households at urgent need of housing, % of ARAVA applicant households**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
% of all households	22.6	24.5	24.5	26.7	24.5	26.7	26.2	24.2

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, National Action Plan against Poverty and Social Exclusion for 2003-2005

Despite the good quality of housing statistics, little is known about the waiting time for social housing. There is no comprehensive research on average waiting time. It can, however be said, that the longest queuing times are experienced in the growth centres, especially in Helsinki region.

### 4.4.3 Education

Basic education in Finland is provided free of charge for entire age group (100%). Basic education is governed by the Basic Education Act of 1998. Comprehensive school lasts nine years and children are summoned to school in the year that they become seven years of age. If it is impossible for a pupil to attend school for medical or other reasons, the municipality of residence is obligated to arrange corresponding instruction in some other form. (Basic Education Act 1998.)

**Table 37 Population with a degree, % of 15 years of age or more**

	Population with a degree, %			Population with a degree in higher education, %		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
1999	58.5	57.9	59.2	22.9	24.3	21.5
2000	59.4	58.9	59.9	23.3	24.8	21.7
2001	60.2	59.8	60.6	23.7	25.3	22.0
2002	61.0	60.8	61.3	24.2	25.9	22.4

Source: Statistics Finland 2004

The educational level of the Finns has increased during the last four years (Table 37) indicating that more people have access to different educational careers. On the one hand, more males have a degree than females, but on the other hand, females have more commonly a degree in higher education than males do. About a quarter of Finns have a degree in higher education. One reason for the popularity of the higher education is that it is provided by 20 universities and 29 polytechnics all over the country.

The Finnish Government largely owns and funds the universities. University studies are available to all, in principle, as Finnish universities do not charge term fees. The Finnish universities and polytechnics have starting places for about 65 per cent of each age class. The Finnish Government's aim is to ensure that increasing numbers of people take higher education.

**Table 38 Female entrants and degrees in higher education, %**

	1993	1998	2003
Entrants	55.6	54.4	55.9
Master's degree holders	55.1	57.5	59.9
Doctor's degree holders	36.6	39.7	46.5

Source: Ministry of education, KOTA -database 2004

The majority of students in the higher education are women (Table 38). The proportion has even increased during the last ten years. Surprisingly, there are still noticeably less female doctor's degree holders than male.

There were 108 600 applicants for universities in Finland in 2003. About 28 000 (26%) were admitted, and 21 000 (20%) started their studies. The percentage of admitted students has slightly increased since 1999 when the percentage was 24%. (Ministry of education, KOTA -database 2004)

#### **4.4.4 Care and financial services**

Social welfare services are provided regardless of residence if circumstances so demand, for instance when those studying or working in a municipality need such services. Waiting times for care services vary considerably in different regions. According to a working group proposal (45), health care patients must be assured of immediate contact with a health care centre, and their need for care must be assessed by a health care professional within a maximum of three workdays of their contacting the health centre. In specialized medical care, the joint municipal board of a hospital district must assess the need for care within a maximum of three weeks of receiving a referral. Any necessary medical care must be provided within three months, or at the very latest, within six months.

The hospital districts (25 in Finland) got EUR 25 millions as a supplementary government subsidy in 2002 for the unloading of the examination and treatment queues. According to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, the waiting list reduction made progress variously in 2003 within the municipalities that make up the country's hospital districts. Some made a start already in 2002, while others began to tackle queues fully from the beginning of 2003. In addition, some hospital districts have managed to reduce waiting lists using only their own employees, while others have sought outside help. (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health 2003.)

The Finnish Asiakastieto Oy registers personal credit data on private natural persons. Persons that have records in the credit data are not able to get loans from banks. The processing of personal credit

data is strictly regulated in the Personal Data Act. Six per cents of the total population (341 500 persons) had a new payment default entry in 2003. The total number of private persons entered into the credit data file in May 2004 was 298 000. The number of persons with a payment default has decreased in 1998–2002, but after that, a minor increase can be detected. (Asiakastieto Oy 2004.)

Men had more payment defaults than women did. In 2004, about 64% of those persons having payment defaults were men. About six per cents of persons aged 18–35 years had a record in their credit data, whereas almost eight per cents of persons aged 36–50 years had a payment default record. At greatest risk are those persons that have gone through personal economic failure during the economic recession in the early 1990s. In case of a need of financial assistance, the local social service centres run by the municipalities provide financial assistance.

#### **4.4.5 Other services**

The length of the Finnish road network was 78 000 kilometres in 2001. Almost two thirds (64%) of roads were paved in Finland. (IRF: World Road Statistics 2003.) The road network provides access even to the most remote areas of the country. The Finnish National Road Administration (Finnra) maintains all public roads. Public transport corresponded for 17% of the total amount of passenger kilometres in domestic traffic, whereas Passenger cars corresponded for 81% of the total passenger kilometres. The share of public transportation has decreased slightly since the mid 1990s. In 1996 about one fifth of total passenger traffic was public transportation. (Statistics Finland 2004.)

There are approximately 28 000 registered sport facilities in Finland in 2004. Most popular facilities for physical activity are walkways (which are not registered in the 28 000), outdoor recreation routes, roads, fitness and ball game halls and swimming halls. The number of registered sports facilities is slightly more than five per 1 000 population. (National Sport Databank, LIPAS 2004.)

The Finns are regionally rather equal in terms of sport facility supply thanks to the public right of access. In the largest cities there are more versatile facilities, but in the countryside the outdoor activities based on the public right of access are more popular. The most important providers of structured physical exercise are sports clubs. There are approximately 7 000 sports clubs in Finland. The municipalities provide about one quarter and the private sector about one tenth of the structured physical exercise services. Other service providers include for example schools. (Ministry of Education 2003.)

There were approximately 4 cinemas per 100 000 population in Finland in 2001. More than one third (37%) of municipalities had a cinema in 2001. The share of municipalities with at least one cinema has slightly decreased since the early 1990s. (Statistics Finland.) In 2003 there were about 11 600 theatre shows, which is more than 22 per 10 000 population. Different

orchestras had more than 1 700 shows in 2003, about three per 10 000 population. (Statistics Finland 2004.)

## **4.5 Social networks**

Contacts with neighbourhood and friends were in part handled in the chapter of Social cohesion. The aspect of inclusion has not been stressed sufficiently in the research covering relationships between people and social networks. To measure the risk of social isolation, Gallei and Paugam (35) used a subjective social isolation index from the information available in the 2001 Eurobarometer 56.1 survey. As is the case for most indexes, the interpretation should be done cautiously.

The following four variables were used to represent social contact:

- “I have felt lonely at certain moments in the two last weeks”
- “It’s hard to have friends where I live”
- “I feel left out of society”
- “I feel isolated from my family”.

Index varied considerably from country to country. The index of subjective social isolation was the highest in Finland by comparison with other countries. Especially strong was the difference between the lowest income population and the total population. On the other hand, in all the countries without exception, a significantly higher value of this index was found for those with the lowest incomes by comparison with that for the whole population. (35.)

According to a barometer on the elderly people (46) about one third (36%) of the respondents, aged more than 60 years, felt themselves lonely in 1998. This proportion was 42% four years before in 1994. The feelings of loneliness were clearly more common among those elderly people who were dissatisfied with their lives, had poor health, and had plenty of free time. The feeling was also more common among those elderly aged more than 80 years.

The feeling of loneliness was also surprisingly common in the younger age groups. According to Kunttu & Huttunen (47) about one third of college students felt themselves lonely every now and then. About four percentages of young adults felt themselves often lonely and met their friends less than once a month.

## **4.6 Trends and Reflection**

Some form of discrimination can be seen in the wage policies. Social and civil rights should be fostered in order to maintain the equality between different population groups. According to the working condition study in 1985, the mean income of women was 78% of men, when over-time compensation and part-time work was left out in the analysis (48). Vartiainen (49) came up with the

following results in his study almost 20 years later: The difference between men's and women's mean income from full-time work was still 20% in advantage of men. These results occur partly because of the occupational selection. However, if the contemplation were centred to the employees with the same age and education in similar occupations in the same branch, women would still get about 10% less income. These kinds of results vary on different fields of occupation.

According to Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (50), the key problem of unemployment in Finland is that it is structural of nature. Supply of labour by field of production, vocational competence and productivity are not in balance with the demand of labour. The reforms in unemployment security are based on a need to increase the employment rate and to develop the system so that it operates as actively as possible even at times of structural unemployment. At the same time, unemployment benefits must secure sufficient income even during prolonged unemployment. In 2004, the unemployment rate has not been decreasing as rapidly as predicted. Furthermore, repeated unemployment increased still in the late 1990s (51). As a consequence, there are more new periods of unemployment beginning per year than during the deepest recession in 1994. At that time, an unemployed person was unemployed on average once per year. In 1999, the average had risen to 1.4 periods of unemployment per unemployed per year. Short-term employment relationships are most common in female-dominated sectors

Another problem that prevents people from realising all their possibilities is temporary work against their will. After the economic recession in the first half of the 1990s, the proportion of the temporary workforce rose until the year 1997. After that it has been decreasing, but was still about 17% of the employees in 2001 (52). The decrease accounted only for men. Particularly problematic branches are those dominated by women, as teaching, care, and social branches, since about one third of employed women operate in those branches.

The Ministry of Environment set up a working group in 2000 in order to create means to reduce homelessness in Finland. According to the working group projections, the amount of homeless will increase because of the tightened housing market with about 500 people every year, unless new means are developed. Some of the steps presented in the programme for reducing the homelessness have already been taken. For example, the norms in housing support have been raised particularly in the capital region in order to cover the fast growing rents. Furthermore, the quality standards for the homeless rooming residences need to be developed. Some of the residences are old and uninhabitable. The needs of the homeless are taken into account already in the production of the houses. Small and affordable apartments are produced, even though the average size of the apartments in Finland is already quite small.

Due to the ageing of population, the development of public service transport will require further wide-ranging cooperation. Customer-oriented approach should also be emphasised. As customers' functional capacity weakens, the need for assistants, among other things, will increase. Providing the possibility for independent moving postpones the need to rely on special social services paid by the

municipality. New means for organising, compiling statistics and providing financing of service transport are required on the national level. According to a recent survey of the Ministry of Transport and Communications (53), the users of service transport were satisfied with the provided services. Mobility had become easier and increased for two-thirds of travellers. Service transport routes and schedules received the most negative feedback. However, most travellers were also satisfied with these. Service transport has been able to offer public transport services to completely new user groups and new areas. (53.) Remote areas have received service transport from private companies that cooperate with the municipalities and regions. Service transport supports the everyday life and inclusion in the society.





## **5 Social Empowerment**

### **5.1 Introduction**

Social empowerment was methodologically the most challenging to handle of the four conditional factors of social quality. This was partly because it was a new concept that had not been studied extensively yet. Another reason for the challenging task of creating indicators was the nature of the conditional factor. Some indicators of Social empowerment are not the purest types of indicators with a statistical background, but rather descriptions of the national circumstances or systems. Some of the indicators are measurable and some of them just lay the setting for the other indicators. The indicators of Social empowerment in Finland have rather many differences compared to the original list defined by ENIQ. Some indicators were left out because there was no data or the data were inaccessible. For some indicators new research projects need to be established. That was not possible within the limits of this project. At some cases, indicators were replaced with a close-related indicator.

In spite of extensive research on empowerment, there is still not a clear definition or operationalisation of the concept. Consequently, empowerment cannot only be seen as an individual phenomenon, but it must also be investigated interrelated with the social setting it appears. Eklund (54) studied community-level empowerment in health promotion. Since health promotion includes many theories of empowerment, she used different elements from different fields of research to create indicators in order to measure citizen participation and community empowerment. Eklund's study concluded that in order to measure community empowerment all methodological tools need to be adjusted for the setting in question. This suggests that the comparisons between the indicators are sensible only in national setting.

The issues the Social empowerment indicators illustrate are extremely important. Access to knowledge and information should be free for all for the most part. In order to get information people should not have to make efforts that differ from their every day life. The labour market policies should be accessible in a way that ensures the employees to participate in the decision-making that concerns them. In addition, the ascending and the development in the personal career should be enabled for all. Ways to participate in the labour market and to gain employment should be available for the unemployed persons. These policies should include a mutual responsibility for the provider of the services and for the person in need.

Labour market policies play a major role in combining the work and family life in a way that does not interfere with the family dynamics. Families need support in carrying out their role in raising children nowadays, because of the changes in the society, working life and in the family life. Families must be given the opportunity to spend more time together. The balance between work and family life is essential in terms of empowering families.

Participation and freedom of expression are also issues of social empowerment. Without a chance to influence, the citizens become passive also socially. Improvements to provide sufficient space and time for interaction and participation are made in accordance with the law. New ways to participate are developed. Traditional marches and demonstrations become more exceptional as the possibilities of information and communication technology are utilised.

## **5.2 Knowledge base**

According to a longitudinal study the socio-economic background and educational level predicted the income in 2002. The educational level was the strongest predictor and even stronger than the length of education. If the prediction was made in the childhood the strongest predictors would be socio-economic status and talent. (55).

The PISA assessment mean scores of the participating countries of reading literacy showed that the 15-year-old students in Finland performed the highest reading literacy performance among the OECD countries (56). The number of poor readers in Finland is remarkably low international standards, yet every young person with deficient reading skills has risks being marginalised from further schooling, cultural activities and active citizenship (57). Furthermore, in mathematical literacy, the proportion of weak results among the youth was considerably lower in Finland than it was on average across OECD countries. Only 8 per cent of Finnish students performed among the least proficient 16 per cent of students in the combined OECD area (56).

The educational opportunities are equal in Finland. The differences found between schools in Finland were among the smallest in the OECD. While these differences accounted, on average, for 36 per cent of the variation in students' reading literacy performance in OECD countries, in Finland only 5 per cent of the variation occurred between the schools (56). Adult literacy rate (15 years of age or more) in Finland is more than 99%, as in most European countries (UN, Human Development Report 2004).

The circulation of newspapers in Finland is one of the highest in the world. The Norwegians and the Japanese tend to buy most newspaper in the world, respectively, 705 and 653 sales per 1 000 population each day. Finland comes third with 532 followed by Sweden with 509 sales per thousand population. (World Association of Newspapers 2004.) The circulation per 1 000 population in Finland is the highest in EU. The major newspapers have even enlarged their accessibility by providing the consumers with internet access. Press freedom in Finland is highly respected. A new press freedom Act, prepared in co-operation with media organizations, was scheduled to enter into force in the beginning of 2004. The law was revised to exclude proposed requirements that Internet service providers monitor content. More than 200 newspapers are published in the country, and the printed press is subsidised. Although most newspapers were at one time connected with a political party, more than 90 percent are now officially unaffiliated. In broadcast media, the state runs four of the five national radio stations and two of the four national terrestrial television stations. (58.)

For the print media the organ responsible for the ethics is the Council for Mass Media. The main task is to treat complaints received from the public and to monitor journalistic ethics and good journalistic practice. For the public service broadcasting of the Finnish Broadcasting Company YLE there is an Act on Broadcasting Responsibility that regulates the responsibilities of YLE and its programming.

At spring of 2002, 75% of both men and women were able to use a computer, whether at home, work, school or somewhere else. This frequency decreases steadily with age. Only a fraction of those aged less than 20 years had no access to a computer, whereas a small minority of those aged over 60 had anything to do with a computer. With the exception of the two oldest age groups, women usually have better access to computer than men do. (Statistics Finland 2003.)

More than a half of the Finnish population had access to internet in 2002 (Table 39). Internet penetration was 67% on May 2004. The proportion has increased from the 14% of the mid 1990s very rapidly. The European average proportion of internet users was significantly lower than in Finland. In the EU, however, the penetration rate was 45% in 2002–2003. According to the Ministry of Education, there were 968 public libraries in Finland in 2003, which is 14% less than in 1991. All the municipalities had at least one public library. All libraries have been connected for years to the internet. Already in 2000 more than two thirds (68%) of the municipal libraries provided free access to the internet also for the customers (59). In addition, more and more cafes and other public places provide free access to internet.

**Table 39 Internet users, %**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Finland	13.7	16.8	19.4	25.4	32.3	37.2	43.0	50.9
Europe	:	:	:	:	:	:	18.0	23.7 *)

\*) 2002–2003

Source: ITU 2004

All Finnish municipalities have established their own home pages on the Internet by 2004. The first sites were opened in 1994 and the last in June 2004. Most of the municipalities provide information on services in Swedish and English also on their web pages. According to the Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities, 60% of Finnish municipalities intend to increase their e-services in the near future. Furthermore, Suomi.fi is the portal for public sector services in Finland. The portal has information relevant to everyday life divided in different subject areas, such as social and health care, culture and services.

## **5.3 Labour market**

### **5.3.1 Control over employment contract**

There are several unions organised into three large confederations: the Central Organisation of Finnish Trade Unions (SAK), the Finnish Confederation of Salaried Employees (STTK), and the Confederation of Unions for Academic Professionals in Finland (AKAVA). The employers are represented in the national collective bargaining by several organisations. Collective agreements apply to nearly all employees in Finland, regardless of where they live or work or whether they are members of a union or not. These agreements allow some limited scope for local settlement of certain issues. However, such local agreements require a genuine meeting between the employer and employees. The Finnish collective bargaining system is based on collective agreements between national organizations, i.e. sector-level federations, although some employers conclude company-level agreements. (European Employment and Industrial Relations Glossaries.)

Finland has one of the highest rates of trade union membership in the western world, with almost 80% of employees being organised. The trade union density was 76% and the collective bargaining coverage about 93% in 2000 (OECD Employment Outlook 2004). According to a study published in 2003, the highest overall organising rate, 87 per cent, was found in public services with a large female majority. The organising rate was 84% in industry and 55% in private services. As many as one fifth of union members were not wage earners or unemployed but students, pensioners or self-employed. The number of union members in the labour force (wage earners or unemployed) was about 1.6 million in 2001. (60.)

### **5.3.2 Job mobility**

The attendance rate in adult education in Finland was, on average, almost twice that of other EU countries during the late 1990s. Almost 1.8 million people aged 18–64 years in Finland took part in education or training arranged specifically for adults in the year 2000. The figure represents some 54% of the population in this age group. This represents almost a doubling of the rate within 20 years and a growth of about 6 percentage points since 1995. Almost 60% of women in the corresponding age group took part in adult education and training, whereas for men the corresponding proportion was slightly below 50%. (61.)

Access to adult education is significantly lower among the unemployed than among the employed. In 2000, those adults who were employed took part in adult education and training more frequently than those who were unemployed or outside the labour force. About 63% of employed persons aged 18–64 years compared with 37% of unemployed and 36% of persons outside the labour force, participated in adult education and training in 2000. (61.)

The most common source of finance for courses related to the respondent's work or profession was the person's employer. This applied to almost 80% of such courses, whereas 16% were paid for by the respondents themselves and about 5% received government support. The socio-economic category with the highest participation in adult education and training was that of the upper white-collar employees, more than four out of every five having taken such courses in 2000. (61.) Gallie and Paugam (35) report the results of the Eurobarometer 56.1 survey in which people were asked: "Did you receive any education or training in the last five years, which was paid for by your employer or former employer?" Slightly more than one quarter (26%) of employees in Finland had not received employer training during the last five years in 2001. In 1996, the corresponding figure was 29 percentages. The proportion was the lowest of the 15 EU countries in 1996 and second lowest after Denmark in 2001.

Over half a million Finns aged 18–64 years attended forms of adult education and training connected with their hobbies and free time or out of general interest in the year 2000. It corresponds to 18% of the population of the same age. Two thirds of the age group participating in other forms of adult education were women. (61.)

According to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (2003), in addition to young and long-term unemployed, people with disabilities have been prioritised when using government employment appropriations for employment purposes. New rehabilitative work activities, the joint service experiment of employment administration and social welfare, supported employment activities were launched with an amendment of the Social Welfare Act. The Act of Rehabilitating Work Activities entered into force in 2001. The Act has offered opportunities for the long-term unemployed to enter the open job market. In 2002, a two-year joint service experiment was launched by national employment and social welfare administration and the Social Insurance institution of Finland. The aim of the experiment is to promote the employment, life management skills and rehabilitation of the long-term unemployed.

Any resident of Finland aged 16–64 years is entitled to a rehabilitation allowance for the period when rehabilitation constitutes an impediment to work. The aim of rehabilitation affording entitlement to rehabilitation allowance is continued participation in working life or entry/re-entry into working life. In 2002, the rehabilitation expenses of the Social Insurance Institution amounted to EUR 266 million, of which EUR 49 million was paid in rehabilitation allowance. Rehabilitation measures were financed for 2.5% of the population aged 16–64 years (87 000 persons) in 2002. (8.)

### **5.3.3 Work / family life balance**

Combining work and family life is an important issue not only because it concerns a large part of the population (about 50%) but because it is also one of the key elements of equality. The problems of balancing work and family life is not only a concern of people with children – they are actively present in the lives of most employees. (62.) Reconciliation of work and family life is possible with the help of

some specific policies in Finland. All parents have the right to take parental leave, and fathers resident in Finland have the right to a separate paternity allowance for 6–18 working days. In addition to these entitlements, the fathers are entitled to paternity allowance for 1–12 workdays immediately after the end of the parental allowance, if the father has had parental leave for at least the final 12 weekdays of the parental allowance period. (63.)

All children under seven years have the right to municipal day care or, alternatively, their families can receive financial support for private day care or home care for their children. The compulsory education begins at the age of seven. (63.) Partial care allowance is a benefit available to parents of a child under three years of age who work up to 30 hours per week while looking after their child. Partial care allowance is not paid at the same time as partial parental allowance (parents of a small child who are working part-time are entitled to a partial parental allowance) or to parents who receive child home care allowance while looking after their child. (The Social Insurance Institution of Finland.) More than 80 000 families with children got financial support for arranging the care of their children in 2003. The figure was approximately 14% of all families with children.

Most (59%) Finnish employees were able to decide at least for half an hour's span the time of their working hours. Flexible working hours were most common in public sector, in which about two third of employees could influence their daily working hours. More than ten per cents of Finnish employees were working from home in 2003. Teleworking was most common in the private sector, where as much as 13% were working from home. About 11% of the employees of a public utility were able to work from home. (23.) New ways to organise the work and family life balance are needed in order to face the challenges of the working life. The balance has considerable influence on the well-being of families.

## **5.4 Openness (supportiveness) of systems and institutions**

In Finland, a Referendum committee has started to run for referendum. The committee consists of a group of people from political parties' youth coalitions and NGO's. The committee started the referendum campaign by writing ten theses for the referendum of the Constitution of EU. The campaign is part of the European Referendum Campaign (ERC) (URL: <http://www.european-referendum.org/>). In a poll conducted by provincial daily newspaper "Aamulehti", eight Finnish Members of Parliament said they are for a referendum -- given certain conditions. The other half would not set up a referendum. (Aamulehti 21.4.2004.)

In Finland, the co-ordinating authority holds statutory public hearings, whilst non-statutory public participation is organised by the developer in co-operation with the co-ordinating authority. The hearings relate mostly land use, resource development and environmental impact assessment (EIA). (Environmental Impact Assessment Centre.) According to a Canadian public participation research (64) there were 24 municipalities with municipal referendums in 1991–1998 in Finland. Three of these

were citizen-driven and the voter turnout ranged from 30–80%. The Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities surveyed municipalities early in 1998 and found a wide range of methods being used to inform citizens and obtain their views including municipal web pages and email.

The system of employee representation and participation in Finland is different from that in many other EU Member States in that there is no system of compulsory works councils. However, two acts determine staff representation and participation in companies. The Act on Cooperation within Undertakings and the Act on Personnel Representation in the Administration of Undertakings. The former aims to promote exchange of information between employers and employees, to improve the negotiation culture and to increase workplace democracy. It normally applies to private companies that employ at least 30 people, but it also applies to smaller firms in cases where the employer is considering termination of at least 10 employment contracts. The Act does not apply to the public sector, though it can apply to state enterprises by means of a separate decision. However, there are other, similar rules on cooperation between public sector employers and employees. (Eiro Online 2004.)

According to Eurobarometer 2003 -survey 70% of Finns were very satisfied (7%) or fairly satisfied (64%) with the way democracy works in Finland. The proportion was significantly higher for fairly satisfied than in the EU on average (46%). In the EU on average 54% of respondents were satisfied (very+fairly satisfied) with the national democracy. In 2001, the proportion of very satisfied or fairly satisfied with the way democracy works was only 62% in Finland and 59% for the EU. The reversed trend between Finland and EU is remarkable and interesting.

## **5.5 Public space**

The Constitution of Finland provides for the freedoms of assembly and association. A public meeting and a public event shall be however arranged peacefully, without compromising the safety of the participants or others and without infringing their rights. When arranging an event, care shall be taken that the assembly does not cause significant damage to the environment. (Assembly Act 2001.)

The police may prohibit the public event, if other measures are not enough and if it is evident that:

1. The event is illegal or its arrangement essentially violates this Act or the orders issued by virtue of this Act
2. Order and security cannot be maintained in the event
3. The arrangement of the event will endanger health or cause damage to property
4. The arrangement of the event will cause significant inconvenience to bystanders or damage to the environment.

Under the law on assembly, police and organizers of events have the right to order supervisors to search participants if there is reason to suspect those taking part in an event are in possession of

dangerous objects or substances. The amendment extended the list of banned objects to "masking devices" in 2004.

The Government and the municipalities finance major part of the arts and culture. According to Eurostat, the annual public cultural expenditure per capita was 175 euros in Finland in 2000. The ratio of the expenditure (current and capital, net) to the GDP was 0.75%. 27% of the total public expenditure (909 M€) was direct expenditure of the Government in 2001. The Government transferred about 14% of the total expenditure to the municipalities that provided 42% of the total public cultural expenditure. Three largest cultural domains by the public expenditure were libraries (30% of the total expenditure), performing arts (25%) and interdisciplinary (15%). (65.)

According to the Eurostat time use survey (33), about six per cents of Finns spent any time on entertainment and cultural activities daily in 1999–2000. Entertainment and cultural activities included going to the cinema, theatre, concerts, exhibitions or museums, or sports events. Furthermore, visits to leisure parks, zoos, etc. were also included. The Finns spent on average six minutes per day on these cultural activities. The most time in Europe was spent in Belgium and Germany. In comparison with the other participating countries (9 countries), the Finns spent slightly more than the European average on entertainment and cultural activities.

## 5.6 Personal relationships

The municipalities receive state subsidies for organising statutory health care and social services. The Finnish Slot Machine Association (RAY) finances part of the activities of NGOs and certain foundations. There are about 70 national disability organisations in Finland. They also provide services that are purchased by municipalities. The share of national expenditure on functional disabilities has been slowly decreasing during the last eight years (Table 40). The changes in the age structure of the population as well as economic and employment trends are reflected in social expenditure. The expenditure on disabilities was three per cents of GDP in 2003, and has remained relatively unchanged in the first years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. (63.)

**Table 40 National expenditure on functional disabilities, % of total expenditure on social services**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002*	2003**
% of total expenditure	14.3	14.3	14.0	13.8	13.5	13.3	12.8	12.4

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (63)

It is estimated that 5% of the Finnish population, i.e. 250 000 people, have a significant disability or functional hindrance. Key issues in funding of disabled services are the division of funding responsibility between the central government and municipalities, and whether the resources are sufficient. (63.)



The proportion of children aged less than seven years in day care outside home has decreased after the increase between 1995 and 1999 (Table 41). Especially the proportion of children in public day care has decreased. The state subsidy reform and the realisation of the unconditional right to day care in Finland 1997 have increased the proportion of the completely private child care services. Since the reform has the Social Insurance Institution of Finland paid private day care allowance for parents that do not exercise their rights to get a place provided by the municipality.

**Table 41 Children in day care institutions/family day care, % 0–6 years old**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Public day care	49.3	50.0	50.3	47.8	48.0	47.8	47.7
Private day care	2.2	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.5
Total	51.5	52.9	53.5	51.1	51.5	51.4	51.2

Source: STAKES 2004

According to the National Board of Education about 50 000 first and second form pupils and third to ninth form pupils in special education will participate in morning and afternoon activities in accordance with the Basic Education Act in 2004. The aim is to extend the activities to include 100 000 children and to develop the quality of the activities. According to the act, morning and afternoon activities are to be organised from the beginning of August 2004. (National Board of Education 2004.)

## 5.7 Trends and Reflection

It has been suspected that the new information technology might marginalise or exclude many people from society because of their "lacking skills". Information networks are claimed to create some new form of social interaction, which one can only participate through the networks or virtual environments. On the other hand, there is a growing concern for network addicts who become alienated from real social relationships because they "live" in an artificial world with virtual relationships. There is also a positive aspect of the information technology in terms of social participation. The Internet with its different forms of interaction (chat, IRC etc.) may lower the threshold of some individuals to take part in social life and other activities. Furthermore, Finland has started to utilise ICT as recourse to maintain services in remote areas and in that way helping to maintain the quality of living in the countryside. New places to access the Internet are established actively, and it will help the people in the remote localities to participate and gain information.

Traditional values and a sense of community seem to break down under the pressure of everyday routines, with the result that parents may lose the ability to stimulate their children's creativity. The issue includes many actors. First, the busy working life with growing demands of human efforts must be sensitive enough in order to recognise the social needs of the employer as well.



## 6 National, regional, or local initiatives on four conditional factors of Social Quality

### *Information technology gives new opportunities to promote active citizenship*

The available forms of direct participation have not been used as much as expected. It appears that elected municipal officials, public officials preparing decisions and citizens often find it difficult to take advantage of the new forms of participation. However, the project takes account of these matters to encourage civil participation and to reinforce a functioning democracy. In 2003, the Ministry of the Interior set up a project for developing local democracy in accordance with the Government Programme. The project aims to establish the opportunities to coordinate representative democracy with the market orientation and outsourcing of functions assigned to municipalities. (Ministry of the Interior 2003.)

Supporting people's computer literacy and access to information plays an essential part in building the information society but it is still not enough. Giving people meaningful content and the opportunities to use computers are also needed. In the city of Tampere, the information society is being developed through eTampere project. Part of the project is "Netti-Nysse", which is a bus with computers and internet accesses. The purpose of this mobile service is to encourage the residents to start using the computer and the Internet and give them the initial guidance to be able to do that. Basic instruction is free of charge. The bus can be booked for clubs, societies, groups of neighbours or any group of people who wants to learn to use the computer and the Internet.

According to the Ministry of Justice, the voting activity of Finnish citizens has decreased in the past twenty years. In order to improve the influence of citizen activity the Finnish government has implemented a policy programme for citizen activity in 2003 (66). The policy programme includes several goals that are summarized in the following:

- A strong, appealing and well-functioning representative democracy
- A high level of participation in all nation-wide and municipal elections by all population groups
- Improved opportunities to participate in societal decision-making, including decision-making in the EU for individuals and NGOs
- Strong commitment in the society for all citizen groups
- Securing the growth of youth into active and critical citizens
- Efficient utilization of interactive communication methods in order to enhance the participation opportunities of citizens and NGOs
- Realizing the local democracy also in the changes of municipal democracy and new circumstances at local level
- Providing political parties with means to exercise politics that affect the citizens
- Efficiently and appropriately organized administration of democratic issues in the government. (66)

The Finnish government's citizens' forum was made an official web service of the government in June 2003. In addition, a participation and eDemocracy web site for the young people has been developed ([www.valtikka.fi](http://www.valtikka.fi)). Citizen–Government dialogue and the transparency of the legislative and political processes are the primary running forces behind these activities. The Otakantaa.fi forum belongs in the family of public web services attached to the Suomi.fi web portal that covers the entire Finnish public sector and administration. At otakantaa.fi forum, the citizens can comment on the Governmental projects and initiatives. The conversations and comments are then directed to the civil servants responsible for the projects and the comments are attached as a part of the preparation documents. Both Otakantaa.fi and Suomi.fi are run and edited at the Government Information Management Unit, in the Ministry of Finance.

Electronic Frontier Finland ry (EFFI) was founded in 2001 to defend active users and citizens of the Finnish society in the electronic frontier. EFFI influences legislative proposals concerning e.g. personal privacy, freedom of speech and user rights in copyright law. In addition, EFFI makes statements, press releases and participates actively in actual public policy and legal discussion.

#### *Civic communication on the Internet*

“Mansetori” (in English “Manse Market”) is a local community website which contents are produced by neighbourhood and citizens' groups in the town of Tampere. Manse Market offers to these voluntary content providers free web hosting, training in web publishing and equipment to produce their information. Manse Market also offers a platform for citizen discussion on issues concerning their everyday lives. The town and the University of Tampere contribute financial and technical support for the project. (<http://www.mansetori.uta.fi>.)

Manse Market consists of three independent but closely interrelated websites: Manse Communities, Manse Forum and Manse Media. Manse Communities is a website for local neighbourhoods and various communities. Each of these virtual communities provides a forum where people can exchange views and information on issues of their choice. (<http://www.mansetori.uta.fi>.)

Manse Forum offers a space for civic discussion and public debate on important or controversial local issues. Manse forum plays an active role to create exchange that is more open and interaction involving city officials, politicians, economic actors and residents and thus promote local democracy. Manse Media is the journalistic section of Manse Market, offering news and stories from the region and contextualising information for discussions taking place on the other sites. Neighbourhood reporters write all the stories. (<http://www.mansetori.uta.fi>.)

#### *The quality of services – a challenge for the service providers*

Ministry of Social Affairs and Health started in 1999 a research to explore the possibilities of language minorities to get basic social and health services in their own languages (67). Special attention was

paid to the problems of the parts of the population speaking other official languages in Finland; Swedish or Sámi. The study noted that it was difficult to get social and health care services in one's own language despite fact that the constitution and language laws clearly secure the patient's or client's rights to have services in her/his own language. The problem becomes more difficult in the future as new population groups create Finland multi-lingual. Producing services in two or more languages causes extra costs for the municipalities and state subsidies are too small to cover the costs. To solve these problems the researchers propose solutions based on new technological innovations. They also emphasize the creation of networks, organizing operations that include interpretation services also from the private sector. Furthermore, in the education of social and health care professionals it is important to pay attention to cultural diversity and language of the clients.

The 2003–2007 national development project for the social welfare sector aims to improve the quality, sustainability and organisation of services. The programme contains numerous sub-projects to target areas of social welfare most vulnerable to demographic change, past spending cuts, regional disparities and increased demand of services. The goals for the national development project for social services include *securing access to social services, reforming service structures and operations, securing staff skills and availability, ensuring social service funding and securing the long-term development of the social welfare sector*. (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health 2004.) The project will bring resources also to the actors at the local level.



## **7 Conclusion**

The purpose of this report was to present the national indicator data on the four conditional factors of Social quality. In order to utilise these indicators, some background knowledge of the Social quality theory is needed. However, these indicators are under development and examples of methodological tools that reveal part of the essence of Social quality. In order to deepen the understanding of the social quality we need to define the adequate levels of the measurable units and define the concrete structure of 'the social' by creating profiles. This is to be done in the future.

Social quality in Finland is a mixture of Nordic welfare state policies with a modern view of developing wide and inclusive service networks. Furthermore, social quality mushrooms from the Finnish open society with endeavours of equity between gender and different population groups. Most importantly, the Finnish people have a historical background that makes the society cohesive to all people with different ethnic backgrounds. Freedom of expression and freedom of assembly and association are some of the core elements of the active participation in Finland.

There are some points of concern in every society. One for Finland is that the Finnish population is ageing, as is the population throughout the territory of the European Union in the coming decades. According to Eurostat calculations, the number of persons aged 65 years or more will rise in proportion to those aged 15–64 (the dependency ratio of the elderly) in the present European Union area from 24% to 36% in 25 years and thereafter to almost 50% by 2050. According to the calculations of the SOMERA Commission in Finland, the ageing of the population will increase the share of social expenditure in GDP by about 5 percentage points reckoned from the present level in 30 years' time, and the share will stabilise at this level. (8.)

It should be kept in mind that the ageing population is not a drawback, but a fact that is to be confronted. Furthermore, the positive effects of the ageing of the population should also be emphasised. One important positive effect is the growth of the cross-generational exchange. The ageing population should be seen as a resource whose expertise should be put to greater use on the every day life and also on the labour market. According to the development of the health status of the population, increasing numbers of retired people will be healthier in the future than in the past. These people can continue to serve the society productively in a variety of new roles long after the traditional retirement age. The older generation can also pass on their valuable heritage of traditional Finnish values to the young people.

Some geographical areas in Finland have already faced some difficulties of the migration from rural areas into population centres. Niemelä and Salminen (8) predict that the migration will continue. The migration has already affected the population structure of both areas showing a migration deficit and areas with a migration surplus. In addition to all the negative effects, the ongoing migration also has some positive effects, such as cultural enrichment in the

growth areas. Immigration increased rapidly in the 1990s, with a fourfold rise in the number of immigrants. The significance of migration in regional population development will be further emphasised in future when the natural population change in the regions becomes negative. These changes not only affect the social cohesion of the communities but also influence on sources of livelihood, and therefore, socio-economic security.

The employment policies in the past ten years have shown to be rather effective. The unemployment rate has decreased from the figures of almost 20 per cents in the early 1990s to less than ten per cents in the early 2000s. Employment, as we have seen, is an important factor for the social quality. It includes many aspects of active human living as a social human being and personal enrichment. The major economic policy target of the government is to add 100 000 jobs by 2007 (increasing the employment rate to about 70 per cent) and to reach a 75 per cent employment rate over the medium term (68). Nevertheless, the unemployment rate may still remain above 8 per cent which is close to the structural unemployment rate. The unemployment policies must also confront the future challenges and must not remain static. The significance of various *active* employment measures is still clearly lower in Finland compared to other Nordic countries (50). In the future, the number of those covered by active measures must be increased, and they should be launched at a sufficiently early stage.

Despite the rather high unemployment, there is already a labour shortage of certain skilled experts and of low-paid workforce such as cleaners. This shortage is expected to grow in the future, partly because of the ride in the population educational level and due to the retirement of the less-educated generation. The future increase of foreign workforce might improve the situation, but Finland will need also some alternative ways to deal with the threatening labour shortage. (69.)

One change in the near future occurs in the employment pension security that undergoes a reform from the beginning of 2005. The aim is to encourage elderly workers to stay on at work, so that they would retire 2–3 years later than at present. The average age of retirement now is 59 and in the future, employment pension is accrued between age 18 and 68, and the time for taking up old-age pension is flexible, between 62 and 68 years. The old-age pension of the national pension will continue to be granted at the age of 65. The unemployment pension will be discontinued for those born after 1950 from 2006 on. The pension reform will only take full effect in the long term, but the signal effect on attitudes related to work as well as the regulatory effect of the reform on the service system will be felt immediately. (63.)

An important challenge for the services is the division between the public sector, private sector and third-sector services. Furthermore, the services in the form of insurance are likely to increase in the future as in many countries. Municipal guarantee for care in the public health care is one step towards the development that enables citizens to get the needed services on time. These actions will enable consolidation of the financial basis for services, improve their availability and flexibility, and enhance the functionality of health and social services. The ability of the private and public sectors to meet the



need for health and social services will depend on the available human resources, on the functionality of public services, on the operating conditions for private services, and on the effectiveness of cooperation between primary health care and specialised services. Furthermore, the decision-makers should be made conscious of the different options and have a wide sight on providing services without automatically excluding some options.

The Finnish society based on equality ensures basic security and enables to draw on the resources of all members of society. In order to reinforce collective responsibility and preserve the characteristics of our culture some entirely new approaches to ensure the wellbeing of the families are needed. In the ever-accelerating competition and with growing demands of working life families need support in carrying out their important role in raising children. Families must be given the opportunity to spend more time together as a family. This will present new challenges for working life and the services of the welfare state. Working life must be flexible in a way that secures the needs of families, and new services that can foster the wellbeing of children and young people must be put in reach of the families that need them. Fortunately, more and more people use the different forms of combining family and working life.

Despite the success in the evaluations of competitiveness (see Introduction) OECD predicts that the contribution of the information and communication technology sector to future economic growth is unlikely to be as great as in the second half of the 1990s. Furthermore ageing will occur in Finland sooner and more rapidly than elsewhere. Within a decade, these developments are to be faced. The task is challenging and it requires more than just economic measures and indicators.

The interests of decision-makers, citizens and large corporations are moving further apart nowadays. This may increase forms of alienation within society. Decision-makers and companies are required to bear a new type of social responsibility that becomes shared responsibility between the citizens, the policy-makers and the companies. Since the public hearings are held mostly on environmental issues in Finland, a shift towards even more open society and social responsibility is welcome.

Theorising and creating something new is an interesting path to walk on. The theory of social quality provides new points of gravitation for social research. The developed methodological tools, indicators, are to be re-evaluated in the future. At this stage, it is far too early to evaluate the methodological value of the indicators, but at this point, they feel refreshing compared to the traditional ways of thinking. Experiences from this process are highly appreciated and valuable. The future indicators will be derived from future databases and research. At this stage, the indicators are for the most part provided by the existing databases and resources.



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## **Annex Social Quality indicators**



### 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 5. Proportion of hidden families (i.e. several families within the same household)
	Housing conditions	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

### 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
	Social contract	32. Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences
		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
Social networks	Networks	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?
		38. Membership (active or inactive) of political, voluntary, charitable organisations or sport clubs
		39. Support received from family, neighbours and friends
Identity	National/ European identity	40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues
		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

### 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)
			54. Involuntary part-time or temporary employment
Services	Health services	55. Proportions with entitlement to and using public primary health care	
		Housing	56. Proportion homeless, sleeping rough
			57. Average waiting time for social housing
	Education	58. school participation rates and higher education participation rates	
		Social care	59. Proportion of people in need receiving care services
			60. Average waiting time for care services (including child care)
	Financial services	61. Proportion denied credit differentiated by income groups	
		62. Access to financial assistance / advice in case of need	
	Transport	63. Proportion of population who has access to public transport system	
		64. Density of public transport system and road density	
Civic / cultural services	65. Number of public sport facilities per 10.000 inhabitants		
	66. Number of public and private civic & cultural facilities (e.g. cinema, theatre, concerts) per 10.000 inhabitants		
Social networks	Neighbourhood participation	67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours	
	Friendships	68. Proportion in regular contact with friends	
	Family life	69. Proportion feeling lonely/isolated	
		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

### Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

## **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 life (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 willpower	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](http://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

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**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
Finanacial 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**

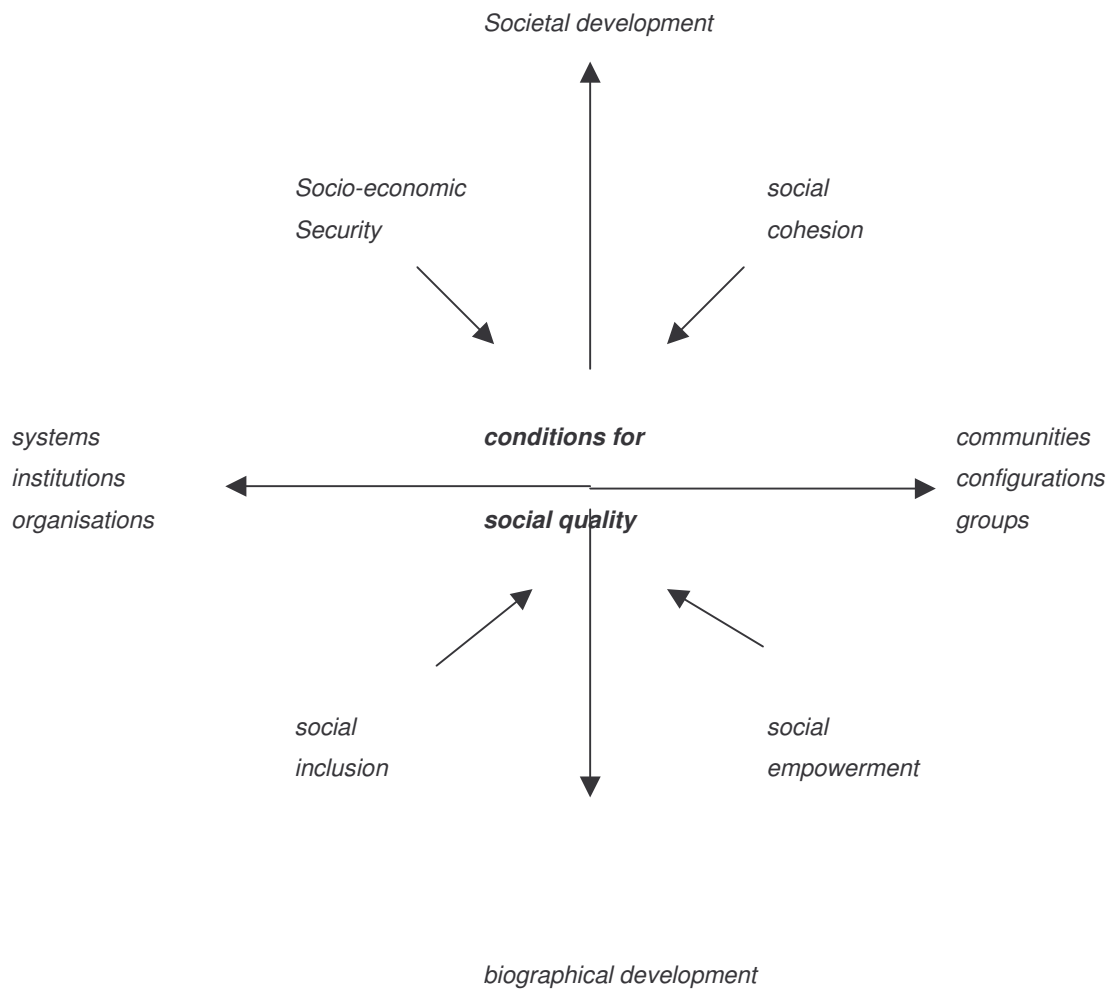
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of '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'.

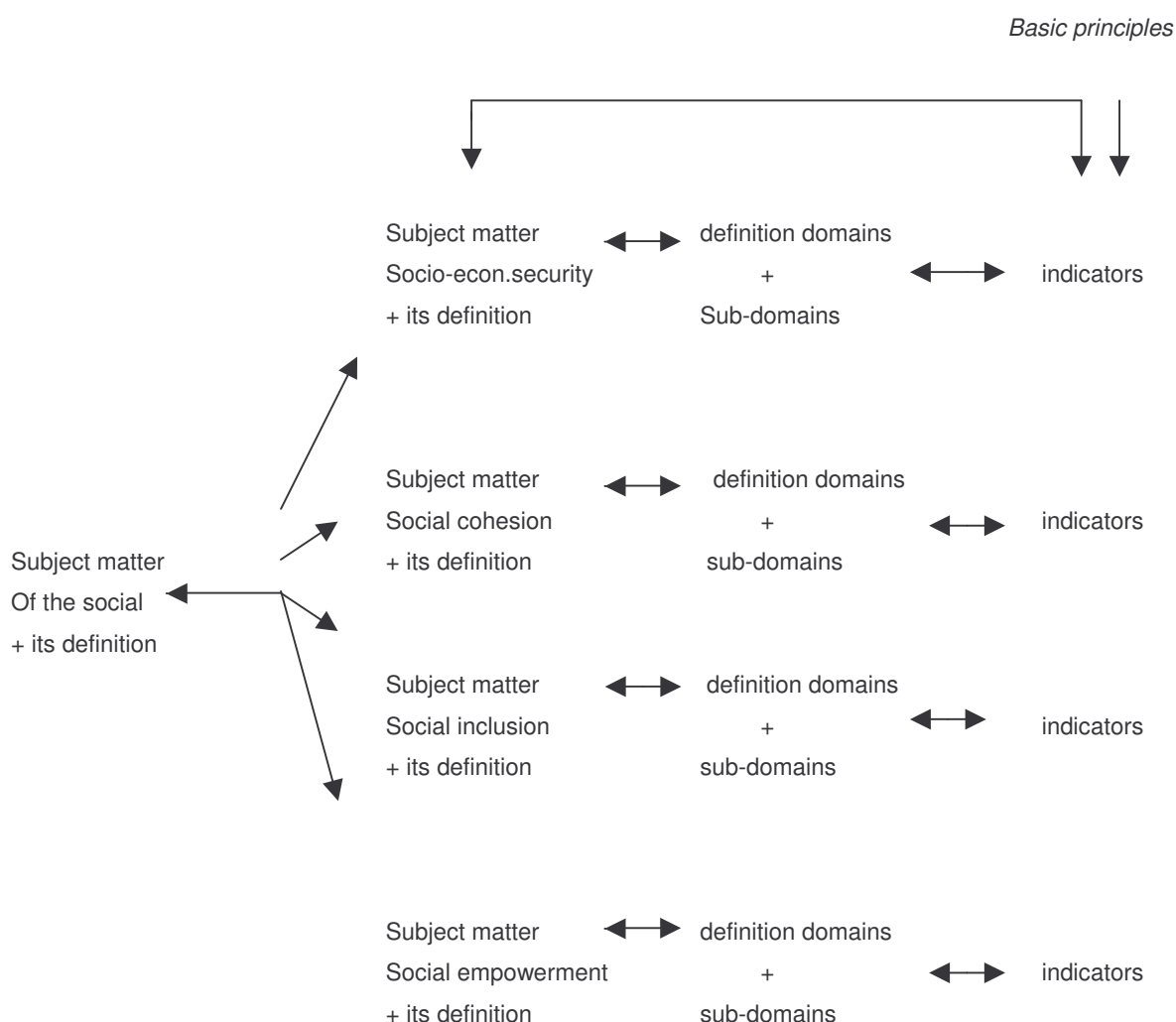
## **4 The national reports about the indicators of social quality**

### **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

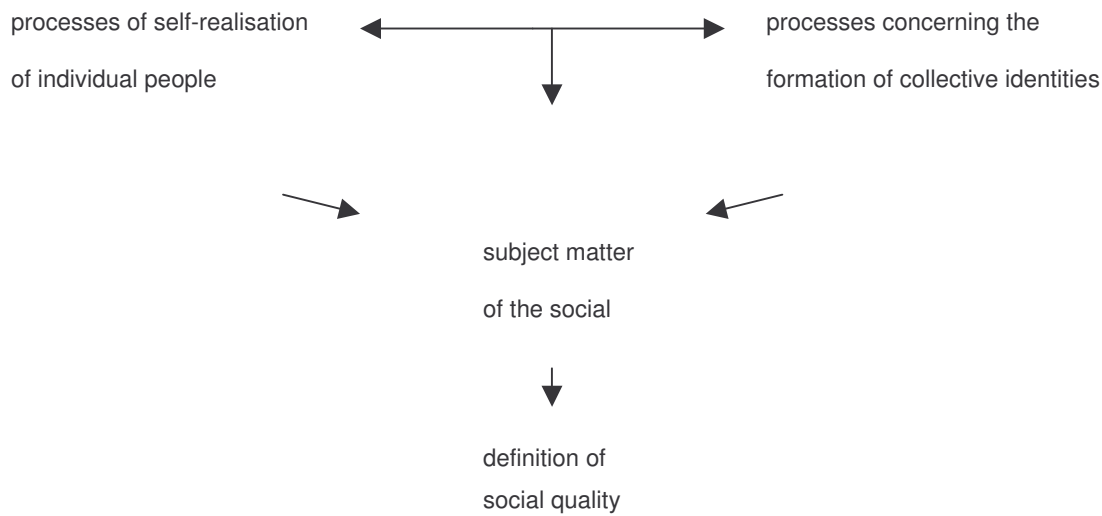


## 4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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.



## **Annex Composition of National Reference Groups**



## **The Finnish National Reference Group**

In Finland the national reference group was formed during the summer 2002. The formation was a bit delayed compared to the original ENIQ timetable. The Finnish ENIQ group went through reformation because of some internal changes in the National Research and Development Centre for Welfare and Health (STAKES). ENIQ member Mr Matti Heikkilä was appointed as the Deputy Director General of STAKES, which increased his workload substantially. Development manager Mr Mika Gissler was nominated as the Finnish member of ENIQ following Mr Heikkilä. Planning officer Mr Mika Vuori was appointed for Mr Gissler's assistant. The reformation and its organising took some time from the actual work, and it was to be gained back in the following months.

The Finnish national reference group consisted of members of research institutions, statistical authorities and the representatives of the third sector. In the following, a complete list of members is presented. In addition to the actual members of the national group, from 2003 onwards, Research Director Mikko Kautto from the Welfare research group of STAKES gave a substantial contribution for the work and establishing a link between the Dublin Foundation<sup>4</sup> and ENIQ indicators in Finland.

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<sup>4</sup> The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

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